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Cognitive Theory of Multimedia Learning
Powered Code-Switching Interface for Vocabulary Acquisition of ESL Students

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Abstract—The purpose of the paper is to use multimedia as a method to improve proficiency in vocabulary of undergraduate students from the level B1 to B2 (CEFR). The term "code-switching" is used to describe the use of multiple languages during a single discourse. Human minds can take in so much data before they get overwhelmed. The quality of that limited space can be improved by incorporating visual attention alongside verbal attention in order to create mental representations that are utilised to digest incoming information. “People learn more deeply from words and pictures than from words alone” (Mayer, 21). This research builds on previous work in this area by making use of multimedia materials that feature both the learners' native language and English subtitles. This creates mental space for the students, which in turn guides them to a vocabulary-learning interface. CTML was employed to conduct a quantitative study between the age groups 17 and 20. Using a random sampling technique, researchers collected data from a total of 40 individuals. ANOVA (Analysis of Variance), independent t-tests, and paired t-tests were used to examine the use of Code-Switching in the experimental group and its statistical significance relative of the control group. The findings of the study suggest that utilising CTML can help non-native speakers of English improve their language through code-switching. There was a significant advancement in the vocabulary usage of the experimental samples of those who participated in the study.

Index Term—vocabulary, Code-Switching, CTML, long-term memory, mother-tongue

I. INTRODUCTION

Language is widely misunderstood as a subject to be learnt and the process of learning is made poignant and pesky as days go by. It is evident that the educational curriculum is failing the system miserably as we observe the downfall among students while expressing any language. As long as a child is in the comfort of the parents, it tends to evolve due to their immense care. When a mistake is committed, it is rectified on account of realisation. The rules in life are not embedded in a book to be followed, but it is practised. Language is a component of lifestyle, and it cannot be acquired merely from a book but through consistent practice.

Language acquisition is about “what is being said rather than how” (Krashen, 1984). It does not fall under a certain rule to be obliged. But learning, on the other hand, works on a structure. Language is being used widely everywhere and hence there are several ways to acquire it. Like learning, acquisition needs a structure to create an order and to eliminate unwanted factors that influence the process. In this paper, the researcher discovered a well-renowned practice of the language acquisition process and enhanced it according to social needs. People nowadays expect everything to be fast. They do not wait for anything longer than their anticipated time. Considering such time-conscious needs, it might be rather difficult for language teachers to follow conventional methods of teaching the language. Researchers around the world come up with new approaches and methods of teaching now and then, and among such endeavours, the researcher of this paper has opted for one of the innovative terminologies called CTML. Understanding and acquiring language via online teaching has always faced hardship when it comes to teacher-student interaction, the distance factor has affected the interaction quality and many educators are resorting to using linguistic choices that indirectly propagate distancing in the online classroom (Chintalapalli, 2021).

Cognitive Theory of Multimedia Learning (CTML) was primarily coined by Mayer, R.E. in the year 2014. A vital proposition that supports the research on multimedia learning is the fact about how the human mind works, and meaningful learning is associated with it. The three scientific principles of the Cognitive Theory of Multimedia Learning are dual-channel assumption, limited-capacity assumption, and active processing assumption. This paper entails the application of CTML in a movie with respect to its visual and auditory processing (DCT). Considering the

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broader audience with reference to the mother-tongue as a demographic variable, Code-Switching is applied to the research to ensure that the auditory process in the research is taken over by the mother-tongue.

Code-Switching is the natural conflict between two languages in course with delivery within a sentence. A terminology to give a reason for habitual expression is turned into a tool for acquiring vocabulary through movies. The course of moving back and forth between two languages is employed in association with cognition in multimedia learning. Before engaging in Code-Switched language learning, it was considered a subject of controversy. Although it is performed automatically and unconsciously, it serves a number of important purposes. “Teachers employ code-switching strategy as a means of providing students with opportunities to communicate and enhance students’ understanding” (Modupeola, 2013). It also helps create a relaxed classroom setting where teachers do not have to strain their nerves to find a way to explain complex concepts in simple terms. CTML acts as an inducer of Code-Switching in this research.

Research Question
RQ1: Can non-native English speakers adopt Code-switching to learn new vocabulary?
RQ2: Can Code-Switching use CTML to teach vocabulary?
RQ3: Can Code-Switched subtitles help learners acquire new vocabulary?

II. LITERARY BACKGROUND

A. Why Code-Switching?

English has always been immigrant in most cases in an ESL classroom. A non-native learner finds it challenging to shift completely to the English language in the process of learning. Code-Switching enables learners to relish the language learning process due to their capability to grasp their teachers’ input (Modupeola, 2013). As the experiment switches between codes, the objectives of the experiment draw the learners gradually. Code-switching helps students start in a comfortable place and move confidently into uncharted territory. It helps learners to relate to the experiment content much more efficiently as the mother-tongue has a prime involvement in the method. There are some drawbacks irrespective of their profound nature. If the learners do not share the same mother-tongue, Code-Switching does not function effectively. The other students who do not share the language in the experiment would feel left out in the process (Cook, 2002). With its arguable phenomenon, Code-Switching can be viewed for its pros and cons and considering that the research has explored a new area to make the best use of Code-Switching. On a brighter note, it is supposed to tie the teaching and learning process (Üstunel, 2016). Even though English as a Foreign Language (EFL) classroom requires an English-only environment, native speakers are encouraged to use their mother-tongue in class (Paradowski, 2008). In a classroom, teachers may find the students quite confused about certain learning materials. Code-Switching allows educators to seamlessly transition between languages when presenting new content (Uys & Dulm, 2011). Code-Switching not only benefits the trainers but also the trainees in terms of comfort and emotional connectivity. Whether in conversation with teachers or co-learners, Code-Switching acts as a key to avoiding misinformation, but clarifying their uncertainties (Moore, 2010). Allowing the use of the mother-tongue will help the learners comprehend the lesson, which will, in turn, help them gain confidence and answer any questions. This practice will help them avoid mistakes (Wilang, 2021).

Video is changing the way we learn. The use of video in the classroom has been shown to increase students’ learning efficiency (Ljubojevic et al., 2014). Both spoken and written languages originate in Wernicke’s region, located on the left side of the brain. But the right half is liable for the emotional expression of language. Video-based instruction engages the student’s entire brain, including the rational and intuitive parts of the mind, thus leading to enhanced learning. While the potential for profound and lasting learning has always been present, traditional teaching methods have never made use of the right brain’s capacity. The widespread use of instructional films has countered this trend (Clare, 2017).

B. Dual-Coding Theory

In 1971, Allan Paivio put forth the Dual-Coding theory to describe the significant influence of the mental imagery on cognition and memory. After initially applying Paivio’s idea to the study of memory, researchers have begun to extend it to other areas of cognition (Paivio, 1987). Confering to this principle, an individual can acquire new information by either verbal connotations or visual imagery alone, but the amalgamation of the two is more efficient (Reed, 2012). The dual-coding theory proposes that the mind stores information in a way that combines language and visual cues. However, the human mind processes this data in two separate channels, each of which results in a unique representation of the data it takes in. There are now two primary coding systems in use: the verbal system and the visual system that come under the non-verbal category. Because of the mutual influence of these two encoding schemes, memory is improved (Al Seghayer, 2001). “Logogens” are the sequential units of information that are stored in the verbal system; these can be any kind of linguistic information, from written text to spoken words to motor experience like sign language. Visual information and units, including symbols, photographs, and motion pictures, are processed and stored in the “imagens” of the non-verbal and visual systems. Both “logogen” as well as “imagen” relate to emblematic units of verbal and non-verbal data that generate mental words and images that already exist in the memory and can work automatically to enhance reasoning function. To put it another way, an imagen is a non-verbal information...
representation unit, while a logogen is a spoken chunk of data (Paivio, 2014). Amid verbal and visual systems, there are three separate types of processing that can occur: representational processing, referential processing, and associative processing. Connections between the two reference systems have been made (Clark & Paivio, 1991).

One way that the brain works is through a process called "referential processing," in which one system triggers the activation of the other. The unique form of associative mutualism known as referential processing involves the activation of logogens in other systems, either by imagens that have been previously activated or vice versa. Referential links between imagens and logogens make naming feasible, and names can trigger images that are representations of information about the world. Reference processing occurs in many facets of life, from language acquisition to academic achievement to technological proficiency to the generation of original thought (Paivio, 2014). Initially dependent on recognizing linked relationships between language and material patterns, this occurs very early in the process of language acquirement, when toddlers initiate acquiring the appellations of objects, thereafter rapidly expand towards the erudition of grammar (Moeser, 1973).

In discussing representational processing, we refer to the stimulation of a verbal or visual demonstration by an impetus, which could be a word or a picture. More specifically, we are referring to the instigation of a verbal or visual demonstration by a word and a visual demonstration by a picture, respectively (Reed, 2022). The initial stage of information processing is the instantaneous initiation of imagens and logogens from stimulus patterns. This step can be thought of as a "template matching process involved in stimulus recognition" (Paivio, 2014).

The phrase "associative processing" denotes the commencement of new data inside referential systems. Visual and verbal codes that, respectively, correlate to these verbal and non-verbal demonstrations are employed to organise the inbound data which can be worked upon, amassed, and retrieved for further usage. These codes can be either spoken or seen. When trying to remember something, you have the option of using either visual or verbal cues (Paivio, 2014).

C. Cognitive Theory of Multimedia Learning

The Cognitive Theory of Multimedia Learning, or CTML, examines the way individuals acquire instructions when they are exposed to different types of multimedia (Mayer, 2001). The generative theory of Wittrock (1974) and the dual-coding theory of Paivio (1990) serve as the foundation for this hypothesis. Nevertheless, it surpasses these two conceptions by placing the onus of "actively selecting and connecting parts of visual and verbal knowledge" on the learner (Mayer, 1997). The theory backs up the impression that students make significant associations between images and words and efficiently assimilate them in long-term memory (Mayer, 2005). The learner participates more actively in the creation of knowledge in the CTML paradigm than in the DCT paradigm, which is the main difference between the two.

As a cognitive structure, the CTML process runs through three memory stores known as sensory memory, working memory, and long-term memory. Sensory memory recognises fresh information. Working memory endures the route by processing the newly acquired information. Finally, long-term memory stores the data as a knowledge base (Sweller, 2005). The representation of words and pictures is distinguished into five forms which occur as information processed by memory. In the three memory stores paradigm of multimedia learning, each form has a responsibility. The depiction of words and images in a multimedia presentation is the first form; sounds and images as acoustic and emblematic representations in sensory memory are the second form; and audio and pictures in working memory are the third form. The fourth form is portrayed in the working memory by verbal and graphical models. In the fifth form, schemas (previous knowledge), are retained in long-term memory (Mayer, 2005).

![Figure 1. Mayer’s Cognitive Theory of Multimedia Learning](Source: Mayer (2010))

Implementation of this process with Code-Switching to better relate the presentation with the learner to enhance the learning experience to attain improved results is the gap of the study. By doing so, the learners would be able to use their mother-tongue in CTML to obligate a better learning experience. The multimedia principle and the contiguity principle are the two cornerstone notions of CTML.
The multimedia principle posits that the acquisition of knowledge among children can be enhanced through the provision of both visual and textual aids, in addition to verbal communication, which is akin to the Dual Coding Theory (Mayer, 2014). In addition, the multimedia idea is superior to DCT. It refers to a broad concept that, when delivered collectively, incorporates a variety of visual and linguistic representations, and is not just limited to text and images. Multimedia instructional visual components include graphics, images, charts and graphs, portraits, and particularly movies and simulations (Butcher, 2006). Texts, words, and voices constitute the verbal components. The brain can assimilate and store additional data in working memory when words and visuals are combined (Sweller, 2005) and can be retrieved when necessary from long-term memory.

Potential multimedia information overload is explained by the temporal contiguity concept. It contends that concurrent text, audio, video, image, and animation delivery is preferable to sequential or non-sequential delivery since students can cram more from learning aids this way (Mayer & Fiorella, 2014). As per the Cognitive Theory of Multimedia Learning (CTML), it is imperative for students to have access to relevant textual and visual information concurrently in their working memory to facilitate the process of linking diverse concepts (Mayer, 2008).

III. STATEMENT OF THE PROBLEM

The objective of the study is to teach English vocabulary with regard to its storage in long-term memory and effective retrieval. CTML and Code-Switching are employed for effective results in this research. In the course of this research, the language alternation tool of code-switching functioned as a link between the mother tongue and the target language. CTML (Cognitive Theory of Multimedia Learning) contributed to this paper by easing out the science of information needed to make code-switching in multimedia. The paper aims to enhance the vocabulary competency of the undergraduate students. The objective of the study is not only to enhance their vocabulary competency but also to enrich and heighten long-term memory to utilize its potential to store the acquired vocabulary and retrieve it when necessary without a glitch. With a handful of research work scattered around us to help augmentation of vocabulary competence, this research paper would ease the method by including the usage of the mother-tongue in the process. By employing code-switching as a teaching strategy and implementing it in CTML, the researcher has developed a new way of vocabulary enrichment.

IV. METHODOLOGY

This empirical study paves its way towards enhancing the vocabulary skillset of the learners in a much more efficient and interesting manner, by means of which the primary focus of improving the learners’ vocabulary level shifts from B1 level to B2 level (CEFR). The process is approached using CTML being an interface and Code-switching as an approach.

A. Participants

The present empirical investigation employed a random sampling method to select a sample of 40 individuals aged between 17 and 20 years (M=18.5, SD=1.1). Therefore, their involvement was of their own accord. The aforementioned samples pertained to English as a Second Language (ESL) classrooms, indicating that all subjects were uniformly exposed to equivalent levels of knowledge. Following the diagnostic test on B1 level vocabularies, the samples were categorised into two distinct groups: the control group and the experimental group. The primary objective of the research is to augment the lexicon of samples at the B2 level by utilising code-switching and the Cognitive Theory of Multimedia Learning.

B. Instruments

Quite a few instruments were employed in this research work. Some of the instruments are Prime Video (OTT), google forms, Microsoft Teams, and SPSS. As the research was conducted during the pandemic, the assessments were conducted and worked upon via Microsoft Teams. With reference to that, both the pilot test and the final assessment were conducted in google forms. Post assessments, the scores earned by the learners were evaluated in SPSS to find the efficacy of the idea employed in the study.

C. Intervention and Procedures

Divergent pedagogical approaches were employed for the control and the experimental cohorts. The control group was controlled by the conventional method of teaching. The classes were no different from the regular classroom sessions. The experimental group were exempted from this method of teaching. They were provided with instructions on how to learn from the techniques and instruments employed in the study. The experimental group were directed to watch a movie scene while paying attention to the subtitles. The movie was in their native language and the subtitles on how to learn from the techniques and instruments employed in the study. The experimental group were directed to watch a movie scene while paying attention to the subtitles. The movie was in their native language and the subtitles on their
own devices with an Amazon Prime subscription for a certain amount of time allotted for the practice session. This accessibility towards the study material brings ease and makes the learners independent.

The doubts were clarified immediately for both the sample groups as Microsoft Teams was used. The comment section was truly useful to give corrective feedback and help the learners with efficient learning. At the end of the practice sessions, questions were given to both groups via Google form for the final assessment of the study. Throughout the study, emphasis was placed on providing both the control and experimental groups with the necessary tools to effectively implement the guidelines outlined at the onset of the research, thereby enabling them to successfully navigate the intervention.

In summation, 2 sets of tests were conducted after the diagnostic tests. The weightage of each test was 20 marks. Prior to the teaching sessions, a pre-test was administered to both the control and experimental groups, utilising B1 level (CEFR) vocabularies. Following the teaching sessions, the control and experimental groups underwent multimedia sessions, respectively. Subsequently, a post-test assessment was conducted, utilising B2 level (CEFR) vocabularies. The post-tests of both groups underwent a scale reliability test with a Cronbach’s value of $p > 0.764$ to determine their reliability. The data were examined, using SPSS for further analysis and results.

D. Subtitles as a Vocabulary Learning Tool

The acquisition and consistent retrieval of an extensive lexicon are fundamental components in the process of acquiring proficiency in a non-native language, as the utilisation of unfamiliar lexical items is not viable in oral communication (Hulstijn, 2007). Following the seminal research conducted by Karen Price in 1983, several studies have confirmed that watching movies with subtitles makes it easier to learn new words. These investigations have uncovered a number of other benefits of utilising subtitles (Sadiku, 2018). Films are among the most notable examples of multimedia resources that can be used in a classroom setting to teach a foreign language, particularly when subtitles or captions are added to the film. The encoding process of written and spoken language occurs only once, whereas the encoding process of word images takes place twice, first visually and then verbally. As a result, images leave our brains with twice as many and, thus, stronger imprints. This is due to the fact that words’ images are twice encoded: visually and verbally (Kirschner & Neelen, 2017). When a learner makes use of captions or subtitles, they can utilise more of their working memory capacity (Baddeley, 2002). Furthermore, the captions, subtitles, and audio text show virtually simultaneously, and there is a decreased possibility of the learners’ cognitive capacity being swamped (Mayer, 2014). As a result, the use of captions or subtitles is anticipated to contribute significantly more to improved word memory as well as incidental vocabulary development (Mayer, 1994).

Furthermore, multimedia in the curriculum can be helpful even to students who are not academically strong. The reason for this is that while videos may present a difficulty for the average student, their speech can be understood with the aid of subtitles. These subtitles may be generated automatically by the viewer or composed manually, and are displayed on the screen (Talavan, 2010). Scholars have noted that films, being audiovisual materials, offer unique contexts that involve action, as opposed to static images. This distinct quality of video has been identified as a potent medium for learning (Bates, 1985). Multimedia, being authentic audiovisual resources, prioritise natural language usage at a conversational pace and encompass diverse accents from individuals of different ages, genders, and sociocultural backgrounds, without emphasising the form (Lertola, 2012). Price conducted one of the initial investigations into the efficacy of subtitleing and discovered that its implementation resulted in heightened comprehension of various cultural nuances, linguistic characteristics, and societal conduct (Price, 1983).

Research in the realm of second language acquisition suggests that utilising subtitled films as a form of comprehensible input can enhance the efficacy of vocabulary acquisition (Gorjian, 2014). Whether it was unintentional or deliberate; in addition to taking into account other aspects such as the number of times the multimedia content can be viewed (Etemadi, 2012). In this research, it is prominent that with the help of subtitles, even students in the ESL classroom who have little knowledge about the language were able to implement this method efficiently as the process involved their mother-tongue. In a conventional learning environment, the implementation of the mother-tongue is not encouraged but in this method, the researcher made sure that the audio in the mother-tongue made it easier for the learner to match the visual content in English to the auditory content in mother-tongue. This influenced the learning curve predominantly for the welfare of the learner. The understanding they gained over the learning content was exceptional.

E. Hypotheses

To determine whether the assumed statement of this study is true or not, the null hypothesis ($H_0$) was developed to examine the experimental data gathered for this investigation.

$H_0$: Non-native English speakers cannot acquire new vocabulary by using CTML that enabled Code-switched learning phenomenon.

$H_1$: There is no significant difference between the conventional teaching method and the CTML-induced teaching method.

$H_2$: Parents’ education does not impact vocabulary acquisition in English using CTML induced Code-switching phenomenon for the students.
V. RESULTS

A. Paired Sample Statistics

Table 1 displays the outcomes of the paired sample t-test. The larger and smaller size trial differences of the variable are stated in this test based on participant data. The pre-test mean (M = 9.75, SD = 2.227) is lower than the post-test mean (M = 13.43, SD = 3.029). The influence of the intervention and the mean differences between the dependent samples were both statistically significant, in accordance with the outcome, t(39) = -7.981, p = 0.00. The statistical significance level, as determined by the p-value, is below the predetermined threshold of 0.05. As a result, the alternative hypothesis has been embraced while the null hypothesis has been discarded. The phenomenon of Code-switched learning augmented with CTML has the potential to aid individuals who are not native speakers of English in acquiring new vocabulary.

B. Independent Sample Statistics

The statistical analysis of the independent sample t-test indicates that there is a significant difference between the post-test outcomes of the control group and the experimental group. The descriptive statistics evaluated the average effect size of both categories. The experimental group's post-test results (M = 15.85, SD = 1.42) were comparatively higher than those of the control group (M = 11, SD = 2.1). A statistical analysis was conducted to determine the mean difference between the control and experimental groups. A two-tailed t-test for independent samples was utilised, with the assumption of equal variance. The resulting post-test outcome was found to be statistically significant, with a t-value of -8.54 and a p-value of 0.00, based on a sample size of 38. The adoption of the alternative hypothesis is thus favoured, whereas the null hypothesis is dismissed. The present study concludes that there exists a significant difference in the instructional strategies employed by the control and experimental groups.

C. ANOVA (Analysis of Variance)

Table 3 illustrates how one of the demographic factors influences vocabulary growth through code-switching. The table divides the education of the parents into three categories: high school, college, and additional education. The results of the examination suggest that there exists a significant disparity among the three tiers of education in the outcomes of the post-test. Based on the ANOVA findings, it can be inferred that parents possessing a college education (M = 16.07, SD = 1.8) exhibit a comparatively greater score among the three groups. Following them, are the parents with higher education (M = 14.8, SD = 0.7). Then comes the parents with school education with a lower value (M = 11.15, SD = 2.27). Consequently, parents' educational levels have a significant influence on their children's capacity to learn vocabulary through the CTML-induced Code-Switching phenomena. The alternative hypothesis has been accepted, and the null hypothesis has been rejected based on this conclusion.
Table 4
TUKEY HSD MULTIPLE COMPARISON OF PARENTS’ EDUCATION

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Parental Education</th>
<th>Mean Difference (I-J)</th>
<th>Std. Error</th>
<th>Sig.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>School Edu</td>
<td>College Edu</td>
<td>-4.921*</td>
<td>0.688</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>School Edu</td>
<td>Higher Edu</td>
<td>-3.683*</td>
<td>0.919</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>College Edu</td>
<td>Higher Edu</td>
<td>1.238</td>
<td>0.964</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Notes: * The mean difference is significant at the 0.05 level.

The post hoc analysis in Table 4 compares all three levels of parents’ education. Firstly, the results of parents with school education are compared with the results of parents with college education. There is a significant difference found in the output ($MD = -4.9, p = 0.00$), which is lesser than the standard value of 0.05. Secondly, the results of parents with school education are compared with the results of parents with higher education ($MD = -3.6, p = 0.001$). The obtained $p$-value is below the conventional threshold of 0.05, indicating statistical significance and implying the presence of a notable difference in the results. Finally, the results of parents with a college education are compared with the results of parents with higher education. There is no significant difference found in the results ($MD = 1.2, p = 0.41$), which is higher than the standard value of 0.05.

Table 5 shows which level of parents’ education has a different mean in the post-test results. The parents with school-level education are in subset 1 and the parents with higher education and college education are in subset 2. The Tukey HSD shows that there is no significance within the subsets for the $p$-value of subset 1 = 1 and subset 2 = 0.33. The subsets when stood individually are significant.

VI. DISCUSSION

With reference to the above confirmed statistical outcomes, the researcher shows that using subtitles-induced multimedia content can be used to enhance code-switching and enhance learning and acquiring new vocabulary. Before the intervention, the samples secured low scores in B1 vocabulary tests. However, after implementing the intervention, the students were more indulged in the process of learning, as the process included a part of relaxation and recreation. The post-test on B2 vocabulary showed a massive difference in terms of understanding and rationalizing the options before answering. Table 2 indicates a significant disparity in the post-test outcomes of the experimental and the control groups, indicating that the integration of the CTML-based learning approach leads to more substantial advancements in student learning. As the code-switching element was used as an influencing factor, the students with less interest in the learning process were able to deliver better results. On conducting a comparative analysis between the control group and the experimental group, it was observed that the progress of the experimental group samples was significantly higher. Based on the data presented in Table 2, it can be observed that the outcomes of the post-test conducted for the experimental group exhibit a noteworthy contrast in comparison to those of the control group. Although the results of the control groups’ post-test show a substantial difference from their pre-test, the advancement shown by the experimental group samples had a better leap in vocabulary acquisition.

The students whose parents had higher education performed better than the students with school-educated parents. Even as a small difference, this makes a huge impact on the progress of the students. The rationale behind learning subconsciously is found common among graduates and postgraduates. In Table 3, the impact of parents on the student’s ability to acquire vocabulary using this technique is explored through their educational qualifications. The parents with
higher education and college education came under the same subset serving the best when compared to the parents with school education. The students who belonged to the former were able to progress well when compared to the students who belonged to the latter. To dive deeper into the influence of parentage, multiple comparisons on the parents’ education were conducted through Tukey HSD: multiple comparisons. In Table 4, when parents with a school education were contrasted with others with a college education and higher education respectively, both analyses had a significant difference. Whereas when parents with higher education were contrasted with the ones with college education, there was no significant difference found. Therefore, it is evident that the impact of parents’ education is obvious over vocabulary acquisition of the students using the CTML induced code-switching phenomenon. Even with some limitations and barriers the intervention proved to be better than the traditional teaching methods for vocabulary acquisition.

According to scholars, multimedia is typically defined as a fusion of textual and visual elements. According to their argument, the process of multimedia learning occurs when individuals generate cognitive representations based on the words and images presented to them (Mayer, 2005a). Teachers use PowerPoint presentations to share their ideas and provide textual input to the students. But nowadays, PowerPoint is a challenging tool itself with overcrowding information that is available to the students through other channels (Chintalapalli, 2021).

The visual content has various accompaniments like the social setting where the word is used, the scenario when the word is used and the scripted mental stability of how the word is used. The very setting brings life to the application of a word used in the context. When projected in perfection, it is more than what could be comprehended in a classroom environment. A word with life in a scripted setting is way better than a word printed in a notebook. The visual elements may comprise a variety of graphical depictions, including but not limited to photographs or videos, while the accompanying textual content may be presented through oral or written means (Sorden, 2012). The purpose of this research is accomplished using a video clip. Clippings from movies in mother-tongue are used to learn new vocabulary. CEFR verified B1 and B2 level vocabularies were used in this research. Clipping which has such vocabulary was played for the experimental group. As per the CTML model, the auditory (verbal) and visual (English subtitles) stimuli underwent processing in the working memory prior to being encoded in the long-term memory, thereby rendering them accessible for retrieval as and when required. Due to the effects of cognition underlying this process, the learners were able to relate better when the audio was played in their mother-tongue (code-switching). This helped the researcher to get better results.

**Student 1** “When I watched the movie in Tamil (Mother-tongue) and saw the subtitles in English I was able to understand the word without any dictionary or Google’s help. And the word was played in the movie, so it is easy for me to register it in my mind. It is almost a month since the assessment and still, I can recall the words. This is new and I will follow this and put it into practice”.

Through the feedback obtained from the experimental group after a significant amount of time to observe the validity of the research, the researcher finds the method used for assessment to be valued and unconventional, yet successful.

**Student 2** “I was afraid of English. I am inferior to attending classes to improve my English. This learning through subtitles technique has helped me to improve myself without anyone’s help. Reading English subtitles in Tamil movies is helping me not only learn the word but also learn its meaning. Slowly I am learning to use the words in sentences”.

The technique used in the assessment has strengthened the students’ confidence level according to Student 2’s feedback. The code-switching involved in the study has encouraged Student 2 that language acquisition can be done without the need for a classroom.

**Student 3** “The session was useful. I was able to learn new words from the subtitles. It was very interesting, and still, I remember the new words from the class. It was easy to learn also I got to learn many new words from the subtitle It was very easy and understandable. This class was very useful to me and I got to learn new words from this class”.

From the experience of Student 3, it is apparent that even after a month, the words used in the assessments can be remembered. Through the process, it is evident that the long-term memory worked flawlessly in the storage and retrieval of the words acquired through CTML and Code-switching assessments. With the technique acquired through this assessment, students can further use this method to learn new words with their meanings and their application in sentences. By just the knowledge of how to develop oneself in the elements of language learning, one can easily develop himself/herself. But consistent practice is the key. The Gen Alphas are seldom interested in the good old teaching methods. They need something effortless and fast. They have understood the difference between English as a subject and English as a language. Hence, they are ready to acquire the language efficiently enough to express themselves to the world proficiently. Books for language learning are outdated as they will only guide and serve them to clear the examination conducted to check their knowledge that they claim to have possessed. Lessons taught in the classroom are expected to be applied in a learning environment, thus enabling students to make the most of their experience that pertains to the application.

**VII. CONCLUSION**
A positive approach to teaching English as a language involves adopting a “humanistic approach, negotiating learning goals and assessments, being sensitive to learner needs, allowing learners’ mistakes, providing real-world tasks, reducing corrective (negative) feedback, creating a relaxing learning environment, and allowing the use of L1 in the classroom” (Wilang, 2021). Everything around us has been updated and automated. Enhancing the learning process is the need of the hour. With classrooms on your palm, conventional learning methods must not be left to be obliterated but heightened using technology. As Gen Alphas are independent, the teachers and facilitators of the previous generation must understand the importance of bringing the learning curve to sophistication. This is possible if the learning is connected to the reasoning involved in a learner’s activity. In recent days, the classroom has shifted to livelihood, people learn from things around them. And this is just the beginning.

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REFERENCES


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‘Fidelity, Perspicuity, and Simplicity’: Robert Morrison and His Translation of the Four Gospels in 1820s

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Abstract—Based on ‘translation as rewriting’ from Lefevere as theoretical framework, this article delves into Morrison’s translation of the four gospels in 1820s. Morrison’s translation strategies will be examined and the motivations behind will be explored. Lefevere identifies three elements in his patronage: ideological, economic and status, and this article proposed a fourth component: pragmatic component, which affects Morrison’s translation method.

Index Terms—gospel translation, rewriting, patronage, Robert Morrison, equivalence

I. INTRODUCTION

The nineteenth century witnessed a substantial change which took place in interstate relations. As the West was striving to acquire wealth, power and prestige in the context of the industrial revolution, China, on the other hand, unwilling to participate in the new world order, was regarded as backward and thus in need of modernisation and reformation.

According to mainstream Chinese scholars (Mao, 2014, p. 1; Xiao, 2017, pp. 318-320; Li, 2014, pp. 84-85), the turning point in interstate relations was the outbreak of the First Opium War (1839), which took a heavy toll on the fortunes and vigour of Chinese society. From that point onwards, China suffered constant military interventions by the West and Japan. Kaufman (2010, pp. 2-3) notices that China’s elites and general populace continue to reference the ‘century of humiliation’: the period from the First Opium War to the end of the Second World War. Since modern Chinese history is a compulsory part of the Chinese younger generation’s education, this term—‘century of humiliation’—has been used as a strategy designed to arouse feelings of nationalism among the Chinese people, to deflect the attention away from China’s domestic problems, such as corruption, human rights etc. This is prominent the case since the outbreak of Covid 19 in 2019, since when ‘nationalism’ has been a useful ‘chess piece’ in handling charges from foreign authorities. According to Kaufman (2011, p. 3), the notion of ‘national humiliation’ serves as a pivotal legitimising factor for the rule of the Chinese Communist Party (CCP). It portrays the CCP as the sole contemporary Chinese political party that effectively resisted foreign aggression. In the name of ‘never forgetting the shame of the past’, anti-foreign sentiment is strengthened and belligerent actions on the international stage are justified.

It can clearly be seen that the Opium War has for a long time been one of the most controversial subjects in the Sino-Western relationship. In terms of the ethical and political question of moral culpability, it is subtle and sensitive. The significance of this particular aspect within the historical period has generated the interest of this essay in studying it. Since a study of this period would not just be a piece of historical research, it is also linked to Sino-Western relationship.

In China’s nineteenth century relationship with the West, Protestant missionaries were among the most significant actors on the scene. Compared to diplomats and merchants who communicated or collaborated with the Chinese by the nature of their profession, Protestant missionaries were often ‘aggressive individualists’. They sought direct contact with the Chinese common people and often in conflict with the established order of Chinese society. They were the only foreign group at that time that attempted to change Chinese minds and hearts completely. They were also the only group of foreigners in China at that time who reported most fully and frequently on China to the West. Protestant missionaries transmitted their image of China to the West while also shaping Chinese views of the outside world. This leads to the conclusion that a study of the Protestant missionaries, together with their educational backgrounds and their work, is vital, if one wishes to obtain a clear picture of China in the nineteenth century.

Among all the Protestant missionaries, Robert Morrison was the first arriving in China. He was a pioneering sinologist and translator considered the ‘Father of Anglo-Chinese literature’ (Thom, 1840, preface). Morrison is most notable for his work in China. After twenty-five years of work, with the help of his assistants, this presbyterian preacher translated the whole Bible into the Chinese language (Townsend, 1890, appendix). Morrison pioneered the translation of the Chinese Bible, and unlike his Jesuits predecessors whose works have never been published, Morrison planned broad distribution of Scriptures, and seeking direct contact with Chinese common people to preach gospel (Townsend, 1890, appendix). It can be said that he set a solid foundation for the exchange between China and the West, moreover,
he set a fundamentalist pattern for Protestant missionaries in China in the 19th century, as his works were influential on his colleagues.

This essay delves into the first Protestant missionary, Robert Morrison, his upbringings, and Chinese translations of the four gospels. Based on Lefevere’s rewriting theory, this essay will explore how ideological tensions around the text affect Morrison’s translation and how he conveyed the image of China to the West. The first part of this essay will focus on Morrison’s training in his early career, then it will move to his translation strategy in translating four gospels. The final part will analyse his motivations.

II. IDEOLOGICAL AND POETOLOGICAL INFLUENCE ON MORRISON’S VIEWS ON CHINA

A. Lefevere and His Rewriting

In his book Translation, Rewriting and the Manipulation of Literary Fame (1992), Lefevere focuses particularly on ‘issues such as power, ideology, institution and manipulation’ (p. 2). The people involved in such power positions are seen as ‘rewriting’ literature and they govern its consumption by the general public. Lefevere (1992, p. 8) argues that the motivation for such rewriting can be ideological (conforming to or rebelling against the dominant ideology) or poetological (conforming to or rebelling against the dominant poetics). He further states that:

Translation is the most obviously recognisable type of rewriting, and since it is potentially the most influential because it is able to project the image of an author and/or a (series of) work(s) in another culture, lifting that author and/or those works beyond the boundaries of their culture of origin. (1992, p. 9)

For Lefevere, there are two factors which control translation functions: professionals within the literary system, who partly determine the dominant poetics; and patronage outside the literary system, which partly determines the ideology (1992, p. 15). Patronage, which may be differentiated or undifferentiated, consists of three components: an ideological, an economic, and a status component (Munday, 2016, p. 201). Lefevere adopts a definition of ideology that is not limited to the political sphere; rather, ‘that grillwork of form, convention, and belief which orders our actions’. (Munday, p. 201) He sees patronage as being mainly ideologically focused. The interaction between poetics, ideology and translation leads him to make the following claim:

On every level of the translation process, it can be shown that, if linguistic considerations enter into conflict with considerations of an ideological and/or poetological nature, the latter tend to win out (1992, p. 39).

For Lefevere, the paramount consideration is the ideological one. This refers to the ideology of translator or the ideology imposed on the translator by the patronage (Munday, p. 203). The poetological consideration refers to the dominant poetics in the TL culture. Together, ideology and poetics determine the translation strategy and the solution to specific translation problems (Munday, p. 203).

Based on this theory, this essay will examine if there was a patronage of Morrison, and the answer is affirmative, since it is assumed that he was sponsored during his activities in China. How Morrison was influenced ideologically is also worth studying, and it may be linked to his strategies in translating the Bible.

B. Robert Morrison: A Master Builder

In The Chinese Repository (Bridgman, 1834, p. 11), it was written that:

Previous to the embassy of Macartney, not more than one individual of that nation, so far as we know, ever undertook to acquire a knowledge of this language. …at that time, and chiefly with a view to translate the sacred Scriptures, two individuals, Morrison in China and Marshman in Bengal, were successfully engaged in studying the language: both of those men still alive, and with others of their countrymen, not to omit Milne and Collie who rest from their labors, are doing very much to promote and extend a knowledge of the Chinese language and literature, and are far in advance even of the French.

Although Morrison made significant contributions to Chinese studies in the West, this study finds that in doing so he was merely following his tutor’s instructions. In reading his memoir—Memoirs of the Life and Labours of Robert Morrison, written by his widow, Eliza Morrison, it can be found that his tutor, David Bogue, played a significant part in guiding his activities in China.

Robert Morrison was born in Northumberland in 1782 and grew up in Newcastle. He joined the Presbyterian Church in 1798. In 1803 he was admitted to the Hoxton Academy, and soon moved to the Missionary Academy at Gosport, from where he was transferred to London in 1805 to study medicine and astronomy (Daily, 2013). He took up the study of the Chinese language at the same time, since the London Missionary Society (LMS) had decided to send him to China. According to Daily (2013), The Gosport Training Academy was founded by David Bogue, who belonged to the LMS. There, Bogue taught his students a three-pronged approach to missions:

1. learn the language,
2. translate the Scriptures,
3. establish a seminary (Daily, 2013).

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Morrison attended Bogue’s Gosport Academy for a period of fourteen months before he was assigned to China to acquire the language and translate the Scriptures (Daily, 2013).

Having been influenced by the philosophical school of Scottish Common Sense Realism founded by Thomas Reid, Bogue believed in the concept of common sense (Daily, 2013). This theory held that all humans possessed common sense (or the ability to identify reality and truth), and that if people were just given access to texts containing knowledge (specifically, the Scriptures), they would recognise the truths contained in them (Daily, 2013). As a consequence, Bogue thought that translating the Scriptures and giving people the tools to read those Scriptures was of the utmost importance, which distinguished his students from the Jesuits in the 16th century (Daily, 2013). Once people had access to the Gospels and the ability to read them, Christianity would begin to grow in foreign countries (Daily, 2013). Bogue argued that the LMS must address ‘civilised countries’ before proceeding to the conversion of ‘barbarous countries’. According to Bogue, it is possible to recognise a ‘civilised nation’ when:

1. Great numbers speak the same language, and the language is written and the books common; 2. the people are accustomed to reading, and to mental improvement and pursuits; 3. there is much intercourse of a social nature through a large country…where they have much intercourse with other nations…where the influence is extensive and reaches to all the surrounding nations. (Daily, 2013, p. 83)

Therefore, it can be seen that China became an ideal starting point for Bogue and Morrison’s evangelical work: the country had a large number of Chinese speakers and a unique system of written symbols, in addition to the influence it exerted on neighbouring countries.

According to Lefevere’s theory, it would seem to imply that Morrison’s ‘patronage’ is his tutor, David Bogue, together with LMS where he received training. In terms of the ideological task from the patronage, Morrison was asked to preach the gospel, together with translating the Bible into Chinese: Lefevere (1992, p. 16) argues that the status component occurs in many forms, and in Morrison’s case, he was expected to conform to Bogue’s expectations. The influence from Bogue and LMS affected Morrison’s narratives on China as well.

During Morrison’s stay in Bogue’s Gosport Academy, he received preliminary tutoring in Chinese from his first Chinese teacher, ‘Yong Sam-tak’ (容三德), who had just arrived from Canton to study English, and was living at a boarding school in Clapham (Morrison, 1839). An arrangement was made whereby the young Chinese came to reside with Morrison and became his teacher. Together they transcribed the whole of a Chinese manuscript in the British Museum, and a manuscript Latin and Chinese dictionary lent by the Royal Society (Morrison, 1839).

From Eliza’s memoirs, the implication is that Morrison had complicated feelings for his Chinese teacher. Morrison ‘took great pleasure in learning the Chinese’, and ‘by no means exclude poor Sam’s assistance’. Morrison admitted that Yong first gave him ‘insight into the subject’, and his heart ‘much knit to him, notwithstanding all his obstinacy and contempt of me (Morrison, 1839, p. 149).’ During his stay with Morrison, Yong was fond of talking of ‘God as the great Governor of the universe,’ but Morrison endeavoured to talk of ‘God’s creating the heart, and how ungrateful it was not to love him.’ Morrison put in his diary as: ‘O that the Lord may open his heart to receive the truth as it is in Jesus!’ (Morrison, 1839, p. 81).

Due to the cultural difference, Morrison already had some negative comments on Chinese religions, and this stereotype did not change until his arrival in China.

On 8th September 1807, he finally landed in Canton. He wrote in his diary ‘The good hand of God has at length brought me to the place of my appointed labour. … It was truly the most uncomfortable Sabbath that I had spent from the time of leaving you. … I said to myself O what can ever be done with these ignorant, yet shrewd and imposing people?’ (Morrison, 1839, p. 152).

These ‘ignorant, yet shrewd and imposing’ people were unwilling to tutor Morrison in Chinese, as it was forbidden to teach the language to foreigners then (Daily, 2013). Morrison asked George Staunton, an official of the East India Company, for assistance, and Staunton helped Morrison connect with a Chinese convert to Roman Catholicism, who became Morrison’s language instructor (Daily, 2013). With the aid of this tutor, along with his Chinese servants, Morrison gradually acquired fluency in Chinese (Daily, 2013). Since then, he started to converse with some thoughtful Chinese on their religious beliefs. From the selections below, it can be seen that Morrison encountered difficulty in convincing Chinese heathens to accept Jesus:

I asked them why the Chinese were more civilised, and had many temporal blessings which some of the barbarous nations around them had not? They could not tell; but they thought Jesus and Confucius were alike — the one intended for Europe, and the other for China. I urged the striking difference that appears in one atoning for the sins of men, and teaching so largely the way of a sinner’s being accepted of God, whilst the other never mentioned God’s name, nor taught anything respecting him. Observing that there was blame on the part of those who were unwilling to learn the right way, — here the conversation dropped. (Morrison, 1839, pp. 227-228)

My assistants conversed with me at length this evening on the subject of the religion. They were of opinion [sic] that the notions of foreigners and of the Chinese are very similar in religious concerns. I acknowledged that there were many truths common to both, particularly respecting the duty of one man to another; but respecting God, our duty to him, and the way in which a sinful creature is accepted of God, they were widely different. I said that they burned candles, offered incense, slew sheep, &c., to make God propitious; but Jesus
gave himself a sacrifice, to make atonement for sin. They remarked, with contempt, that those who abounded in those offerings were bad people: good people had no occasion to do so - Kung-foo-tsze did not teach it. There was no occasion to worship God daily, if the heart were good: many of those who worshipped were bad notwithstanding. – that some who worshipped were bad people, was true; but it would not make those good who neglected it. And to speak of those who did not worship God as having a good heart, was unreasonable; it was like saying that a man was a good son, though he neither loved his parents nor obeyed them. They were here rather at a loss for an answer; and asked me if I thought all the men in China were bad men? I said all the men in the world had offended God; that a man might fulfil many duties to his fellow-men, but we owe duties to God, the performance of which is necessary to constitute us good men. They asked me why the Chinese had not the doctrines to which I adhered, and why they were not sent to them of God? (Morrison, 1839, pp. 227-228)

In dealing with questions from thoughtful Chinese, Morrison could only ascribe all the achievements of the Chinese to ‘God’, though the people were ‘ignorant’, ‘shrewd’ and ‘imposing’ to him. Unlike Jesuits, Morrison was not in favour of the ceremonial rituals, such as burning candles and incense. Compared to Jesuits’ way in preaching the gospel, Morrison adopted a more radical approach. Morrison developed growing attention to Confucian thought in order to communicate with thoughtful Chinese. Confucius’s wisdom set a moral and intellectual standard in China, and his writings, to Morrison, were ‘given the most unlimited assent, as though inspired by God.’ Morrison read the Four Books from Confucius, reaching conclusion as ‘much that is excellent, and some things erroneous. Taken altogether they are, of necessity, miserably defective’ (Morrison, 1839, pp. 281-282), Morrison turned his fire on Confucius and the Jesuits’ tolerance of Chinese converts paying tribute to Confucius, however, it is worth mentioning that Morrison and his followers later changed their position by pulling Confucianism to the side of the Christian camp, quoting Confucianism statements to attack Buddhism. It can be seen from Morrison’s translation of four gospels, as there are several terms from Confucianism in his target text. Confucianism was too influential to eradicate in China, but Buddhism contradicted Protestantism more sharply. In retrospective, Protestant missionaries adopted the same strategy which the Jesuits used in China several centuries earlier, called ‘drive out Buddhism and come closer to Confucianism’ (驅佛近儒). Although Protestant missionaries attacked their predecessors before they arrived in China, they had no alternative but choose the same pathway as the Jesuits.

In 1824, Morrison returned to Europe. He visited France, Ireland, Scotland and the principal towns of England, chiefly with a view to exciting more interest among literary and religious circles in the moral condition of the heathen - especially those inhabiting the regions of Eastern Asia (Morrison, 1839). He advocated an attitude of sympathy and benevolence on the part of the Christian churches (Morrison, 1839). One or two examples of the spirit and style of these public addresses may afford the reader some idea of the impression they were calculated to produce. With regard to the intellectual and spiritual condition of the Chinese, Morrison remarks:

To that people, the God of heaven has given an extensive territory, containing large portions of fertile, salubrious, and delightful country; and they possess a knowledge of useful arts, to a degree which supplies all the necessaries, and most of the luxuries, of life. In these respects, they require nothing from Europe. (The Congregational Magazine, 1825, p. 478)

As what he stated before, Morrison attributed the prosperity of the Chinese empire and people to God’s will. Though Morrison mentioned the fertility of the country and indicated China ‘required nothing from Europe’, in The Chinese Repository (1840, p. 615), his previous statements were quoted by his colleagues, that ‘the trade is a reciprocal exchange of benefits’, and the imperial court of China was criticised for its unwillingness to trade. Following the paragraph quoted above, Morrison turns his attention to the other side of the coin, beginning his arguments as follows:

‘What, then, do the Chinese require from Europe? ……they require that only which St. Paul deemed supremely excellent, and which it is the sole object of the Missionary Society to communicate – they require the knowledge of Christ. For with all their antiquity, and their literature, and their arts and refinement, they are still infatuated idolators; and are given up to vile affections, working at that which is unseemly. Not liking to retain God in their knowledge, they worship and serve the creature rather than the Creator; they are haters of the true God, are filled with all unrighteousness, fornication, and wickedness. With all their civilisation, still, envy and malice, deceit and falsehood, to a boundless extent with a selfish, ungenerous prudence, and a cold metaphysical inhumanity—are the prevalent characteristics of the people of China’. (The Congregational Magazine, 1825, pp. 478-479)

Morrison continued by stating that the philosophy of ‘their celebrated ancient sage, Confucius, acknowledges no future state of existence; and, concerning the duties of man to his Maker, presents a complete blank’ (Morrison, 1839). He argued that it presents nothing ‘beyond the grave’ and that ‘present expediency is the chief motive of action’ (Morrison, 1839). He stated that ‘of the great and glorious God who is infinitely above, and distinct from the heavens and the earth, the teaching of Confucius makes no attention; it rises not superior to an obscure recognition of some principle of order in nature, which, when violated, induces present evil’ (Morrison 1839).

In his narratives on Chinese philosophy, Morrison first tried to familiarise his Western audience with Chinese culture by making comparisons with Western philosophy. For instance, he found that, according to Chinese culture, the universe operates according to some internal principle. Heaven is the highest power in nature; earth is second to it, and
both heaven and earth are superior to the gods. Heaven, earth, gods and men, is the order recognised by the Chinese. However, at other times, the gods are excluded, and then heaven, earth and men are the three, great and co-equal powers. This atheistical theory, Morrison concluded, ‘is at the foundation of the public belief, and influences also the superstitions of the religious sects of China, induces in the human mind great pride and impiety, even when superstitious observances are attended to’ (Morrison, 1839). Morrison agreed that in some of the most ancient written documents in China, which Confucius collected and edited, ‘there is a more distinct recognition of the supreme God, than is to be found in anything that he has thought as his own, or that the learned of China, in subsequent ages, have advanced’; and he believes that ‘it is a fact that man, when left to himself, sinks into, never rises from, atheism or idolatry; and the written word of God is necessary to bring him back’ (Morrison, 1839). He pointed out that, in addition to the system of Confucius, there were in China two other systems, which make much more use of gods than the Confucian system, and which acknowledge a future state of rewards and punishments (Morrison, 1839). These systems ‘enjoin fastings, and prayers, and penances, and masses for the dead, and threaten the wicked with varied punishments, in different hells, in a separate state; or with poverty, or disease, or a brute nature, when they shall be born again into this world’ (Morrison, 1839).

Through his speech, we can see that Morrison criticised Chinese people and religion for the purpose of propagating Christianity. The Chinese were depicted as envious, malicious, deceitful and selfish, and the tenets of Buddhism and Taoism were regarded as ‘lies, vanities, and things wherein there is no profit’. Morrison’s severely critical attitude towards the Chinese people, expressed on many occasions in his diaries and speeches, requires further examination here. There appear to be three reasons for this attitude:

1. His unpleasant memories of Chinese people. There were occasions when he was provoked by Chinese, and it started when he was studying with Yong in England.
2. The restrictions from the Chinese imperial court: foreigner’s residence was forbidden. In his letter to Joseph Hardcastle (1807), he complained ‘it only remains for the Chinese to forbid me staying here’.
3. His religious belief. Morrison believed Christianity to be the only orthodox religion.

Indeed, these typical representations of the Chinese religions set a tone for his colleagues who arrived in China later, and they spared no efforts to find negative sides to these religious sects. From the selections above, it is concluded that Morrison was critical on Chinese religions, which was caused by both his personal experience and Bogue’s influence. The economic component and status component also bolstered his criticism. However, given the influence of Confucianism in China, Morrison at times, had to accommodate to this sect for the sake of wider acceptance of Christianity in China. This dilemma is revealed in his translation of four gospels.

III. MORRISON’S TRANSLATION OF THE FOUR GOSPELS

‘In my translation [of the Bible], I have studied fidelity, perspicuity, and simplicity: I have preferred common words to rare and classical ones; I have avoided technical terms, which occur in the pagan philosophy and religion. I would rather be deemed inelegant, than hard to be understood. In difficult passages I have taken the sense given by general consent of the gravest, most pious, and least eccentric divines, to whom I had access.

To the task I have brought patient endurance of long labour and seclusion from society, a calm and unprejudiced judgment; not enamoured of novelty and eccentricity, nor yet tenacious of an opinion merely because it was old; and, I hope, somewhat of an accurate mode of thinking, with a reverential sense of the awful responsibility of misinterpreting God’s word. Such qualifications are, perhaps, as indispensable as grammatical learning in translating such a book as the Bible’. (Whyte, 1988, p. 96)

Bible translation is slow, painstaking and hard work for Morrison when working alone. In 1813, Morrison finally completed a translation of the New Testament in Chinese. In the same year, his assistant, William Milne, also of the London Missionary Society, joined him in the work. Together, they completed the translation of the whole Bible in 1819. The quotation above is Morrison’s own evaluation of his translated Bible.

In studying the four gospels translated by Morrison, it is found he followed the rules of ‘fidelity’, ‘perspicuity’ and ‘simplicity’. ‘Fidelity’ is the top concern to Morrison, which was affected by the ideological component from his patronage. At the same time, he endeavoured to use common words, following the sentence structure of the source text. In order to present Morrison’s translation clearly, the translation from the Chinese Union Version (CUV) will be listed in the table below.
### Formal Equivalence from Morrison

| ST (New International Version/NIV) | Morrison’s version | Back translation of Morrison’s version | CUV | Back translation of CUV
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>The angel went to her and said, “Greetings, you who are highly favored! The Lord is with you.” (Luke: 1:28)</td>
<td>且使者進與之，曰：萬</td>
<td>The messenger went towards her, said, joy you received great favour from Lord. You woman are lucky.</td>
<td>天使進去，對她說：「蒙大恩的女子，我</td>
<td>The Angle went in, spoke to her: women who is blessed, I am greeting you, the Lord is with you now.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>If that is how God clothes the grass of the field, which is here today, and tomorrow is thrown into the fire, how much more will he clothe you—you of little faith! (Luke: 12:28)</td>
<td>神既知是秀今日在田，明日投爐之菜、豈非要</td>
<td>Since God clothes the grass of the field, which is here today, and tomorrow is thrown into fireplace, how much more will be clothe you, you generation of little faith.</td>
<td>你们这小信的人哪，野地里的草今天还在，明天就丢在炉里，上帝还给它这样</td>
<td>You little faith people, the grass of the field is still here today, but tomorrow will be thrown into fireplace, God still gives it such decoration, let alone you!</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Out of his fullness we have all received grace in place of grace already given. (John: 1:16)</td>
<td>又由其之滿我眾享受豐養</td>
<td>Also, out of his fullness we all received his pamper from his pamper.</td>
<td>从他丰满的恩典里，我们都领受了，而且</td>
<td>From his full grace, we have all received, furthermore, grace on top of grace.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Jesus did many other things as well. If every one of them were written down, I suppose even the whole world would not have room for the books that would be written (John: 21:25)</td>
<td>其餘耶穌另行多功，若</td>
<td>Moreover, Jesus did many accomplishments, if every one of them were written down, imagine the whole world would not have room for the books written.</td>
<td>耶穌所行的事还有许多，若是——地都写出来，我想，所写的书就是世界也容不下</td>
<td>Things Jesus did has many as well, if every one of them were written down, I think, the book written, even the whole world cannot contain.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>They worship me in vain; their teachings are merely human rules. (Mark: 7:7)</td>
<td>惟伊等拜我無益、因教</td>
<td>They worship me in no good, because they merely teach human rules.</td>
<td>他们将人的吩咐当作道理教导人，所以拜我也是枉然。</td>
<td>They take human orders as rules to teach, so worshipping me is in vain.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

In observing Morrison’s translation, it is found that there seems to tend to be keenly oriented towards the ST structure, which exerts influence in determining accuracy. His ‘fidelity’ rule is close to the ‘formal equivalence’ named by Nida in the 1960s, which focuses ‘attention on the message itself, in both form and content’, and ‘the message in the receptor language should match as closely as possible the different elements in the source language’ (Nida, 1964, p. 159). The table above shows how Morrison tries to achieve ‘equivalence’ in sentence structure. Furthermore, Morrison also used more literal translation strategy in his translation:

1. It is like a mustard seed, which is the smallest of all seeds on earth (Mark: 4:31).
2. Jesus answered them, ‘Have you never read what David did when he and his companions were hungry? (Luke: 6:3).
3. Morrison translates it as ‘耶穌答伊等曰、爾總無讀大五得並隨之者既餓所行、’ Compared to the CUV, which translates ‘smallest of all seeds’ as ‘比地上的百种都小’ (smaller than hundreds of seeds on earth), Morrison’s version sticks to literal translation.
4. As the time approached for him to be taken up to heaven, Jesus resolutely set out for Jerusalem (Luke: 9:51).
5. Morrison translates ‘don’t trouble yourself’ as ‘勿烦己’, while in CUV it is translated as ‘不要劳动’ [don’t labour]. Morrison’s translation is more accurate.

The classical Chinese Morrison uses is more concise:且神使自天現堅之 (CUV: 有一位天使从天上显现，加添他的力量)

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2 For Morrison’s version, it can be accessed by: https://www.bible.com/bible/2283/LUK.1.%E7%A5%9E%E5%A4%A9%E8%81%96%E6%9B%B8
In order to match as closely as possible the elements in the source language, Morrison adopts the strategy of transliteration plus notes:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>ST</th>
<th>Morrison’s translation</th>
<th>Back translation</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Today in the town of David a Savior has been born to you; he is the Messiah, the Lord. (Luke: 2:11)</td>
<td>耶穌今降生成為童子，是為這位所應許的“彌賽亞”。</td>
<td>Today in the town of David, a saviour is born, and he is the ‘Mi Sai Ya’ (Messiah).</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>where for forty days he was tempted by the devil. (Luke: 4:2)</td>
<td>彌賽亞裡實瓜離了 conocer 詞中所稱為惡神。</td>
<td>Where the forty days he was tempted by the ‘Di Ya Bo Lo’ (devil)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Then he went down to Capernaum, a town in Galilee, and on the Sabbath he taught the people. (Luke: 4:31)</td>
<td>彌賽亞和耶路撒冷之名，約在七日之首次，是為日安息之日。</td>
<td>Went to ‘Jia Li Li’’s town, ‘Jia Bai Er Na Wen’, and on the ‘Sa Bai’ day he taught the people.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Two people owed money to a certain moneylender. One owed him five hundred denarii, and the other fifty. (Luke: 7:41)</td>
<td>役力主之二僕者，一負欠五百氏拿利以一負欠五十氏拿利以。</td>
<td>One debt collector has two people who owed him money. One owed him five hundred ‘di na li’, and the other fifty ‘di na li’.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>So Jesus called them over to him and began to speak to them in parables: “How can Satan drive out Satan? (Mark: 3:23)</td>
<td>彼伊等奉主之命或詛所不合，其於主名必矣。</td>
<td>So Jesus… how can ‘Sa dan’ drive out ‘Sa dan”?</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Those who went ahead and those who followed shouted, “Hosannam!” “Blessed is he who comes in the name of the Lord!” (Mark: 11:9)</td>
<td>彼伊等前行與彼伊隨後呼曰、啞啞、其來於主之名祝矣。</td>
<td>Those who went ahead… ‘He Sa Na’!</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>“Why wasn’t this perfume sold and the money given to the poor? It was worth three hundred silver taels. (Mark: 14:5)</td>
<td>彼香為為何不賣去得價三百呋呋，在與貧者。</td>
<td>Why wasn’t … three hundred ‘Di Na li’?</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>After Jesus was born in Bethlehem in Judea, during the time of King Herod, Magi from the east came to Jerusalem. (Matthew: 2:1)</td>
<td>耶穌生於如氏亞之畢利恆後於王希羅得之時，即有或來於東來至耶路撒冷、 (悔於大耶軍)。</td>
<td>After Jesus… ‘Ma Zhi’ from the East came to Jerusalem.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Compared to the CUV, Morrison’s translation tends to use more transliteration, such as ‘Di Ya Bo Lo’ for ‘devil’, ‘Sa Bai’ for ‘Sabbath’, and ‘Ma Zhi’ for ‘Magi’ etc. It is a practice for translators then to add a ‘mouth’ radical in the Chinese character if the translation for specific names of place or people. It is worth noticing that some of Morrison’s transliterations are still being used in the Chinese Bible today, such as ‘Ye Lu Sa Leng’ (耶路撒冷) for Jerusalem, ‘Na Sa Le’ (拿撒勒) for Nazareth etc.

Morrison’s literal translation, to some extent, is ‘perspicuity’ and ‘simplicity’. Compared to the CUV, it is more concise and conveys the meaning of ST correctly.

It is worth mentioning that Morrison even considered the ‘time difference’ in his translation:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>NIV</th>
<th>Morrison’s translation</th>
<th>Back translation</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>It was now about noon, and darkness came over the whole land until three in the afternoon. (Luke:23:44)</td>
<td>自約六時到九時有黑在全地。</td>
<td>…about 6…until 9…</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>So they went and saw where he was staying, and they spent that day with him. It was about four in the afternoon. (John:1:39)</td>
<td>彼遂來而看其居之所、又彼日同居焉。其時乃約十時也。</td>
<td>…it was about ten…</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>“Yesterday, at one in the afternoon, the fever left him.” (John:4:38)</td>
<td>昨日今約七時之熱退。</td>
<td>Yesterday at seven…</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>It was the day of Preparation of the Passover; it was about noon. (John:19:14)</td>
<td>且當時為吧啞、其於大日之熱退。</td>
<td>It was about six…</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>It was nine in the morning when they crucified him. (Mark: 15:25)</td>
<td>彼時九時於耶蘇大聲呼曰、吧啞吧啞。</td>
<td>It was three when they crucified him…</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

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There are six hours’ time difference between Morrison’s translation and the ST.

IV. CONCLUSION

It can be seen that Morrison follows the principle of ‘fidelity, perspicuity and simplicity’ in his translation of the four gospels. Some examples above clearly show the successful part of his translations. Compared to the CUV, some of Morrison’s translations are more precise, which reveals the success of his translation strategies. However, there are some limitations in Morrison’s translations:

1. Given the ‘material deprivations’ in the 19th century, Morrison turns to transliteration in translating some materials, such as ‘又昔夜上到耶穌之尼可氐母亦來帶咪咡同啞囉之雜香約有一百斤。’ (John: 19: 39), where he translates myrrh and aloes as ‘咪咡’ (mi er) and ‘啞囉’ (ya luo). There are voids in Morrison’s translations on items.

2. Morrison turns to terms from Chinese religions during his translation. He translates ‘spirit’ as ‘wind’/‘風 (feng)’, as The Chinese say, ‘天地之使曰風’ (tian di zhi shi yue feng), the messenger of heaven and earth is called wind or spirit. Morrison translates ‘power’ as ‘德’ (moral), such as ‘且耶穌即自知有德出之，轉身向眾曰，誰摩我衣乎。’ (Mark: 5: 30) He translates ‘compassion’ as ‘慈悲’ (mercy) in Chinese, a common expression on Buddha.

At times, Morrison could not stick to the ‘fidelity’ principle and turned to terms from Chinese religions, which was done to make the Bible easier for Chinese readers to understand and accept. Based on Lefevere’s three elements to his patronage (the ideological, economic and status component), this article proposes a fourth one: ‘pragmatic component’. Certain translations from Morrison were rendered for practical reasons. Different from the previous three elements, pragmatic components are decided by the milieu where translators are in, not the patronage.

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Key publications:


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Sudanese EFL Ph.D. Students’ Attitudes and Perceptions Towards Using Zoom During the COVID-19 Pandemic

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Abstract—This study explores the online learning experience of Sudanese Ph.D. candidates in learning English as a Foreign Language (EFL) when using Zoom during the COVID-19 pandemic at the Sudan University of Science and Technology. The study is to explore the EFL students’ attitudes and perceptions towards using Zoom. Data is collected by designing a closed/ended questionnaire and a focused-structured interview of six candidates from the same population. The questionnaire was distributed to the whole population of 40 Ph.D. candidates. Data is analysed using SPSS and Thematic analysis of qualitative data. The analysis reveals that the participants are satisfied with the online lecture delivery and enjoy the opportunity to develop technological skills and knowledge of Internet technology. Results also reveal that Zoom enables the EFL students to build valuable relationships with their advisors and increase their productivity. Finally, candidates perceive some disadvantages with Zoom as a tool for learning. Some candidates find the cost of the internet obstructive. This research is important as it gives university lecturers insights into the challenges and practice of using new models of online learning as an effect of the pandemic on education. It is believed that the success of this experience of online learning determines Sudanese EFL Postgraduate students’ satisfaction and readiness to use different models of online tools during and after future crises and pandemics.

Index Terms—EFL students, zoom, perceptions, COVID-19, Sudan

I. INTRODUCTION

E-learning has become increasingly crucial in higher education, with universities increasing provision and more students completing large parts of their studies online. It is changing the way universities teach and the way students learn. According to OECD (The Organisation for Economic Co-Operation and Development) (2005), E-learning is defined as using information and communications technology (ICT) to enforce and support learning at all levels of education. This definition covers a wide range of systems, from students using e-mail and accessing coursework online while following a course on campus to programs provided entirely online. Garrett and Jokivirta (2004), state that there are different types of e-learning. Regardless of the type, e-learning nearly always involves a ‘campus-based institution’ providing courses that are tied, to some extent, to the internet or other online network. Adopting e-learning in university courses coincided with implementing learning management systems in universities. These systems, such as software programs, enabled them to deal with enrolment data electronically, provide electronic access to all teaching and learning materials, and conduct online assessments and evaluations (OECD, 2005).

Some university programs, especially IT and business or management courses, rely heavily on mixed mode or fully online e-learning (Niess & Gillow-Wiles, 2013). However, most university e-learning often involves short modules or small segments of a larger course that learners must attend in person. To some extent, this reflects that e-learning is a subsidiary or complementary delivery mechanism to on-campus at the undergraduate level. E-learning and online educations generally favor experienced learners who combine work/family and study. As a result, course programs with significant online components are more common at the postgraduate level (OECD, 2001).

A. Zoom Technology: Benefits and Challenges for Teaching and Learning

Zoom is a cloud-based exclusive video teleconferencing software program developed by Zoom Video Communications. Zoom is the frontrunner in contemporary initiative video communications because it is a user-friendly, reliable cloud platform for video and audio conferencing, collaboration, chat, and webinars across mobile devices.
desktops, telephones, and room systems. The free design allows up to 100 participants online at once with a 40-minute time limit. During the COVID-19 lockdowns, there was a major increase in the use of Zoom for remote work, distance education, and online social relations. In 2020, Zoom was the fifth most-downloaded mobile app worldwide, with 477 million downloads (Blacker, 2021). In educational contexts, Zoom helps teachers to deliver, discuss and clarify course content to learners remotely. It has other features useful in the education context, such as a virtual whiteboard, a real-time explanation capacity to explain concepts, screen sharing, polls for students’ feedback, and live written chat that can be used without worrying or intersecting the lecturer. Zoom allows the teacher to break down participants into small groups to interact and collaborate. In addition, Zoom lectures and meetings can be recorded and are available for download for future reference. Zoom has security features such as password-protected meetings, user authentication, waiting rooms, locked meetings, etc. which enable teachers to provide lively and real virtual learning environments for the students (Serhan, 2020).

B. Smartphones in Educational Setting

Smartphones are one of the most ubiquitous technologies in human life. They play a crucial role in people’s daily life because of the smartphone’s multi-functional features. It is an important technology for education, work communication, and entertainment. Regardless of their level, EFL learners have enormous access to digital information through smartphones. Smartphones provide learners access to communication channels, video and audio technologies.

Wali and Omaid (2020) state that mobile technology is central to many education applications. However, many universities and institutions do not welcome the use of smartphones by students during class hours; their use is perceived as a disruption to students’ learning. Increasingly, however, the benefits of mobile phones as an educational tool are being recognized by educators and education policymakers: they can help teachers and learners facilitate the teaching and learning process.

Moreover, 21st-century students are eager to utilize and explore the possibilities of new technology. Students are usually the first to experiment with new technology and discover the innovations it offers. Mobile phone use is an integral feature of their lives, used at times of the day and in most situations. University students struggle to detach themselves from their devices. Rather than working against students, educators could utilize the technology and the student’s close relationship to them to deliver teaching content more effectively (Yu & Conway, 2012).

C. Decomposed Theory of Planned Behavior

There are many theories and models to examine and explain how people’s intentions, attitudes, and behaviors influence whether they will accept a new technology in educational settings or reject it. One of the most convincing theories is the decomposed theory of planned behavior (DTPB). The DTPB was developed by Taylor and Todd (1995) and was an extension of the Theory of Planned Behaviour (TPB) developed by Ajzen (1991).

According to the DTPB, as shown in Figure 1, three factors influence a person’s attitude toward a new technology: its perceived usefulness, ease of use, and compatibility. Perceived usefulness means the students think the technology will add value to their learning activities. Ease of use means a new technology or innovation is easy to understand and use. Compatibility means the technology matches the student’s values, experiences, and learning practices (Taylor & Todd, 1995).

![Figure 1. The Decomposed Theory of Planned Behavioural (Taylor & Todd, 1995, p. 163)](image)

Ajzen (1991) refers to subjective norms as the social pressures that make someone perform specific actions. As an example, students might be influenced by fellow students to use new technology in their academic activities. There are three aspects of perceived behavioral control. The first one is self-efficacy, meaning that students are likely to accept a new technology if they are comfortable and capable of using it. The second and third conditions involve resource and
technological facilitating conditions: if the technology has supportive resources or favorable conditions, the students will probably accept using it. Facilitating conditions include the availability of time, money, mobile devices, and robust internet bandwidth (Nyasulu & Winner, 2019).

Subjective norm in the DTPB involves two factors: the influence of other peers and the influence of their teachers and supervisors. Peer influence refers to how colleagues influence them to use new technology. In this context of using Zoom, students might accept using it for academic purposes if their colleagues use it for similar purposes. Moreover, students are likely to use the new technology if their lecturers also use it (Taylor & Todd, 1995).

D. Rationale of the Study

Online learning university teachers help enhance EFL students’ optimum use of e-learning, if they understand students’ perceptions and attitudes towards using online tools such as Zoom. This research proceeds as follows: In the next section, the researchers review previous studies related to using Zoom as an online tool for teaching and learning in different institutes. Then, this is followed by a theoretical framework that underlines this research (DTPB) on the focus of EFL students’ perceptions and attitudes towards using Zoom. Next, is the methodology section with an overview of the data collection method and analysis tools. The fourth section highlights the analysis, findings, and discussion of the study. Finally, a conclusion and implications are presented.

II. LITERATURE REVIEW

A. Online Learning During/After COVID-19

Paudel (2021) investigated Nepalese higher education teachers’ and learners’ experiences with online learning during and after the COVID-19 pandemic. She examined the benefits, challenges, and best strategies to deliver online learning remotely. The researcher conducted a quantitative inquiry using an online questionnaire to document the perspectives of 280 teachers and students at five different Nepalese universities. The data were collected through three sets of closed-ended and one set of open-ended questionnaires. The study found that over 80% of the participants found the online courses helpful. They believed it helped them with their online research, connected them to international networks, and granted them access to various useful knowledge sources. The study also revealed that participants faced major challenges, including weak time management skills, unreliable internet connections, and adjusting to the greater autonomy and responsibility for their education that online courses require.

Alam (2020) also researched the challenges and possibilities of online education during COVID-19. The study’s methodology was qualitative. The researcher collected data from secondary sources and conducted a mini-interview with some students who used mobile phones to study online at private universities in Bangladesh. The study revealed that teachers and students confronted many challenges when adjusting to online education because it was their first time utilizing it. Poor time management skills and weak internet connections were crucial challenges for teachers and students. However, the researcher recommended that universities help students develop time management skills and increase internet speed and reliability for staff and students. If this is done, the researcher believes that online learning will provide a positive pedagogical atmosphere and a beneficial teaching-learning alternative.

Internet access is a significant factor to adopt and use E-Learning in countries such as Saudi Arabia. Therefore he investigated the challenges EFL students at Bisha University faced in learning English when they used E-Learning system. The study also investigated whether the use of E-Learning is beneficial to EFL students in learning English to the extent that it is expected. The researcher summarized the challenges from the findings of this research in three types: Academic challenges, Administrative challenges and technical challenges. Some of the skills such as speaking were also found harder to practice online by the EFL students.

B. Using Zoom During/After COVID-19

Zoom is an effective tool for remotely teaching medical EFL students. He analyzed some of the problems with distance learning and how these can be overcome. He concluded that Zoom is a valuable teaching tool. It enables collaboration and allows learners to post comments, chat with other learners, and ask questions in real time. Teachers can use breakout rooms so learners can study in pairs or groups. Using video conferencing, Zoom makes learners accountable and responsible by encouraging them to engage in the lesson and interact with their colleagues and teachers. It is noticed that Zoom increased engagement, and most EFL learners enjoyed the experience (Guzacheva, 2020).

Sayem et al. (2017) researched whether Zoom helped students achieve better results while enrolled in a distance learning course. The students studied a foundation engineering unit at CQUiversity Australia’s School of Engineering and Technology. The research also investigated if Zoom helped the students manage their workload. The data came from students’ online interactions with the course’s Moodle site. These interactions provided the researchers with information about student learning behavior. The researchers measured student engagement with the course by observing the number and the kinds of posts to the Q&A forum on the Moodle site between 2016 and 2017. Observation also included the number of students who watched lectures or parts of lectures and those who attended Zoom virtual tutorials when Zoom was introduced in 2017. The study found that satisfaction rates with the course increased due to the introduction of Zoom. Student feedback highlighted that students perceived Zoom-based virtual
tutorials were beneficial to their studies and engaging. The students believed that Zoom was a valuable supportive tool that has helped them with their academic studies.

United States university students' attitudes and perceptions were investigated towards Zoom delivery of lectures during the pandemic versus the face-to-face (FTF) traditional mode of delivery and engagement. 31 university students participated in this study. Data were collected using a 5-point Likert-type survey. Results found that students had a negative attitude towards Zoom. The students also perceived Zoom classes adversely affecting their learning experience and motivation. One reason the researcher attributed to this negative response was that the lecturers needed more time to be ready for this sudden change COVID had on teaching and learning. It required using a new platform with new modalities, activities, and methods (Serhan, 2020).

Many studies have been conducted to investigate students' attitudes and perceptions towards using Zoom during the COVID-19 pandemic, and the results have generally been negative (Knipe & Lee, 2002; Candarli & Yuksel, 2012; Wang et al., 2018). Students have expressed that the quality of teaching using Zoom is inferior to face-to-face (FTF) in-class teaching. Additionally, researchers have observed low levels of student participation through Zoom. To ensure successful online sessions using Zoom, researchers have identified several important factors, including effective communication between online students and the instructor, as well as between online students and classroom students. Other factors include the engagement of online students, the redesign of instructional activities, and the quality of audio.

On the other hand, some studies (Sayem et al., 2017; Maul et al., 2018; Archibald et al., 2019; Agarwal & Kaushik, 2020) reported positive results regarding using Zoom. These studies found that using Zoom increased students' approval and reduced teacher workload by approximately 25%. Students also preferred using Zoom as an interviewing method compared to FTF methods. Researchers credited these positive results to the ease of use of Zoom, cost-effectiveness, data management structures, and security options. Furthermore, results showed that both faculty and students valued the use of Zoom for thesis chairs to tutor and guide doctoral students. Medical students indicated that Zoom sessions were relevant to their level of learning and suggested that Zoom lectures should be incorporated into their medical curriculum. Therefore, researchers concluded that online teaching should be integrated into postgraduate training in future classes.

C. Decomposed Theory of Planned Behaviour and Online Learning

Researchers’ interest is increased by the tremendous implementation of technology in learning. Many theories and models have been proposed to be addressed by customers. The DTPB is among them and widely applicable to study behaviours in different contexts such as health, education, m-commerce, e-commerce, etc. The theory of Reasoned Action (TRA), Theory of Planned Behaviour (TPB), and Technology Acceptance Model (TAM) are the basis for the DTPB that offers superior visions into what lies behind the intention to accept new technology (Gangwal & Veena, 2016).

A study was conducted on the application and adoption of the DTPB for m-commerce in India. Researchers focused on specific factors such as trust, perceived usefulness, perceived ease of use, and perceived enjoyment to govern the attitudes towards m-commerce adoption. Moreover, they examined the relationship between normative influence and subjective norm, and the relationship between self-efficacy and perceived behavioural control. Furthermore, the study surveyed 212 participants with the aim of recognizing factors that motivate Indian customers to accept m-commerce. The results expose that faith; values of using m-commerce, self-efficacy, and normative influence are the most noteworthy factors influencing m-commerce implementation. Finally, the authors recommend further investigation into other factors such as apparent financial risk, among others to increase a deeper understanding of m-commerce implementation (Gangwal & Veena, 2016).

Previous studies on DTPB applications have primarily focused on computing resource centers, internet banking, telemedicine, online trading, mobile data services, e-commerce adoption, web 2.0 technologies, mobile banking, e-textbook adoption, and online tourism adoption. However, there is limited emphasis on the adoption of new technologies like Zoom in mobile services. Therefore, this study aims to test four hypotheses using the DTPB framework. A quantitative focused-structured two questions interview was also drawn from Serhan’s (2020) survey to verify hypothesis four of this study and to support results from the questionnaire. The hypotheses are as follow:

H1: EFL Students have negative attitudes while using Zoom.
H2: EFL Students perceive negative behavioral control while using Zoom.
H3: EFL Students perceive negative factors that influence their behavioral intention when using Zoom.
H4: EFL Students’ perceived advantages and disadvantages influence their behavioral intention when using Zoom.

D. The Context of the Study

Batch one EFL Ph.D. students were forty in this study at the Sudan University of Science and Technology (SUST). In mid-March 2020, the university implemented a lockdown in response to the severe spread of the COVID-19 pandemic in the country. The College of Graduate Studies administration made the decision to continue the teaching/learning process remotely, as traditional face-to-face lectures and meetings were no longer possible. It was recommended that staff members transition to online teaching. However, it was acknowledged by the university that some staff teachers and students may not have had prior experience with e-learning or knowledge of how to navigate web-based platforms. Where feasible, individuals were encouraged to experiment with these online tools in order to become more familiar with them. One of the authors of this study led this transition and delivered lectures via the Zoom.
The research hypotheses were tested using a combination of quantitative and qualitative methodologies. A closed-ended questionnaire was developed to collect quantitative data using Google Forms and distributed to a total population of forty EFL Ph.D. candidates. The questionnaire consisted of four sections: demographic information, attitudes towards using Zoom, perceived behavioural control during the use of Zoom, and subjective norm factors influencing the use of Zoom. In total, there were 15 statements distributed across these sections. A five-point ‘Likert’ scale ranging from ‘strongly disagree’ to ‘strongly agree’ was used for sections two to four. The Statistical Package for the Social Sciences (SPSS) was used to analyse the data.

A focused-structured interview was used as a second method of data collection. The questions of the interview targeted the study’s fourth hypothesis regarding the perceived advantages and disadvantages of using Zoom during COVID-19. The data obtained from these focused-structured questions were analysed thematically and qualitatively. Interactive model techniques such as data reduction, data presentation, and data verification were employed to organize and analyse the data in order to identify general categories and themes (Miles & Huberman, 1994).

The researchers employed a triangulation technique and member checking to ensure the validity and accuracy of the data collected (Cresswell, 2012). Triangulation was achieved by comparing the data obtained from closed-ended statements and interview questions. To establish the validity of the questionnaire, a preliminary draft was reviewed by three experts in English language teaching. The suggestions provided by these experts were incorporated into the final version of the questionnaire. The distribution of the questionnaire through Google Forms was facilitated by the students’ coordinator, who shared it with the students’ WhatsApp group. This approach ensured a prompt collection of responses from all participants.

Regarding the interview component, six students were asked a single question about their perceived advantages and disadvantages of using Zoom during their Ph.D. study. The interviews were conducted virtually using Google Meet. Amongst these EFL students, two had prior experience using Zoom for academic purposes, two had limited experience using Zoom for general purposes, and two were unfamiliar with how to use Zoom. The interviews were conducted subsequent to analysing the closed-ended questionnaire and obtaining initial results. Their purpose was to gain further clarification on certain issues and concepts that remained unclear based on the questionnaire responses.

DTPB constructs were utilized in the design of the questionnaire. DTPB was chosen as it assists in measuring the attitudes and perceptions of the EFL students regarding the use of Zoom as an online learning and teaching tool during the COVID-19 pandemic. DTPB aligns with the aims and objectives of this study. Ethical considerations were met, despite the low-risk nature of the research, by introducing a questionnaire that ensured confidentiality, voluntary participation, and anonymity. In summary, this study employed two conceptual models to analyse the data: Taylor and Todd's (1995) model and Serhan's (2020) one category of perceived advantages and disadvantages of using Zoom. Apart from the Demographic section, three sections in this study's questionnaire are consistent with Taylor and Todd's (1995) model. The first section of the questionnaire focuses on 'Attitudes' and examines EFL students' ease in learning course content, development of confidence in the subject matter, improvement in technology skills, ability to interact with lecturers, and increased interaction with classmates.

The second section of the questionnaire focuses on "perceived behavioural control. This section examines EFL students' perceptions of how Zoom impacts their learning in the classroom, whether it helps them understand the class..."
content, and if it boosts their confidence in the subject. The questionnaire also explores whether students feel comfortable using Zoom, if they can afford internet expenses, if they believe Zoom is a beneficial technology, and if it provides flexibility in their learning schedule.

In this study, the researchers refer to Taylor and Todd’s (1995) “Subjective Norm” as “Factors,” which include EFL peer influence and supervisor influence. Additionally, Serhan (2020) introduced a category on the perceived advantages of using Zoom, such as flexibility, easier interaction, written communication, and multimedia usage. Conversely, EFL students’ perceptions of disadvantages encompass distractions, quality of interaction and feedback, poor education quality, and technical difficulties.

For the sources of items used in the questionnaire:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Sections of the questionnaire</th>
<th>Source</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Attitudes</td>
<td>Taylor and Todd, 1995</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Behavioral Control</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Factors(Subjective Norm)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Advantages and Disadvantages</td>
<td>Serhan 2020</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

IV. DATA ANALYSIS, FINDINGS AND DISCUSSION

A. Data Analysis, Findings and Discussion of the Questionnaire Questions

The responses collected from the 5-point Likert-type survey items were grouped into demographic information, EFL students’ attitudes, perceived behavioural control, and factors influencing their use of Zoom. The following sections display the data analysis, including frequency, percentage, mean, and standard deviation details.

(a). Data Analysis of the Demographic Information

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Variable</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>Percentage</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Location</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Town</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>17.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>City</td>
<td>31</td>
<td>77.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Village</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>5.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>40</td>
<td>100.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Device</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Smartphone</td>
<td>31</td>
<td>77.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Laptop</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>17.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Desktop</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>5.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>40</td>
<td>100.00</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Internet Quality</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Excellent</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>7.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Good</td>
<td>29</td>
<td>72.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Poor</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>20.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>40</td>
<td>100.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Evaluation of Zoom Learning Experience</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Excellent</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>22.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Good</td>
<td>28</td>
<td>70.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Poor</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>7.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>total</td>
<td>40</td>
<td>100.00</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 2 displays the frequency statistics for the candidates’ Demographic Information. First, (95%) of the EFL students exist in cities and towns. Second, 77.5% of the candidates reported using smartphones to access Zoom, while 80% stated that the internet quality in their areas was either good or excellent. Furthermore, these findings indicate that Zoom has occurred as a vital tool for online teaching and learning since the start of the Covid-19 pandemic (Blacker, 2020). Moreover, these statistics support Wali and Omaid’s (2020) claim that educators and education policymakers recognize smartphones as a powerful educational tool for students and teachers in facilitating learning. It is also evident from the results that smartphones are the most commonly used electronic devices among EFL learners. Finally, the results prove that EFL students were satisfied with the internet quality and Zoom learning experience. To sum up, this satisfaction enabled them to successfully navigate challenges and continue their learning via Zoom during the COVID-19 pandemic and university lockdown.

(b). Descriptive Statistics of Students’ Attitudes Towards Using Zoom

Hypothesis 1: EFL Students have negative attitudes while using Zoom.
Table 3 presents the frequency statistics regarding EFL students’ perceived attitudes towards using Zoom during the COVID-19 pandemic. In accordance with Taylor and Todd’s (1995) DTPB model, the study participants perceived Zoom as useful, easy to use, and compatible with their needs and situations during the university lockdown. The results indicate that Ph.D. candidates believed that the Zoom platform added values to their learning activities. Moreover, they were willing to adapt to Zoom-driven online learning because they found it easy to understand the content of the course and easy to use the platform. Additionally, they felt that Zoom aligned with their values, experiences, learning practices, and they gained new technological skills. Finally, they developed confidence on the subject as well as on themselves, easily interacted with their classmates and with their lecturer.

Furthermore, these results support Ajzen and Madden’s (1986) findings. In accordance with these researchers, attitudes are formed through three general information classes: affective, cognitive, and behavioural information. The cognitive component or information processing approach is utilized in attitude formation in both the theories of reasoned action and planned behaviour. Gangwal and Veena (2016) explain that affective information pertains to how a person feels about a subject, while cognitive information refers to what a person thinks about it. Behavioural information stems from past and future behavioural intentions towards the goal.

The mean score for this attitude component is 2.10, with a cumulative percentage of strongly agree and agree responses at 92.5%. These results demonstrate that EFL students hold a positive attitude towards using Zoom technology during the COVID-19 pandemic. Consequently, they were satisfied with its usage.

(c). Students’ Perceived Behavioral Control While Using Zoom

Hypothesis 2: EFL Students perceive negative behavioral control while using Zoom.

Table 4 presents the frequency statistics of EFL students’ perceived behavioural control while using Zoom during the university lockdown. In accordance with Taylor and Todd’s (1995) DTPB model, the candidates reported feeling comfortable using Zoom, and they found the necessary resources manageable. They were able to effectively manage their time and other commitments to attend the 15 flexible scheduled lectures. Additionally, they were able to afford internet access and had smartphones readily available. Although low bandwidth posed a challenge during the lectures, they adapted by selecting more suitable internet packages based on their locations and time zones.

These findings are consistent with Nyasulu and Winner’s (2019) research, which highlights three aspects of perceived behavioural control. The first aspect is self-efficacy, indicating that students are more likely to embrace a new technology if they feel comfortable using it. The second and third aspects are resource-facilitating conditions and technology-facilitating conditions. Students are more inclined to adopt a new educational tool if these conditions are favourable. In the case of Zoom, facilitating conditions include having enough time, financial resources, mobile devices, and sufficient internet bandwidth.

In contrast, a study conducted by Serhan (2020) investigated the attitudes and perceptions of United States university students towards Zoom delivery of lectures during the pandemic. The findings revealed that students had a negative attitude towards Zoom and perceived Zoom classes as adversely affecting their learning experience and motivation. One possible reason for this negative response, according to the researcher, was that lecturers needed more time to adapt to
the sudden change brought about by COVID-19 in terms of teaching and learning. This involved using a new platform with new modalities, activities, and methods.

On the other hand, Sudanese EFL university students exhibited positive behavioural control when it came to using Zoom. The mean score obtained was 2.3, with a cumulative percentage of strongly agree and agree responses reaching 77.5%.

(d). Factors Influencing EFL Students' Use of Zoom (Subjective Norm)

Hypothesis 3: EFL Students perceive negative factors that influence their behavioral intention when using Zoom.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Table 5</th>
<th>FACTORS INFLUENCING STUDENTS’ USE OF ZOOM: FREQUENCIES</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Response</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Because My Lecturer Uses It</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Strongly Agree</td>
<td>8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Agree</td>
<td>29</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>40</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Because My Classmates Use It</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Strongly Agree</td>
<td>7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Agree</td>
<td>21</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Neutral</td>
<td>6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Disagree</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Strongly Disagree</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>40</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Note. *N=40
Participants on average minimum =1
Maximum =4
Mean = 2.33
SD = 0.660

Table 5 presents the frequency statistics for the factors that influence EFL students to use Zoom. The cumulative percentages of the first and second factors support the hypothesis that students use Zoom because their lecturers and classmates use it. This finding aligns with Taylor and Todd's (1995) theoretical approach, which suggests that subjective norm is primarily influenced by peers and superiors. Specifically, 92.5% of the candidates agreed that they used Zoom because their lecturers used it, while peer influence had a slightly lower cumulative percentage of 70.

On the other hand Serhan’s (2020) and Wang et al.’s (2018) studies found low student participation while using Zoom. Students infrequently turn off their webcams and do not respond when encouraged. Moreover, Interactions among students during Zoom sessions were also lower compared to FTF settings. Peers did not have a significant influence on students’ engagement with the Zoom sessions, which were generally lower than FTF interactions in a classroom setting.

In contrast, the findings of this study are consistent with Maul et al.’s (2018) investigation. Their study examined the perceived value of Zoom sessions provided by dissertation chairs to coach and mentor doctoral students. The results revealed that Zoom facilitated the development of valuable relationships between EFL students and their advisors and colleagues, ultimately leading to increased productivity.

B. Data Analysis, Findings, and Discussion of the Interview Questions

Hypothesis 4: EFL Students’ perceived advantages and disadvantages influence their behavioural intention when using Zoom.

The focused-structured interview consisted of two questions that were distributed to six respondents from the same sample group. The selection of respondents was based on their varying levels of familiarity with using Zoom. Two EFL respondents were familiar with and confident in using Zoom, two had limited experience with Zoom, and two had no experience at all. The interview was conducted via Google Meet.

(a). EFL Respondents With Limited Previous Experience With Zoom

One EFL student with limited previous experience with Zoom stated: “It saved me time and money… I felt relaxed and confident. However, the disadvantage of using Zoom is that the network and electricity are weak”.

A second respondent with limited experience using Zoom responded similarly: Zoom is easier to use and saves time and effort … Some disadvantages can be related to students’ situations and environment. These disadvantages include students not having smartphones, poor internet connection in certain areas, and students’ lack of engagement with the lecture compared to traditional face-to-face teaching.

The above two EFL students with limited experience in using Zoom highlighted its positive aspects such as saving time, effort and money, its ease of use, and felt relaxed and confident. They also mentioned some disadvantages including unstable electricity, poor network connections, students’ lack of smartphones, and a feeling of isolation compared with traditional face-to-face learning.

(b). EFL Respondents With No Prior Experience With Zoom

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Two other EFL students who had never used Zoom provided their responses on using the platform. One respondent reported the following advantages: “Easy to join, saving time, easy content sharing, a chance for training in an important technical issue, flexibility … Comfort of learning from home, and cost savings …”.

The respondent also mentioned some disadvantages: “Sometimes gives a sense of isolation, difficulty in managing time, some technological difficulties, and lack of communication”.

Another respondent who had only attended Zoom classes during his Ph.D. study, but had not used it before provided his response: “… It saves money and time. The disadvantages of using Zoom include lack of network access, particularly poor internet connection, lack of classroom exposure, and financial difficulties for many students”.

The above two EFL students mentioned several advantages such as ease of joining meetings and saving time, easy content sharing and opportunities for training, flexibility, comfort, and cost savings. However, they also highlighted some disadvantages including feelings of isolation and challenges in managing time, difficulties with technology skills and lack of communication between peers and instructors, poor internet network quality, and financial challenges.

(c). EFL Respondents With Good Experience and Who Had Used Zoom in Private Schools and Universities Provided Additional Insights. One Participant Stated:

Easy to download … Has free hosting for up to 100 participants for 40 minutes … Reliable for use. Has high video and audio quality. Screen sharing feature allows easy participation with the host… requiring approximately 600MB to 1.70GB of data per hour. The free option automatically ends after 40 minutes … More engaging than traditional methods. Sessions can be recorded and archived for future reference.

EFL Students can participate from any location. Better time management and flexibility in choosing a suitable location Provides an environment that some students find more comfortable. Helps improve technical skills.

In terms of disadvantages, the respondents mentioned the following:

- High cost of internet services… Not suitable for complex topics or practical activities that require a physical environment. Limited feedback may be received from some students. Lack of face-to-face communication compared to traditional methods. Some students may feel unable to work effectively using Zoom.

One participant with significant experience in Zoom-based university teaching has noted both advantages and disadvantages. The advantages of teaching and learning via Zoom are as follows: “It saves time, cost and access to learning resources anytime”.

On the other hand, he mentioned several disadvantages associated with using Zoom: “Weak infrastructure… Lacks of technical skills, some students do not have smartphones. Absence of direct interactions compared to face-to-face classroom interactions… These problems impede expected learning outcomes”.

The above two experienced EFL students shed light on the advantages and disadvantages of using Zoom during their experience in this study. From their responses, it is clear that they master using Zoom considering all challenges that faced them during this experience. They acknowledged using Zoom regardless of the obstacles that might face them.

The responses of the six EFL participants in this study align with the conclusions drawn by Paudel (2021) regarding online learning in Nepalese higher education during the COVID-19 pandemic. The study revealed that over 80% of Nepalese higher education learners expressed satisfaction with online courses. They believed that it facilitated their online research, connected them to international networks, and provided access to various valuable sources of knowledge. However, the study also highlighted major challenges faced by participants, including weak time management skills, unreliable internet connections, and difficulties in adapting to the increased autonomy and responsibility associated with online courses.

Similar advantages and disadvantages were expressed by Sudanese EFL students in this study. Furthermore, their responses were consistent with the findings of Alam (2020), who conducted a study on students at Bangladeshi private universities. Like their Bangladeshi counterparts, Sudanese EFL Ph.D. students reported that both teachers and students encountered numerous challenges when transitioning to online education due to their lack of prior experience with it. Poor time management skills and weak internet connections were identified as crucial obstacles for both teachers and students. The current researchers support Alam's recommendations that universities should assist students in developing time management skills and improve internet speed and reliability for staff and students.

When comparing the results of this study with Serhan's (2020) categories, it is evident that Sudanese EFL students agree with the section on flexibility in classroom schedule and easier interaction. In terms of multimedia usage in Zoom, the students perceived it as a positive advantage. They noted that "the platform highly encourages the use of multimedia to distribute notes and digital resources. This is a huge step in the right direction for conservation of paper materials" (Serhan, 2020, p. 339). On the other hand, Sudanese EFL respondents perceived using multimedia as one of the obstacles for them while using Zoom. Some lacked technological skills while others did not have smartphones.

To our surprise, none of the Sudanese EFL respondents mentioned 'distractions' as one of the negative aspects of using Zoom. However, in contrast, Serhan's participants reported this issue with a significant percentage of 42.11%. One participant stated, "There are more distractions around in one's home, making it very difficult to stay focused. My attention to anything decreases because I get distracted by my family, phone, or anything outside of a classroom environment. Being outside the class environment can lead to more distractions..." (Serhan, 2020, p. 339). The Sudanese EFL respondents, regardless of their different experiences, confirmed that they understood the content of the lectures and were able to share their screens with their peers and the lecturers without facing any distractions from their
surroundings or family members. However, when it comes to technical difficulties and the quality of interaction and feedback, both students generally agreed on the disadvantages in these areas (as shown in the examples above).

One section from Serhan's study that was not mentioned by the Sudanese EFL respondents in this interview is 'Poor Education Quality'. One participant expressed his dissatisfaction by saying, "The poorer quality of education makes me feel like I'm not learning anything and yet I'm paying a ridiculous amount for tuition. I have lost motivation to study and I don't understand the content as well as I could in person with a professor" (Serhan, 2020, p. 339). On the other hand, the Sudanese respondents consistently confirmed that they had a good quality of education and understood the content of the lectures easily. They also found Zoom to be user-friendly and useful (as mentioned in their previous answers).

Overall, the results of this study highlight that Sudanese EFL PhD students perceive the same advantages and disadvantages as other students, both nationally and internationally, regarding Zoom learning during the COVID-19 pandemic. Learners in developing countries face similar infrastructure limitations and unstable economic, social, and political situations. Additionally, students encounter additional challenges that can impede their access to and engagement with online learning platforms. Despite these challenges, the PhD EFL candidates in this study believed that the benefits of using Zoom during and after the spread of COVID-19 outweighed the drawbacks. They expressed overall satisfaction with this new remote teaching and learning experience.

V. CONCLUSION AND IMPLICATIONS

The spread of the COVID-19 pandemic in mid-March 2020 forced universities worldwide to transfer lectures from traditional face-to-face modes of learning to remote/online modes. Sudanese universities were not an exception. However, Sudan is a unique case study for this transition to digital learning due to limited e-learning use in government universities before the lockdown.

This study investigated the perceptions of Sudanese EFL Ph.D. students about Zoom as a technological tool for teaching and learning. Despite the expected obstacles and challenges, Sudanese learners embraced this unique teaching and learning mode. The challenges include the high cost of internet, poor bandwidth connections, and the need to source reliable and technologically compatible devices for Zoom. The candidates lacked experience in e-learning to such an extent that some experienced classmates delivered online sessions to teach colleagues how to install and use Zoom. They also need to develop skills in time management that remote learning requires.

Toquero (2020) suggests that institutions should adjust their pedagogical practices to meet the current learning needs of their students. The transition to online learning during the COVID-19 pandemic saw this adaptation take place. The insights gained during the remote teaching and learning experience should encourage further adaptations to meet the needs of 21st-century learners. We confirm Serhan's (2020) recommendation that researchers should tap into studies documenting the effect of the pandemic on education systems worldwide. This research will provide educators with valuable insights into requirements and best practice strategies for new modes of teaching and learning moving forward.

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Attitudes of Native Speakers of Thai Toward Speakers of Thai as a Second Language

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Abstract—Languages and accents build understanding and relationships with other people. Therefore, understanding individual attitudes could contribute to more effective second language communication and learning motivation. This study investigated the attitudes of native speakers of Thai (NST) toward speakers of Thai as a second language: Chinese speakers of Thai as a second language (CST) and American speakers of Thai as a second language (AST). The matched-guise technique (Lambert et al., 1960) was used to assess data collected from 145 Thai NST evaluators through an online questionnaire. The analysis of the NST’s attitudes found ten characteristics from both the CST and AST were statistically significantly different at a 0.05 level, such as friendliness, diligence, generosity, self-confidence, responsibility, leadership, economic status, attractive accent, and language use appropriateness. The NSTs were found to have more positive attitudes toward the CSTs than the ASTs in many aspects, which may have been because of native language sound and social context factors.

Index Terms—language attitudes, accents, Thai as a second language speaker, matched-guise technique, sociolinguistics

I. INTRODUCTION

Over the past few years, foreigners have been moving to Thailand to travel, work, marry, and study, all of whom need to communicate with Thai people or friends, especially in workplaces and other communicative situations. Using Thai could result in greater understanding and trust than using other languages. However, language is not only for "communication" as it also can convey culture, race, social group, gender, age, and “attitudes”.

Sociolinguistics theory includes the study of attitudes because these can determine and affect social behavior. Positive attitudes can contribute to helpful and constructive behavior and bad attitudes can affect social development. Attitudes also influence daily decisions, such as choosing friends, career choices, and the selection of education. As attitudes often lead people to act on what they believe is suitable, they can therefore affect communication and understanding with other people, and can also cause misunderstandings and conflicts. Especially if the interlocutor has some stereotypical biases.

Attitudes transmitted through language, therefore, have been widely studied by Thai and foreign researchers, with most studies examining the individual attitudes related to language communication tendencies, the problems caused by social factors, the use of language for learning, and understanding the different cultures and behaviors of mother tongue people (Lambert et al., 1960; Pulikupt, 1983; Srinawarat, 1986; Gaies & Beebe, 1991; Saravanan et al., 2006; Lakshmi & Caleon, 2007; Charunrochana & Yang, 2013; Pakasuk, 2018; Liu, 2019; Nejjari et al., 2019; Aykut-Kolay, 2022; Komar, 2022; Ianos et al., 2023; Kang et al., 2023). To understand the attitudes toward languages and cultures, most studies have analyzed data collected from interviews or questionnaires, from which it was confirmed that languages and cultures affect communication and understanding in academic societies and in everyday life.

Attitude has usually been evaluated using the matched-guise technique, which is a social science technique that studies listeners and/or responders in several dimensions, such as credibility, perfection, and social behavior. Lambert et al. (1960) were the first to use this technique to examine individual attitudes, from which a set of social and cultural examples were developed that illustrated the impact on individual assessments, especially in perfection and social behavior and the community context variances. Since that time, the matched-guise technique has been employed to evaluate individual attitudes in various research areas, such as the social sciences, culture, linguistics, and communication. However, even though Thai has become a reasonably popular language choice for Chinese, Japanese, Korean, and American learners, to date, there have been no studies exploring the language attitudes of Thai people toward American speakers of Thai as a second language and comparison of Chinese speakers of Thai as a second language and American speakers of Thai as a second language by native speakers.

Therefore, this study investigated the attitudes of native speakers of Thai (NST) toward two different Thai second language speakers: Chinese speakers of Thai as a second language (CST) and American speakers of Thai as a second language (AST). Studying the language attitudes of speakers with different mother tongues is important to assess the influences that accents can have on understanding and relationships, the results from which can improve relationships between NSTs and non-native speakers of Thai (NNST), decrease possible stereotypical biases, increase NNST
motivation, lead to a better understanding of diverse language behaviors, facilitate more fruitful communication and cultural understanding, and strengthen Thai language teaching and learning.

II. ATTITUDE, ACCENT, AND THE MATCHED-GUISE TECHNIQUE

As the language spoken in a particular situation can result in a listener forming certain attitudes toward the speaker/s, the factors related to the formation of these attitudes could be seen to be important social language use variables. Although attitude is an unpredictable variable, it is the key factor leading to language change (Thomason, 2001, p. 141).

Social science defines attitude as a feeling or emotion a person has toward organizations, products, services, or other people, which can be transmitted through many mediums, such as advertisements, social media, and face-to-face interactions. A person’s opinions, perceptions, and behavior are based on their personal experiences and the opinions and beliefs they have developed from other sources, such as social media, that is, their self-concept (LeVine & Campbell, 1972).

Accent, which is defined as “a variety of speech differing phonetically from other varieties” (Matthews, 1997, p. 4), is also closely related to attitude, especially in communicative situations. Accents vary depending on a person’s place of residence or culture, identify where a speaker is from and can affect a listener’s ability to understand what a speaker is saying.

The language attitudes of people living in the same or different societies can be determined using various methods, such as interviews, questionnaires, and observations. The matched-guise technique has also been applied to analyze attitudes and behavior toward languages and cultures and explore how communication in different languages and cultures can affect perceptions. Lambert et al. (1960) and Anisfeld and Lambert (1964, 1972) were social psychologists who developed the matched-guise technique to study individual attitudes. In their early studies, study samples were asked to listen to recordings of unknown speakers who could speak two languages, after which they were asked to determine the speakers’ possible characteristics. This matched-guise technique has since been widely used because of its ability to effectively evaluate attitudes.

Although sociolinguistics researchers use semantic differential scales, the matched-guise technique, and attitude questionnaires to evaluate opinions toward languages or cultures, the matched-guise technique has been the most popular, primarily because it emphasizes social and cultural differences based on community contexts. However, studies have also highlighted both the advantages and disadvantages of the matched-guise technique research method (Giles & Powesland, 1975; Giles et al., 1991).

The advantages include:

1. The matched-guise technique allows a researcher to systematically compare the changes in listeners’ attitudes and perceptions toward the sound heard without the interference of the social differences that could affect the interpretation of the findings.

2. The matched-guise technique allows researchers to control variables that could affect the research results, such as voice and speech.

3. The matched-guise technique provides independent and unbiased results, that is, the respondents are independent and anonymous, which allows for unbiased results that can be used for further analysis.

4. The matched-guise technique is inexpensive and requires uncomplicated technology.

However, some disadvantages have also been identified:

1. The data preparation process for the comparative testing and evaluation is complex and time-consuming.

2. To obtain accurate research results, it is necessary to control for other variables such as gender, age, and environment.

Therefore, because of the advantages and the wide previous use of the matched-guise technique, it was used in this study to investigate the attitudes of NSTs toward NNSTs. However, to effectively apply this method, it was necessary to control for the speakers’ attributes, and to obtain the best attitude assessments of the NNST accents, a pilot and a comparative evaluation were required before the main data collection.

III. RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

A. Research Method

1) First, speakers were selected for the audio recordings, after which they were divided into two groups: NST and NNSTs.

   1.1 Two voice distractors were recorded by an NST; one in standard Thai and one in a Southern Thai dialect; which were used as barriers between the NNSTs to prevent the evaluators from recalling either of the speakers as the evaluators could have identified the NST from the NNSTs. As these NST recordings were designed to only distract the evaluators, they were not analyzed in the study results.

   1.2 The selected NNSTs must have studied Thai for at least two years in an educational institution in Thailand and had to be capable enough to regularly converse in Thai with their Thai friends.

   It was found that Chinese speakers of Thai as a second language (CST) and American speakers of Thai as a second language (AST) were the most suitable groups for the study as they represented NNSTs from Asia and the West. These
two student groups mostly attended Thai universities in the 2020–2021 academic year (Ministry of Higher Education Science Research and Innovation, 2022: online). Then one CST and one AST were selected to meet the study requirements; a female aged between 20 and 21 years old currently studying for a bachelor’s degree in a Thai Language Department in Thailand.

2) Using accidental sampling, one hundred and forty-five NSTs were selected as evaluators to complete the questionnaire.

3) The tools used to gather the data were sound recording equipment, a Thai text for the NST and NNSTs, and a questionnaire that was developed using Google Forms. All tools were piloted, and any problems found during the pilot process were revised before the actual data collection.

4) The sample NST evaluators listened to the NST (distractor) and the NNST recordings and then completed the questionnaire. The obtained questionnaire data were then quantitatively and qualitatively analyzed.

B. Research Tools

There were three research tools used in this study.

1) The matched-guise technique was used to indirectly identify the individual attitudes. As discussed, the matched-guise technique can be used to thoroughly evaluate attitudes toward another person. As asking something directly to another person can result in untrue answers, the matched-guise technique allowed the sample NST evaluators to listen to the same text from several unknown speakers without knowing the speakers’ cultural backgrounds, which allowed them to assess the speakers’ attitudes more objectively.

2) Audio recordings
A Thai text was sent to the one NST and two NNST speakers before the recording to allow them to practice. After becoming familiar with the text, they recorded the text once. The four recorded texts were then checked before being sent to the sample NST evaluators.

All speakers recorded the following Thai script.

Thai is one of the tools of the Thai nation. All languages are the tools of humans in expressing his or her opinions in a beautiful way such as in literature. Therefore, people should carefully maintain these languages. In Thailand, we have our own language, and it should be cherished. We have been fortunate to have our own language since ancient times. Therefore, it is very necessary to maintain it. (Thai language club, Faculty of Arts Chulalongkorn University, 1999, p. 5)

3) Questionnaire

A questionnaire was used to assess the attitudes of the sample NST evaluators. The questionnaires were adapted from Lambert et al. (1960) and Palikupt (1983) to make them more appropriate for the sample NST evaluators, who were required to assess fifteen characteristics for each speaker: appearance, friendliness, perseverance, generosity, honesty, intelligence, self-confidence, responsibility, leadership, educational status, economic status, social status, attractive accent, understanding, and language use appropriateness. After listening to each recording, the sample NST evaluators score each characteristic on a five-level score frame that ranged from highest to lowest.

C. Data Collection

A Google Forms questionnaire was distributed to collect the data from the sample NST evaluators, to which the four text recordings were attached. After listening to each speaker, the evaluators scored the speakers’ characteristics, as explained in the previous section.

D. Data Analysis

1) The sample NST evaluation score data for each text recording was collected; however, as stated, only the NNST text recordings were analyzed.

2) To assess if there were any significant differences in the sample NST evaluator’s attitudes toward the CST and AST recordings, the data were analyzed using a t-test, with the statistical significance set at 0.05.

3) Correlation analyses were then employed to examine the NST evaluators’ attitudinal differences toward the CST and AST speakers.

IV. RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

The analyses of the average NST evaluator’s CST and AST attitude scores identified ten characteristics that were statistically significantly different at the 0.05 level; friendliness, perseverance, generosity, self-confidence, responsibility, leadership, economic status, accent, understanding, and language use appropriateness; and five characteristics that were not significant; appearance, honesty, intelligence, educational status, and social status. The average scores for the sample NST evaluator’s attitudes toward the 15 characteristics of the CST and AST are shown in Figure 1.
The sample NST evaluators assessed the CST recordings as having seven better characteristics than the AST recordings; perseverance, self-confidence, responsibility, leadership, economic status, understanding, and language use appropriateness, and assessed the AST recordings as having three better characteristics than the CST recordings; friendliness, generosity, and attractive accent.

The fifteen characteristics were categorized into three groups: personal traits, social status and abilities, and language qualities. The personal traits comprised appearance, friendliness, perseverance, generosity, and honesty characteristics, the social status and abilities group comprised intelligence, self-confidence, responsibility, leadership, educational status, economic status, and social status characteristics, and the language qualities group comprised the attractive accent, understanding, and language use appropriateness characteristics. The sample NST evaluators’ attitude classifications for the CST and AST recordings are shown in Figure 2.

Figure 2 indicates that the sample NST evaluators felt that the CST recordings showed better social status and abilities and better language qualities than the AST recordings and the AST recordings showed better personality traits than the CST recordings. It was speculated that this may have been because of the tone of the mother tongue and the social contexts, as detailed in the following.

1. **Personality traits** are the personal characteristics that could be observed from the appearance, behavior, and ideas in everyday life. The statistical differences indicated that the sample NST evaluators found the AST recordings to have
more friendly and kind characteristics than the CST recordings and the CST recordings to indicate greater diligence than the AST recordings.

The reasons for the higher ratings for AST’s friendliness and generosity characteristics may have been because of political and economic dimensions. It has been found that Thailand has had a more positive attitude toward its relationship with the United States of America (USA) for decades because of its long history of diplomatic relations. This finding was in line with the conclusions of Malasri (2020), which studied the foreign policies of the USA toward Southeast Asian countries. During the Barack Obama and Donald Trump presidencies, the USA strengthened its alliances with the Philippines and Thailand and expanded its connections to other countries around Asia.

As the strengthening of the USA/Thai relationship was built on their long history of diplomatic relations and because Thailand is one of the original allies of the USA and plays an important role in Southeast Asia, Thai people may have more positive attitudes toward the friendliness of the USA, especially as the USA has assisted Southeast Asian countries and Thailand in particular since World War 2. Further, the friendly attitude of the sample NST evaluators toward the USA may also have been because of the reliance of Thailand’s domestic economy on US political policies.

The USA’s assistance may also have been linked with generosity in the sample NST evaluations as generosity is aligned with “kindness” by the Thai people (Wanthana, 1992, pp. 306–311). Therefore, the contributions of the USA may have been reflected in the sample NST evaluators’ attitudes.

The sample NST evaluators’ assessments of the greater diligence of the CST may have been because most Thai people believe the Chinese to be more diligent because of the long Thai and Chinese trade and investment relationship. This was reflected in a story, Thailand, wake up (1938), written by King Rama VI under the pseudonym Asavabhahu. King Rama VI wrote this story for the Thai people, who at that time, were indulging in the happiness and comfort brought by the diligent Chinese living and working in Thailand who were willing to do all kinds of work, including jobs that the indigenous Thai people should be doing. King Rama VI believed that this would result in negative consequences for Thailand. Chinese diligence was often also highlighted in the media until it became a stereotype, with many Thai people thinking that the Chinese built their fortunes from having only one mat and one pillow to becoming a group that was economically stable and secure.

2. Social status and abilities are gained from the respect of others and might be the result of social position, status, knowledge, and ability. The analysis of the NST evaluators’ attitudes toward the CST recordings found that there was a statistically significant difference from the AST recordings for self-confidence, responsibility, leadership, and economic status.

From the investigation, the positive attitudes of NST toward the social status and abilities of CST may have been the result of changes in political policies. China currently has a proactive policy to build confidence in its abilities to be the economic leader in Southeast Asia and the Association of Southeast Asian Nations (ASEAN). Over the past two decades, China’s importance in the ASEAN region has increased significantly through diplomacy and economic growth, as evidenced by the establishment of a free trade area with ASEAN in 2001 and its strategic partnership declaration with ASEAN. These have therefore made China the primary strategic partnership country for ASEAN and the ASEAN + three cooperation framework; China, Japan, and South Korea, which has a long-term goal to become an East Asian community (Charassangsomboon, 2019; Thongtakorn & Niyomthai, 2018; Thepchatree, 2016).

Because of China’s close relationship with ASEAN, as the roles of the USA in the ASEAN economy and Thailand have decreased, China has begun to play a key role. These factors may have influenced the NST’s leadership evaluations and their assessment that the Chinese people have higher social status.

The mother tongue factors that interfered with the second language speaking might persuade Thai people to view CSTs as confident speakers. This is because the Chinese word sounds are short, and when the Chinese speak Thai as their second language, they often do not pronounce final consonants. In the Chinese sound system, most Chinese consonants are affricate or fricative sounds produced by the palate and the lips. These sounds are usually emitted and then immediately stopped at the end of the vocal line. The vocal cords also have highly complex sound frequencies, which allow for firm and articulated voices. This mother tongue interference may have influenced the sample NST evaluators’ attitudes toward the confidence and leadership characteristics of the CSTs.

3. Language quality is characteristic of Thai communication. While the sample NST evaluators found the AST recordings to have more attractive Thai accents, they felt that the CST Thai recordings were more understandable and more appropriate.

The sample NST evaluators had more positive attitudes toward the attractive AST accent because they were influenced by the “English accent.” English is considered a language of dignity. English has been part of most Thai people’s lives since primary school, so many people are familiar with its sounds. In the open-ended questionnaires, the sample NST evaluators noted that the AST’s Thai language “tries to make long and beautiful sounds, but makes her seem to lack confidence,” and the speaker “pronounces words like English vowels and uses a lot of long sounds. The shortness and length of the sound should be distinguished.” This pronunciation of long vowels rather than short vowels made the NSTs think of sweetness, which influenced their assessment of the beauty of the Thai language usage.

On the contrary, the NST viewed the understanding and appropriateness of language use of the CST positively because there are tone marks in Chinese like Thai. This made Chinese accent similar to Thai pronunciation. Consequently, the NST thought that the CST can appropriately use Thai language. Moreover, if looking at the sound
level of Chinese, it would be found that there are three tones which are high-pitched to low-pitched tones, high-pitched to rising tones and low-pitched to rising tones. These tones are similar to the tones of Thai language, so they made Thai people feel familiar with.

It is also possible that the NSTs found that the appropriateness of the CSTs’ language was better because Chinese like Thai is a tonal language, which means that the CSTs’ pronunciation was more similar to Thai pronunciation. Consequently, the NSTs thought that the CSTs could more appropriately use Thai language. Moreover, considering the sound level of Chinese, there are three tones which are high-pitched to low-pitched tones, high-pitched to rising tones and low-pitched to rising tones. These tones are similar to the tones of Thai language, so they made Thai people feel familiar with.

This is similar to comments of NST on the CST’s sound. The NSTs noted that the CST “could control the pitch of her voice, highness, or lowness of a tone, very well. She might be used to using tone marks, yet she still pronounced some words differently,” and the speaker “has a clear tonal pronunciation without any monotone. However, if the speaker moved the shape of the mouth correctly, he might pronounce some words more clearly”.

The NST attitudes toward the fifteen characteristics of the CST and the AST were both significantly statistically different and indifferent because of the political and economic policy dimensions and the mother tongue dimension.

The characteristics that were not found to be statistically different were possibly related to the Chinese and American accents. Many people from these two countries work and study in Thailand, and both China and the USA are powerful countries. Therefore, their appearance, intellect, educational background, and social position characteristics were found to be acceptable even when a long tone was used to express sweetness, or a short sound was used to indicate energy. As the tones expressed sincerity, they were seen as expressing honesty.

Overall, the study found that the sample NST evaluators’ attitudes toward the CST speakers were more positive than toward the AST speakers. The westernization of the Thai people led to predictions that Thai sounds would be unduly influenced by English and that it was necessary to maintain the Thai language sound (Onpau, 2016). Therefore, these results may reflect the changing values and worldviews of people in Thai society.

The sample NST evaluators gave the highest CST scores for confidence and leadership, which was because Thais recognize the diligence and humility of the Chinese. From 1997, the One China policy of President Xi Jinping has strengthened China’s military and economy. China has invested heavily in spacecraft construction and has become a leader in space technology. Because Thai industry has become more dependent on China than the USA since 2000 (Pongnairat, 2017), the Thai people have great confidence in the Chinese leadership. Charunrochana and Yang (2013) found that American speakers of Thai as a second language had less leadership and confidence than Chinese speakers of Thai as a second language, which was in line with the results of this study.

The average scores for the sample NST evaluators’ attitudes toward the distractor recordings were also interesting. Very high scores were given by all NSTs for all characteristics and were significantly higher than the CST or AST speakers and statistically significant, indicating that standard Thai was seen to have social dignity, popularity, and acceptance. Nevertheless, speakers from different backgrounds usually have second language accents influenced by their mother tongue and their origins, which can result in communication obstacles and result in incorrect judgments by native speakers. Therefore, native speakers need to understand the difficulties in learning to accurately speak a second language to motivate second language learners to interact with native speakers.

This study has indicated that native speaker attitudes toward second language learners could be a factor in successful language learning as positive relationships with native speakers could increase social interactions, better develop second language abilities, and improve the motivation to study the language. Therefore, second language teachers and native speakers should take care not to stereotype second language speakers as this could affect their language learning and discourage native speaker interactions.

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Using the Shadowing Technique in Teaching Russian as a Foreign Language

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Abstract—At present, there is an active search for ways to improve and modernize the process of teaching Russian as a foreign language. Teachers need to study and implement in their practice the most efficient methods and modern innovative technology, combine traditional and innovative teaching methods, and creatively develop the accumulated theoretical and practical experience in education. The choice of teaching methods is a vital and urgent task in the contemporary methodology of teaching Russian as a foreign language. The article reports research findings on the efficiency of the main prerequisites for the introduction of the shadowing technique in teaching Russian as a foreign language. In addition, the study involves a qualitative analysis of the efficiency of teaching by means of shadowing compared to traditional teaching methodology. The paper discusses various shadowing techniques, describes the basics of the technique, and offers practical recommendations on how it could be utilized in the classroom. The study proposes and experimentally tests a shadowing technique in teaching students from Kyrgyzstan. The findings reveal a positive dynamic in performance in listening among students taught Russian as a foreign language with shadowing.

Index Terms—Russian as a foreign language, shadowing, interactive teaching methods

I. INTRODUCTION

In recent decades, indicators of international immigration have been consistently rising. Statistics show that the citizens of Kyrgyzstan are one of the largest groups of immigrants to Russia (United Nations Department of Economic
and Social Affairs, Population Division, 2020). The infrastructure built for the adaptation of migrants in the host country accounts for cultural differences and language barriers. Yet a major role in adaptation in a foreign-language society is played by proficiency in communication in the local language. For this reason, the efficiency of teaching Russian as a foreign language (RFL) is of considerable importance. The main objective of methodologists and teachers of a foreign language is to select the most efficient methods of language teaching methods as a means to achieve educational goals.

An available method of mastering speaking is the technique of shadowing – a form of learning developed for enhancing simultaneous interpreting skills. Although until recently, this method has been considered a non-traditional one in foreign language learning, lately it has been gaining in popularity. Newly published teaching manuals for various levels of proficiency have this method at their core. The efficiency of the shadowing technique is not limited to simultaneous interpretation, which allows even beginners to benefit from it in mastering listening skills, i.e., understanding information communicated through speech signals (Junipisa & Ariスタ, 2021), the mastery and efficiency of which is vital. These skills become even more important in foreign language classes since learning as an act is a basic skill in studying any foreign language (Alllateh & Widiantoro, 2019).

Being a rather intensive teaching method, in which students listen and repeat what they heard almost simultaneously, shadowing provides a smooth transition from understanding what one wants to say to the ability to truly fluently verbalize it. Thus, this technique improves abilities from intellectual understanding to practical use (Liu & Sammons, 2021). Repeated use of this method advances the student’s intonation, pronunciation, and vocabulary. Furthermore, using printed text with recording the content of the dialog as a supporting material cultivates the ability to read quickly in a foreign language (Hamada, 2011).

In this light, the role of listening skills becomes truly critical in studying the Russian language in a Kyrgyz group. Therefore, the investigation of the efficiency of shadowing in teaching RFL becomes a topical objective.

Literature Review

As described by Shiki et al. (2010), shadowing refers to the listener repeating words, phrases, and sentences immediately after hearing them. Essentially, with shadowing, the listener hears the material twice, first as an auditory stimulus that they need to repeat and then as part of self-control when reproducing it (Sumarsih, 2017).

Shadowing has been utilized in teaching English as a foreign language (EFL), primarily in Japan (Hamada, 2015). This attracted the attention of foreign language teachers and researchers, thus initiating numerous experiments and debates about teaching methods and the advantages of the technique (Foote & McDonough, 2017; Hsieh et al., 2013; Martinsen et al., 2017). At present, the use of shadowing is no longer exclusive to Japan. The benefits of shadowing techniques have also been discovered in experiments conducted in teaching EFL to Arabic native speakers (Al-Azzemy & Al-Jamal, 2019) and Vietnamese (Vu & Shah, 2016) and Indonesian (Ekayati, 2020) students.

In view of researchers, the answer to whether shadowing is closer to simple imitation of sound or meaningful repetition is not unequivocal. The least developed the student’s skills in perceiving phonemes, the closer their reproduction to the simple imitation of sounds (Bao, 2017). With increasing proficiency in the mechanisms of direct speech processing, shadowing becomes a conscious imitation and promotes the assimilation of the structures of the second language (Ginting, 2019).

Shadowing focuses students’ attention on picking up the sounds, which precede meanings. Thus, the leading role of shadowing consists in improving students’ ability to perceive phonemes, which at low proficiency levels implies the use of "bottom-up" processes (phoneme perception) to a greater extent than "top-bottom" ones, which are applied later and focus on catching the meaning and not phonemes (Hamada, 2014).

Repeated use of shadowing in class in various forms allows students to better perceive the sounds, which enables them to understand the meaning (Omar & Umehara, 2010).

However, the border between imitation and repetition is unclear, since the process of decoding information (overlaying sound differentiation) predominates the conscious and productive use of shadowing. The larger the gap between perceiving the sound and decoding the information, the more imitative the reproduction of speech when using shadowing (Shiki et al., 2010).

Sumiyoshi (2019) suggests that shadowing is a language teaching method that can be applied at different proficiency levels, as well as adjusted to the goals set to teach a specific skill. On the one hand, this technique targets students with low proficiency levels, intended to help them activate the perception and imitation of unfamiliar speech sounds, followed by the processing and eventual acquisition of simple information. On the other hand, advanced students who have already mastered a satisfactory vocabulary can focus on intonation and expressiveness when using shadowing. For more proficient foreign language learners, this method is an ideal exercise to improve their speed of speech and information processing and when used in bilingual exercises – to strengthen their translation skills (Yavari & Shafei, 2019).

Analysis of relevant scientific sources indicates the insufficiency of the accumulated experience and shows the need for empirical studies on this issue. In this connection, we consider it necessary to explore the possibility of using shadowing in teaching RFL.

The purpose of the study is to assess the efficiency of shadowing in teaching RFL. The research objectives set to achieve this goal are formulated as follows:
1) to analyze the main prerequisites for the introduction of shadowing techniques; 
2) to experimentally test the efficiency of shadowing techniques in teaching listening comprehension in RFL teaching; 
3) to qualitatively analyze the efficiency of teaching with the use of shadowing techniques in comparison with traditional teaching methods.

II. Methods

The efficiency of using shadowing was tested through an experiment with Kyrgyz students in Russian language courses. The total sample consisted of 28 students with 14 people in the experimental group (EG), which used shadowing in teaching RFL, and 14 people in the control group (CG), which utilized traditional RFL teaching methods. The methods of shadowing applied in the EG included the following (Table 1).

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<tr>
<th>No.</th>
<th>Method</th>
<th>Content</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>Close shadowing</td>
<td>No deeper processing, the delay between listening to a speech stimulus and its repetition is reduced from 250 to 500 ms, that is, repetition is virtually simultaneous. This implies immediate processing of the speech and its repetition almost instantly before it is transmitted in full, so the speech is not processed entirely before reproduction begins.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>Phrase shadowing</td>
<td>Repetition phrase by phrase/sentence by sentence, while allowing time for the recognition of words and possibly for grammatical analysis, assuming that the stimulus signal is delivered, then processed, and spoken out loud.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>Parallel reading</td>
<td>An exercise of reading the transcript aloud, along with listening. It aims to promote learners' reading comprehension and memorization of L2 texts, thereby improving reading speed and speaking fluency.</td>
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Initial and final assessment of listening skills used test tasks, which included:

– Multiple choice questions assuming selective choice of answers. Each segment of the listened text is followed by a question with three answer options, with only one of them being correct;
– Multiple matching tasks, consisting in matching the content of the heard material with statements, pictures, and tables given on paper. The answer options for matching always include one extra that does not relate to any part of the listening material;
– Filling gaps in a text, filling in tables, and adding to or completing sentences. The listener is asked to fill out a table, etc. with a limited number of words (usually no more than three). Questions are given in the same order in which the audio text proceeds;
– Choosing the correct answer from two options. Statements reflecting the content of the text need to be marked by the listener as true or false.

The indicator of the student's listening skills development was the percentage of completed tasks, which established three levels of listening skills development: low level – 0-49% of completed tasks; sufficient level – 50-74% of completed tasks; high level – 75-100% of completed tasks.

Statistical data processing was performed using Statistica 7.0 software. Changes in the level of listening skills after learning with shadowing were established by means of Fisher's angular transformation $\varphi^*$, which assesses the reliability of differences between the percentages of two samples.

III. Results

The results of the initial and final control of listening skills are provided in Table 2.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Listening skills level</th>
<th>EG pre-experiment, %</th>
<th>CG pre-experiment, %</th>
<th>EG post-experiment, %</th>
<th>CG post-experiment, %</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>low</td>
<td>78.6%</td>
<td>85.7%</td>
<td>28.6%</td>
<td>57.1%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>sufficient</td>
<td>21.4%</td>
<td>14.3%</td>
<td>71.4%</td>
<td>42.9%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>high</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

In initial testing, a low level of listening skills was found in 78.6% of EG students (N = 12) and 85.7% of CG students (N = 11). A sufficient level was demonstrated by 21.4% of students in the EG (N = 2) and 14.3% in the CG (N = 3). A high level of mastery was not detected. Importantly, the levels of listening skills development in both groups were approximately the same, proving that the EG and CG belong to the same general sample.

The results of post-experimental testing demonstrated an improvement in listening skills in both groups. In the final assessment, only 28.6% of listeners in the EG (N = 4) and over half of the CG (57.1%; N = 6) demonstrated a low level of listening skills. A sufficient level was recorded in 71.4% of EG listeners (N = 10) and 42.9% of CG students (N = 8). A high level was still not observed. However, the level of listening skills in the EG, which was taught with shadowing, was higher than in the CG. Therefore, it can be concluded that shadowing was more efficient in RFL teaching compared to traditional teaching.
Changes in the level of development of listening skills after the experimental training were identified with Fisher’s angular transformation $\phi^*$, which tests the reliability of differences between the percentages of two samples. A table of empirical frequencies was built for two values: "presence of effect" and "absence of effect" (Table 3). In this case, we considered the effect to be the attainment of a sufficient level of listening skills by the listeners.

### Table 3

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Group</th>
<th>Section</th>
<th>Presence of effect</th>
<th>Absence of effect</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Number of listeners</td>
<td>%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>CG</td>
<td>Pre-exp.</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>14.5%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Post-exp.</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>42.9%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td></td>
<td>8</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>EG</td>
<td>Pre-exp.</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>21.4%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Post-exp.</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>71.4%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td></td>
<td>13</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The null and alternative hypotheses are formulated for both groups.

**H0**: the share of listeners proficient in listening skills at a sufficient level according to final testing does not exceed the share of students at this level at the start of the experiment.

**H1**: the share of listeners proficient in listening skills at a sufficient level according to final testing is higher than the share of students at this level at the start of the experiment.

The calculations show that $\phi^*_{emp} (CG) = 1.74$; $\phi^*_{emp} (EG) = 2.85$.

Critical values of $\phi^*$: 1.64 ($p < 0.05$); 2.31 ($p < 0.01$).

The empirical values of $\phi^*$ for both the EG ($p < 0.01$) and CG ($p < 0.05$) fall in the zone of significance, which refutes H0 and confirms H1. Thus, both the experimental and traditional methods are efficient, but shadowing proves more efficient, as the empirical value of $\phi^*$ for the EG is higher than in the CG.

### IV. Discussion

Shadowing was employed in this study in EFL classes for students from Kyrgyzstan. This approach to audio stimulation was used throughout one year of Russian language training for approximately one-quarter of the class time. Audio recordings, students' own speech or speech in unison repeated after the initial spoken passage, were all considered as sources of auditory verbal stimuli. Students were expected to learn new vocabulary from the regular textbook at home during independent study, with regard to their pronunciation and the meaning of the words. Shadowing was then applied in the classroom, with a special emphasis on loud and the most accurate pronunciation.

In the first stage of learning, shadowing was more focused on imitating the sound and speech, with a gradual improvement of sound recognition and imitation to distinguish small information units, i.e., words, word combinations, and short sentences.

While bottom-up processing is evident (Hamada, 2014), the second stage of training allowed the students to shift to more complex phrases and sentences to practice deciphering information and speaking with comprehension. When shadowing was applied using complete conversational phrases at a relatively low proficiency level, both bottom-up and top-down processing took place. However, these processing types were used to varying degrees, depending on the complexity of the verbal material compared to the already learned components. This conclusion is consistent with the findings of Bao (2017).

By listening to individual students and observing them and their speech actions, the teacher can intervene when support is needed. The mastery of phrases recognized in complex utterances seems to be an additional benefit of shadowing, beyond the development of attentive listening or the improvement of listening comprehension and pronunciation skills, as confirmed by the final testing. The use of shadowing in accordance with the above-mentioned procedures yields the mastery of sound reproduction by Kyrgyz learners of Russian, as evidenced by the assessments of perception by native speakers of Russian.

It should be emphasized here that adults who do not speak Russian experience significant difficulties while studying RFL. In this context, shadowing appears to be a highly helpful method.

Combining words into phrases and word combinations into sentences using shadowing exercises the skills of distinguishing sounds. Thus, students learn not only to recognize phonemes in Russian but also to recognize correlating linguistic signals as patterns in the syntactic order of words in Russian. Thus, in addition to the mechanism of converting sound into meaning, learners detect syntactic categories in an utterance, thereby deriving behavioral and cognitive benefits from the use of shadowing (Foote & McDonough, 2017).

The beginning stage of learning a language always starts from the identification of phonemes, i.e., bottom-up processing. Later, however, processing becomes top-down in nature once it is supported by a certain understanding of phonetics (both auditory and articulatory rules) and self-monitoring that enhances auditory attention. Auditory and articulatory abilities belong to the basic language skills and condition spoken communication. For non-traditional users learning RFL, shadowing becomes the key to understanding the acoustic features of the speech signal in practice, i.e., sound perception and the identification and differentiation of tonal phonemes, which is challenging but extremely
important at the A1 and A2 proficiency levels (Ekayati, 2020). The use of shadowing initially promotes attentive listening and sound recognition before the imitation of speech, but later also fosters conscious repetition and production of speech.

Recognition of speech sounds and articulation appears to be the starting point of listening comprehension and speech production. Practical exercises that improve the phonological awareness of students are indispensable for effective learning of RFL. It is vital for students to be able to recognize syllable structure, distinctive consonants and pitch, and the contours and timing of pronunciation (Sumarsih, 2017).

Undoubtedly, shadowing methods cannot replace other methods of teaching foreign languages to adults. Training in listening must be a part of an eclectic approach, along with other tools that foster cognitive learning. It should be stressed that shadowing is also very demanding for instructors. They need to be familiar with phonetics, know how to adapt audio stimuli and exercises to the intended goals, and be able to evaluate individual people at each stage of training (Al-Azzemy & Al-Jamal, 2019). As for students, the use of shadowing requires not only their engagement and effort in processing sounds but their attention in class and preparation at home (Hamada, 2015). Thus, as a rather intensive teaching method, shadowing does not fit all categories of students equally.

Shadowing as a method of teaching listening can be modified for classroom practice depending on the curriculum, course objectives, students' proficiency level, etc. It is important to define partial objectives for a given stage of learning and to keep in mind that the technique is an outcome that promotes stimulation. Then a well-designed classroom procedure will be tailored to the needs of a particular group of learners.

In the realm of second language learning, where direct interactions with native speakers may be limited, shadowing emerges as an accessible and effective technique to bridge the gap between classroom instruction and real-world language application. This practice empowers learners to actively engage in refining their spoken skills, culminating in a comprehensive language proficiency. Given that contemporary students dedicate substantial time to navigating social networks (Ramazanova et al., 2022), it becomes crucial to redirect their focus towards recognizing the potential of these platforms in furnishing valuable shadowing resources and prospects. In this context, maintaining a multifaceted language learning approach remains of utmost importance.

Moreover, the use of shadowing techniques in the case of complete conversational phrases can be useful to the teacher as an indicator of the learner's level of comprehension, where it is expected that speech reproduction will add to the current level of language proficiency (Liu & Sammons, 2021). However, it is also important to remember that the level of complexity has to be maintained. Otherwise, a large cognitive distance between sound perception and decoding of information will make shadowing a cognitive load, rather than a result that contributes to stimulation (Al-Azzemy & Al-Jamal, 2019).

Instruction from the teacher during class time serves a variety of functions. In particular, they draw the student's attention to acoustic features, support individual work on articulation skills, or help focus on ways to approach verbal material and control their own top-down processing. Additionally, careful observation of students' performance is crucial, as it uncovers their difficulties with speech sound perception and processing.

Furthermore, repeated reproduction of the pronounced fragment becomes an exercise that, performed both individually and in unison, offers a way to overcome the mental block that usually prevents students from listening to their own voices. Thus, the use of shadowing induces the development of students’ own speaking activity.

The shadowing method is also appropriate as an independent learning method. By devoting attention to it once or twice during the classroom session, the teacher can guide students to use it independently. Since further selection of the material to be taught will be based on the individual interests of the students, it will also increase their motivation.

V. CONCLUSION

The current study presents shadowing as an efficient method that can be successfully applied in teaching RFL. Furthermore, this method appears to be the most relevant for teaching the Russian language to adults. Thus, shadowing can be highly useful for improving the phonological awareness of adult learners, thereby assisting them in perfecting not only their listening skills in Russian but also, as a consequence, their reproduction of the sounds and structures of the Russian language.

With regard to teaching the Russian language to Kyrgyz students, the use of shadowing in language classes in Russia is still limited. Nevertheless, recognition of its efficiency is growing.

REFERENCES


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Optimization of Independent Work in Foreign Language Learning: Experience With Using Moodle

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Abstract—One of today’s priority tasks of higher education is training specialists that can independently search for and assimilate knowledge. The paper examines independent work as a substantial factor in self-education and learning and cognitive activities in management students and covers the organization of students’ independent work in the study of foreign languages. The study demonstrates that independent work, which used to be carried out immediately during practical classes under the teacher’s supervision, in consultations, or in the library can now be organized in a new educational environment. The authors analyze the forms, means, and types of independent work and propose ways to improve the process of foreign language learning by optimizing the work of management students as part of self-study using the Moodle learning management system. It is established that the independent work of management students in studying a foreign language using Moodle contributes to the development of important skills. These include obtaining necessary information and evaluating and applying the available information to effectively solve management problems and communicate in a foreign language. The efficiency of students’ independent work is found to increase when it is organized as a cohesive course created based on a methodologically organized educational information environment. The assimilation of educational material by means of Moodle in the organization of the educational process majorly increases the efficiency of learning, simplifies the perception of learning materials, increases motivation for foreign language learning, and positively affects its outcomes.

Index Terms— independent work, students, grammatical competence, lexical competence

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I. INTRODUCTION

The need for continuous improvement of professional competencies in various specializations demands that specialists have well-developed skills in information search, as well as foreign language (FL) competence. The knowledge of an FL elevates the competitiveness of future managers in the labor market and provides for more efficient use of software and information resources, thereby increasing the chances for higher income. These objective preconditions testify to the need to revise the goals, content, and technologies of the system of teaching an FL to management students to reach European and world standards. Thus, it becomes urgent to creatively search for new strategic directions and ways to optimize the methods, techniques, and means of teaching FL and incorporate them into the university educational process.

Special attention should be paid to improving the organization of independent work as a form of educational activity. This type of work is focused on self-education, self-development, and innovative work and pursues the goal of teaching students to learn not only in an educational institution but throughout their lives. Effectively organized independent work provides better acquisition of the FL, mastery of different types of speech activity, and thereby better development of the FL competence of management students (Ybyraimzhanov et al., 2022). The key to quality independent training of students is the effective organization of the educational process of studying an FL. Now that self-education has become an integral attribute of professionalism, the importance of independent work is rising. In higher education, students’ self-study and independent work, which is organized by teachers and supervised by departments, are particularly emphasized. This is a compulsory type of learning activity that plays a significant role in the final outcomes of FL education.

II. LITERATURE REVIEW

The problem of organizing independent work in FL learning is covered in several studies (Diezmas et al., 2016; Semenchuk, 2013; Ufimtseva, 2020). The features of incorporating ICT into the educational process of FL learning have also been explored by several researchers (Alan & Amaç, 2021; Wagner & Ovezova, 2019; Yunus, 2007). However, there appears to be a need for more research into the methodological aspects and efficient forms and means of organization and conduct of independent work with the use of information technology among management students in higher education institutions.

The present study relies on an approach that regards students’ independent work as one of the most vital components in the educational process that presents a synergy of different types of individual and group learning activities that take place both in and outside the classroom, without the presence of a teacher or under the teacher’s guidance. Independent work is considered a form of organization and realization of learning and cognitive activity that is controlled either by the teacher or by the student themselves in accordance with the curriculum and students’ individual needs both in and out of class time and is aimed at mastering professional knowledge, abilities, and skills, as well as at self-improvement (Sergeeva et al., 2021; Ramazanova et al., 2022; Zhukov & Simonenko, 2004). Furthermore, Roshchupkina (2015) views independent learning at a university as an integral component of the educational process, a method of learning, a technique of educational and cognitive activity, and a complex targeted standardized learning activity with established types and forms of control.

In the current context, training involving the information environment and modern educational technologies of distance learning and e-learning is gaining increasing popularity in universities (Gallardo Echenique et al., 2017; Shishov et al., 2021). For this reason, as believed by Elisafenko et al. (2019), it is expedient to use relevant information, communications, material, and technical support in the organization of effective independent work of students. This support is provided through multimedia and computer classrooms with Internet access, multimedia teaching materials (films, videos, audio recordings, presentations), and adapted authentic teaching and methodological literature. Students’ ability to perform independent work can be optimized by organizing it as a coherent system of a pre-prepared educational and developing information environment using physical and virtual tools. The choice of such tools is conditioned by the purpose and objectives of FL learning in the higher education institution, as well as students’ initial proficiency level (Karpova et al., 2021; Kuznetsova, 2009).

The trends of increasing accessibility and flexibility of education, particularly the development of distance learning, are gaining strength every year. This approach to education assumed both in-person learning and online classes via platforms designed to support the educational process (Gundu & Ozcan, 2017; Solovyova et al., 2022).

In this context, the goal of the present study is to analyze the features of organizing independent work of management students in the study of FL and to cover the forms, methods, and types of independent work that will help achieve learning objectives.

To achieve the set research goal, we established the following objectives:

1. to disclose the ways and methodical approaches to organizing students’ independent work using an online platform;
2. to shed light on the process of development and implementation of an electronic educational and methodological complex on an online platform.
3. to experimentally test the efficiency of using an online platform in the independent work of management students as part of studying an FL.

III. METHODS

The Moodle learning management system (LMS) was chosen for the organization of students’ independent work as part of the study as the most efficient tool in the academic environment according to several specialists (Belozubov & Nikolaev, 2007; Croitoru & Dinu, 2016).

The choice of Moodle is fully intentional because its settings allow adapting each course not only to the specifics of the particular discipline but also to the requirements of the teacher and the needs of students, who are able to independently construct their learning trajectory using the platform’s features.

Objective grounds for using the Moodle functions in FL teaching involve the platform offering opportunities to obtain knowledge and skills via distance learning (Caminero et al., 2013), complete assignments remotely or offline (Oproiu, 2015), and choose a convenient time to work on educational materials (Sanchez & Hueros, 2010). Moodle is a system focused on the integration of in-person distance learning, as well as the use of individual elements of distance learning in students’ autonomous learning (Jin, 2012). The Moodle tools enable students to obtain new knowledge and skills by means of its diverse features and the possibility of distance education (Benta et al., 2014).

Moodle is a modular object-oriented dynamic educational environment that belongs to the category of LMS and presents a virtual learning environment (VLE), i.e., an educational platform that offers both teachers and students an extensive set of tools for computer-assisted learning, particularly distance learning (Wiphasith et al., 2016).

Among the Moodle advantages, we can note the possibility of installing educational resources (learning materials) and accessing and managing them, promotion of communication between participants in the educational process, which takes place in the form of Internet conferences, forums, or discussions, and exchange of messages that may contain, for example, tasks for students and comments on their completion (Al-Mubireek, 2019).

The useful Moodle features are described in Table 1.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>TABLE 1 Moodle FEATURES</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>For students</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>access to educational materials and testing tools</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>tools for group work (Wiki, forum, chat room, seminar, webinar)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>viewing the results of the distance course</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>viewing the results of tests</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>communication through personal messages, forum, and chat</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>uploading files with completed assignments</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>reminders about events in the course</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Note: compiled based on Gluchmanova (2016) and Suppasetseree and Dennis (2010)

The efficiency of independent learning of management students in FL learning using Moodle was tested via an experiment conducted with first-year students in the Management program. The experiment involved a total of 184 students with 88 belonging to the experimental group (EG) and 96 – to the control group (CG).

During the second semester of the 2021-2022 academic year, in addition to classroom lessons, EG students studied the FL independently using Moodle based on the electronic methodological complex "Distance foreign language course" (DFLC). In turn, the independent work of CG students in the study of the FL was organized without Moodle.

The experimental study was conducted in three stages.

The first stage of the experiment involved introductory control with tasks for testing the level of grammatical and lexical competence in the studied FL.'

In the second stage, students carried out their independent work: in the EG – based on the DFLC hosted on Moodle, and in the CG – without using Moodle.

In the third stage of the pedagogical experiment, a final control was conducted, and its results were compared with that of the introductory control.

Statistical data processing was carried out with Statistica 7.0 software. The reliability of indicators in the groups was evaluated via the non-parametric Pearson’s chi-squared test ($\chi^2$). Calculation of criterion values and confidence intervals was carried out with the significance level taken at $\alpha = 0.05$.

IV. RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

A comparative analysis of the levels of management students’ FL grammatical and lexical competence at different stages of the study is given in Table 2.
The conducted comparative analysis (Table 1) testifies to the efficiency of using the LMS in the course of independent work as part of FL learning. Data on the EG show a significant decrease in the share of students at the basic proficiency level A1 (from 43.6 to 22.8% of the total number of EG students), as well as a considerable rise in the number of students who reached B1 and B2 (from 25 to 50.8%). The CG showed no significant change in FL proficiency levels.

The value of Pearson’s $\chi^2$ test confirms the statistical significance of the efficiency of using Moodle as part of independent work on FL learning. The empirical values of $\chi^2$ (48.88) when comparing the results of EG students before and after the experiment fall in the zone of significance, significantly exceeding the critical value ($p < 0.001$). Therefore, it can be concluded that using Moodle in independent work in the study of an FL produced a significant positive effect on the level of FL grammatical and lexical competence in the EG. Furthermore, the critical values of $\chi^2$ (41.74) show a statistically significant difference in proficiency between the EG and CG. Finally, the obtained $\chi^2$ values (4.22) show a lack of statistically significant difference in the levels of FL grammatical and lexical competence before and after the experiment in the students assigned to the CG.

Thus, using Moodle in students’ independent work on the study of an FL proves to be influential and efficient.

Experimental testing of the efficiency and effectiveness of the developed DFLC in the process of management students’ independent work on studying an FL shows that EG students demonstrated higher levels of FL grammatical and lexical competence at the end of the experiment both compared to CG students and to their own results prior to the experiment.

Let us now examine the features of the organization of independent work in the EG in Moodle based on the developed DFLC.

The utilized DFLC contains such elements as a glossary, presentation of grammatical material (various forms of presentation), test assignments, and accompanying multimedia materials. A variety of exercises are provided to develop and improve reading, listening, speaking, and writing skills. The use of multimedia optimizes the visualization and illustrativeness of the training material. Such interactive elements as tests and tasks with a nested answer, multiple choice, identification of missing words, etc. are designed to stimulate students’ thinking and also function as a means of control and self-control.

Now let us dwell in more detail on the structural element of grammar material presentation, which is provided for the coverage of grammar topics. Naturally, theoretical material on any grammar topic is readily available to all users of search engines, and it is possible to do without distance learning technologies. However, Moodle allows presenting one piece of material on several different pages in different formats, for example, in the form of video explanations from YouTube; illustrative tables and pictures, where the desired topic is concisely-structured; short descriptions with detailed analysis of typical examples, exercises to practice the material learned and consolidate knowledge, where the answer to the question can be linked to the next page of the topic or content. The student can study the topic at discrete intervals and have the option to pick it up from where they left off.

For the sake of a better perception of the material, it is divided into text pages, one per screen, which does not require excessive flipping and horizontal scrolling. For easier perception of the text from the computer screen, the design of the material includes different fonts – slant, underline, and bold, as well as their location on the page. Examples, commentary, and notes are written in different colors, which increases the concentration of attention on the highlighted objects. However, all these elements need to be used reasonably and in moderation to make the perception of educational material easier and more efficient. In this way, the material will be better assimilated and consolidated, and motivation for learning will be preserved or even increased.

Thus, EG students studied theoretical materials on their own and were able to consolidate them or test themselves by completing practical exercises. If the answer was correct, the student was transferred to the next question, and if not, they had to return to the previous item. This approach allowed the students to work through the theoretical material at the proper level, and the teacher could keep track of the parts each student had completed and their progress.

Further on, let us consider more closely the Moodle elements whose application is oriented to the development of FL lexical competence. These elements include a glossary (while learning key concepts of professional terms and concepts, EG students could expand the glossary on their own throughout the DFLC and add examples of using professionalisms in specific contexts); chat (organizing online interaction between students and the teacher, as well as group activities during seminars and practical distance classes); online page (displaying learning materials, including presentations, video and audio materials, questions, and links).

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Proficiency level</th>
<th>Group</th>
<th>Pre-experiment</th>
<th>Post-experiment</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>EG</td>
<td>CG</td>
<td>EG</td>
</tr>
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<td>45.6%</td>
<td>22.8%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>A2</td>
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</tr>
<tr>
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<tr>
<td>B2</td>
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</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Table 2</th>
<th>COMPARATIVE ANALYSIS OF THE LEVELS OF FL GRAMMATICAL AND LEXICAL COMPETENCE IN MANAGEMENT STUDENTS</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Group</td>
<td>Proficiency level</td>
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<td>EG</td>
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<td>EG</td>
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<td>CG</td>
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<tr>
<td>EG</td>
<td>B2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>CG</td>
<td>B2</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Using the above-mentioned Moodle elements allowed students in the EG to form a terminological base in a specific area. For example, students were offered an assignment to analyze TV commercials in English and assess the effectiveness of the proposed advertising template. The procedure for evaluating an advertisement included viewing it and determining the means and techniques of its impact on the consciousness of consumers, including those contained in the wording. The commercials to be examined were selected according to the criterion of a voiceover by native English speakers. Thus, watching the commercial given in the assignment both improved students’ professional competence in the course and stimulated their lexical competence in the FL. To complete the homework, the student had to read the transcript of the commercial, which involved discovering the meaning of new words.

The results of our study are consistent with prior research findings. Sanchez and Hueros (2010) point out that using Moodle enables students to construct custom FL learning strategies and helps them not only gain knowledge, abilities, and skills but also to develop a certain structure of personal qualities. Yunus (2007) and Al-Mubireek (2019) confirm that the introduction of distance FL courses developed in Moodle and the presentation of knowledge as a dynamic multimodular structure formed with the involvement of all participants in the educational process facilitates the experience of independent acquisition and renewal of professional knowledge, personal involvement in this process, and responsibility for it.

Importantly, Moodle is developed according to the ADDIE model (Wagner & Ovezova, 2019), which is one of the most prominent models for the development of both in-person and e-learning curricula. The ADDIE model contains five stages of the development and implementation of a curriculum. The first stage is the analysis of the activity and identification of tasks to shape this activity and the analysis of the target audience, which involves the identification of the knowledge and skills that need to be acquired in accordance with the goals of training. The second stage is aimed at defining the sequence of teaching, choosing appropriate methods and means of teaching, and designing the curriculum. The third stage involves creating the content of the course, i.e., materials, exercises, tasks, and means of control and testing. The fourth stage is when a target group studies the created course, and in the fifth stage, the process and outcomes of learning are evaluated with consideration of feedback, after which the course is reviewed.

The necessity of utilizing Moodle as a data carrier is also determined by the fact that the volume of students’ independent work far exceeds the number of classroom hours (Merenkov et al., 2016). The curriculum implies that students work individually on the materials offered and provided in Moodle. Additionally, the course package includes recommendations for individual lessons, methodological work, practical (seminar) assignments, tests for intermediate and final control, as well as questions for self-checking and preparation for seminars. In addition, this information and communication educational platform provides an opportunity to organize continuous assessments of students’ knowledge and overall performance through testing and interactive assignments (Kuznetsova, 2009).

Distance learning in Moodle can be carried out both remotely and as an additional tool in the classroom, in particular, through tests or assignments that assume giving answers quickly (Elisafenko et al., 2019). In this respect, a considerable advantage of Moodle is the opportunity for feedback both to students and to the teacher. The platform allows asking questions directly or on forums, as well as giving or receiving consultations and providing training manuals online, in chats, or during planned video calls and meetings.

V. CONCLUSION

The study established that students’ independent work in FL learning helps them obtain such important skills in independent analysis of professional literature in the FL, acquisition of the necessary information, and effective assessment and application of initial data to optimally resolve professional problems and communicate in the FL. Moodle offers a variety of opportunities to organize the educational process, including teaching tools and a system for control and assessment of management students’ learning activities. The conducted research proves that the efficiency of students’ independent work increases when it is organized as a coherent system created based on a methodologically organized educational information environment. Moodle is mainly focused on the organization of interaction between the teacher and students. It can be stated that the presentation of the learning content by means of Moodle in the process of constructing the educational process significantly raises the effectiveness of learning, simplifies the perception of learning material, increases motivation for learning an FL, and has a positive impact on its effectiveness.

The conducted experiment comparing the levels of FL grammatical and lexical competence in management students demonstrates a positive dynamic in students who engaged in independent work in Moodle and a lack of significant positive change in those students whose independent work did not involve using Moodle.

The limitations of the study include the limited number and professional specialization of the sample of students. The fact that only management students participated in the experiment does not allow for assessing the efficiency of independent work in Moodle for other specialties, which can be considered a prospect for further research.

REFERENCES


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Uncovering Digital Competence in Language Instruction: A Study of Pre-Service English Teachers in Saudi Arabia

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Abstract—the role of technology as a catalyst for change and development has become irrefutable in various language learning settings. However, not all language teachers are mindful about using technology in their language teaching practices, owing to their lack of adequate digital competencies. The purpose of this research is to promote digital competencies and related components among the study participants. This investigation applies the Framework of Competency Profile for digital teachers. The results were obtained by quantitative analysis, using data collected from a sample of 151 language learners, all enrolled in BA English language programmes across 8 universities in Saudi Arabia. These learners are considered pre-service English language teachers, as they are near graduation. The findings demonstrated participants’ highest and lowest digital competences, leading the researcher to identify practical implications, particularly regarding how to conduct training to compensate for low competencies. The findings also revealed that there is no correlation between levels of study and digital competencies. There was also no influence of gender on digital competencies. From these findings, the researcher concluded that the identification of competencies is essential for instructors, educators, administrators, and policymakers, in order to design more effective and appropriate training programmes for teachers in each context. Finally, the findings provided realistic analysis of the components and sub-components related to digital competencies among the target audience.

Index Terms—Saudi teachers of English, CALL, computer-enhanced language instruction, teachers’ digital competences

I. INTRODUCTION

Technology is constantly altering many procedures for professionals in various fields, including those in language teaching. The development of social media and communication tools has transformed 21st century education and the skills necessary for teaching. Digital competencies have moved from recommendations to requirements as they become increasingly normalised (Hepp et al., 2015; Ismailova et al., 2018) in the daily life of people around the globe. However, it is argued that this technological transition is not fully realised in the field of education, including language learning and language teacher training (Biletska et al., 2021). Accordingly, several calls have been made to explore the influences of digital competences more deeply among future (pre-service) foreign language teachers, considering any differences in gender and level of study (Fraile et al. 2018). It is claimed that teachers and individuals in teaching professions may face more challenges in handling some digital skills than professionals in other fields, i.e., weaknesses in problem-solving skills (Hämäläinen et al., 2019).

Several researchers have shown the impact of digital competencies among future language teachers, but their studies were considered inadequate and invalid for generalisation (Lázaro-Cantabrana et al., 2019; Alarcón et al., 2020). Digital competence refers to the ability to create sound practices, using digital tools appropriately in different settings (Saienko & Lavrysh, 2020). Krumsvik et al. (2016) found that there is a relationship between the digital competences of language teachers and their demographics. Çebi and Reisoğlu (2020) also concluded that training teachers supported their development in different areas, taking into consideration differences in gender and perceived levels of digital competence. Significant progress has emerged in education because of the Fourth Industrial Revolution, which has supported emerging technologies, artificial intelligence and the Internet of Things. Ally (2019) affirms that future teaching, including language learning, will be autonomous and adaptive to meet the demands of every individual learner.

The present research has adopted a quantitative methodology, using a comprehensive questionnaire based on Ally’s (2019) competency profile for digital teachers. This research also aims to draw the attention of future teachers to the significance of technology in language teaching, the necessary skills for the 21st century and the competencies required by digital teachers to function effectively. The current research offers support for professionals to be better users of digital resources in their language learning classes, integrating new tools in different learning settings, as well as forming connections between those tools and conventional teaching methodologies. In sum, this research seeks to explore the level of digital competences among pre-service language teachers currently, in terms of their skills and readiness. This study ascertains which digital skills are most desirable to develop for better implementations and practices in online and hybrid language teaching. The research questions discussed in the current research are as follows:
RQ1: What are the highest digital competencies currently existing among pre-service English language teachers (with excellent capabilities)?

RQ2: What are the lowest digital competencies currently existing among pre-service English language teachers (with weak capabilities)?

RQ3: Is there any relationship between the level of study (i.e., beginner/intermediate/advanced levels) and the willingness to possess more digital competencies among pre-service English language teachers?

RQ4: Is there a difference between male and female pre-service English language teachers, in terms of possessing more digital competences?

II. LITERATURE REVIEW

A. Language Competence and Digital Competence

Language competence refers to the instinctive knowledge of grammar and vocabulary that enables individuals to use, understand and produce language. Language competence is a multidimensional system comprising specific semantic, syntactic, morphologic and pragmatic knowledge relating to the target language (Saxton, 2010). According to Troesch et al. (2016), language competence enables individuals to communicate with others, interpret their behaviours and messages, achieve their needs and establish friendly ties with peers. Therefore, such competence is seen one of the core capabilities that has shown a profound impact on the acquisition of second language learning (Abdulrahman & Abu-Ayyash, 2019). Language competence is assessed by language inventories, language tests and measuring the mean length of utterances. As part of communication and understanding language, McLaughlin (2006) distinguished between senders, who are responsible for encoding language, and receivers, who comprehend language. Similarly, Barre et al. (2011) differentiated receptive and expressive skills, both of which are needed for language competence. Receptive skills include understanding a message from one another, while expressive skills involve a message to another person where feelings, likes, dislikes etc. are expressed.

In addition, ‘language competence’ is often used interchangeably with ‘linguistic competence’, a term coined by Chomsky since the 1960s. He distinguished between competence, what people know about language and performance, how they use their knowledge of language in real contexts. Chomsky’s concept of linguistic competence was later extended by Hymes (1976) who added the positive role of communication in language learning. Accordingly, communicative competence is a skill that enables users to communicate based on changing situational and normative conditions of psychological, social and linguistic nature. Matthews (2006) explained that Chomsky considered speakers of a given language as ‘competent’ if they had knowledge of that language’s grammar, with the possibility that they could also pursue language acquisition. Reflecting changes in the field of language acquisition, the Common European Framework of Reference for Languages (CEFR) defined linguistic competence as also including communicative, sociolinguistic and pragmatic competences. Gracia et al. (2022) argued that linguistic competence is determined via active participation at different communication situations using expressive linguistic and non-linguistic resources and creating coherent messages with different communicative intentions either for oral or written communication.

The second key aspect of this research is digital competence, which has been diversely defined and described for different purposes. One common definition is ‘the confident, critical and responsible use of the technologies from the society of information for work, entertainment and education’ (Council of the European Union, 2018, p. 9). Ilomäki et al. (2016, p. 655) defined digital competence as ‘an evolving concept related to the development of digital technology and the political aims and expectations of citizenship in a knowledge society’. It is a multidimensional concept that combines several areas, including media and communication, technology and literacy and information science. In agreement withInstefjord and Munthe (2016), digital competence consists of three types of knowledge: technology proficiency, pedagogical, compatibility and social awareness.

‘Digital competence’ usually includes communication technology and digital literacy. However, the usage of ‘literacy’ and ‘competence’ may differ according to different geographic locations. For instance, digital competence is preferred in continental Europe, while ‘digital literacy’ is more common in the UK (Spante et al., 2018). For many researchers, ‘digital competence’ includes ethical and safety issues, as well as their social dimensions (Foulger et al., 2017). In view of this lack of consensus on whether the terms ‘literacy’ and ‘competence’ are similar or dissimilar, a possible distinction was suggested by Ilomäki et al. (2016). They claimed that ‘competence’ involves skills required for understanding today’s society, while ‘literacy’ deals more with the fulfillment of needs relevant to computer, information and media knowledge. The United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organisation (UNESCO 2004, p. 13) defines literacy as follows:

- the ability to identify, understand, interpret, create, communicate and compute, using printed and written materials associated with varying contexts. Literacy involves a continuum of learning in enabling individuals to achieve their goals, to develop their knowledge and potential and to participate fully in their community and wider society.

In addition, digital competence has been identified by the European Commission as one of the eight core areas essential for life skills, which are seen as precursors for personal fulfilment and development, active citizenship, social inclusion and employment in a knowledge society (Napal Fraile et al., 2018). Adagas and Kaygin (2016) recommend
additional qualities for university graduates, including teachers, to obtain better employment opportunities: communication in the mother tongue and in foreign languages, sufficient knowledge of technology and technological tools, learning to learn, creating a sense of initiative and entrepreneurship and expressing cultural awareness. In addition, McGarr et al. (2021) argued that digital competence should meet individuals’ competences in collaboration, communication and social and cultural knowledge (including citizenship), along with users’ capacities for creativity, critical thinking, productivity and problem solving.

B. Digital Competence and Future Language Teachers

As a result of digitalisation and technological development, digital competence has become a prerequisite of the present; individuals must be capable of using it. The shift towards digitalisation increasingly affects the regular routine of individuals; for language teachers, this includes their continuous professional development and academic practices (Engeness, 2021). Ayranci and Başkan (2021) redefined teaching competences to include knowledge and skills related to digital competence. In fact, digital competence has become an indicator for quality education in the prosperous societies and economies of the 21st century (Maderick et al., 2016). Furthermore, digital competence has already been established as part of school textbooks, assessment tests and classroom practices.

Satisfactory awareness and knowledge of digital competence includes the recognition of positive and negative roles technologies play in learning, for both students and teachers; such tools can add power and innovation. Ferrari (2013) stressed that digital competence is a key principle to personal development in our digital era and an indicator for the possibility of integrating digital technologies into the educational process. Ferrari (2012, p. 30) defined digital competence as follows:

- the set of knowledge, skills, attitudes, abilities, strategies and awareness that are required when using information and communication technology (ICT) and digital media to perform tasks; solve problems; communicate; manage information; collaborate; create and share content; and build knowledge effectively, efficiently, appropriately, critically, creatively, autonomously, flexibly, ethically, reflectively for work, leisure, participation, learning, socialising, consuming and empowerment.

In the past decade, there has been an increase in the number of frameworks for teachers’ digital competence, showing how technology can be used as a catalyst for learning, such as the European Commission’s DigComp 2.0. These frameworks provide educators guidelines and practical steps for how digital technologies can be executed to enhance education (Johannesen et al., 2014). DigComp serves as a reference framework for digital competence, featuring a list of sub-competences, with multiple levels of achievements (Ferrari, 2013). Redecker (2017) categorises the knowledge of digital competence into six major areas: 1) professional engagement, 2) digital resources, 3) teaching and learning, 4) assessment, 5) empowering learners and 6) facilitating the digital competence of learners. Furthermore, part of understanding digital competence is familiarity with its associated standards. UNESCO released the ICT competence standards, known as the Literacy Global Framework, for teachers to develop their digital awareness and understanding globally (Law et al., 2018). ICT underpins numerous skills, mostly related to using computers and portable devices to ‘retrieve, assess, store, produce, present and exchange information, and to communicate and participate in collaborative networks via the Internet’ (European Parliament and the Council of the European Union 2006). The main dimensions of UNESCO’s ICT competence framework comprised technology literacy, knowledge deepening and knowledge creation, with six secondary aspects of teachers work: understanding ICT in education curriculum assessment, pedagogy, ICT, organisation, administration and teacher professional learning (Yang et al., 2021).

As far as future language teachers are concerned, they are expected to be tech-savvy, using various forms of technology in everyday life and being able to implement such tools in the process of language teaching (Guillén-Gámez et al., 2020). The field of teaching and learning in the present time is moving with unprecedented speed to adopt the latest inventions and emerging technologies (Castaño-Muñoz et al., 2018). This development has led to establish what is known as ‘knowledge society’ for the promotion of economic growth including its associated practices: to identify, produce, process and transform information for the human development and social and economic progress (Zhao et al., 2021). Indeed, digital competence for language teachers is crucial to this growth; it helps them to be more willing to accept, integrate and adapt new technologies. Those skills, and recommended practices, can be modelled and delivered for language learners in classes and out-classes as those tools are expected to positively increase performance and information literacy among individuals (Hatlevik & Hatlevik, 2018), which ultimately everyone is willing to contribute to the economic social growth. Meirovitz et al. (2022) emphasise that future teachers, including English language teachers, need to be autonomously using various digital tools with self-confidence to attain desirable pedagogical outcomes and to become more able to suitably spread the culture of utilising such tools more effectively in classes.

C. Professional Development for Digitally Competent Language Teachers

The term professional development has been variously defined since the 1990s. Parker (1990) defined professional development as those processes that deal with the improvement of job-related knowledge, skills or attitudes of teachers, empowering them to design instructional programmes and to improve students’ learning outcomes. Earley and Bubb (2004) considered professional development a set of activities to be skilfully planned and conducted to promote the expertise and knowledge of teachers. Professional development focuses on constructing capabilities among educators. It also concentrates on enriching individuals and teams and establishing schools as commodities of professional learning.
(Osmond-Johnson et al., 2019). Chu et al. (2017) asserted that the professional development of teachers is essential to enhance teachers’ knowledge and skills, and should be one of the top priorities of the 21st century. However, this practice is still surrounded by several challenges, such as establishing innovative practices in teachers’ programmes, altering conventional institutional practices and promoting educators’ resilience and commitment to constant learning (Caena & Redecker, 2019).

As stated earlier, unprecedented technological advancement has taken place in the last decade of the 21st century. This instant growth has resulted in an enormous need for language teachers to consider such latest technologies and how they can be integrated in the teaching profession (Maiier & Koval, 2021). Language teachers’ professionalism refers to owning and taking control of ample amounts of knowledge, information skills, understanding of students, curriculum, legislation and various pedagogical practices and teaching activities (Zakharov et al., 2022). Professional development of teachers also includes giving attention to the encouragement of learners to use various learning resources on a frequent basis and to make use of the available tools throughout the process of learning. Professional development, in a digital context, involves the ability to select, analyse and assess digital resources for foreign language teaching; to maintain the privacy of personal information; to create, store and share digital information safely; to select and use authentic information from the internet; and to maintain the privacy of personal information (Maiier & Koval, 2021).

Professional development includes pre-service and in-service language teachers. In addition, pre-service (future) teachers should understand that continuous use of available tools and social media do not mean they are digitally competent (Li & Ramieri, 2010). They have further opportunities to enhance their digital practices. According to Elstad and Christophersen (2017), many educators are not adequately prepared to use technology for instruction and language teaching practices. They argue that individuals may seem technology-capable, yet they have a lack of in-depth understanding of technology, the ability to use specific tools for specific purposes and the skills that are needed for each technology (Biggins et al., 2017). Teachers are supposed to be professionals able to design digital environments (Falloon, 2020). They must be able to create various online modules according to the desires of the students and the modules’ requirements, including the use of Massive Online Open Courses (MOOCs) and LMS (Engeness, 2021). These demands on future teachers, necessitate sufficient digital education, well-improved digital identity and professional lifelong learning (Instefjord & Munthe, 2016).

Adequate training can provide future teachers with robust understanding and deep knowledge concerning information and data literacy, communication and collaboration, digital content creation, safety and possible problem solving in this context (Çebi & Reisoglu, 2020). Teachers undertaking training need be positioned at the centre of professional development for creating collaborative activities and targeting individuals’ needs (Karliberg & Bezzina, 2020). These practices are responsible for making high-quality, cutting-edge teachers and effective educational systems. McGarr and McDonagh (2021) suggested that the existence of a sound level of digital competence among pre-service teachers should be seen as a condition for entering teacher education programmes. Schools and higher education institutes are responsible for the provision of sufficient IT-related infrastructure, digital resources and good connection to the Internet, as they play a key role in creating a successful environment for language teachers’ digital competence (Hökki & Eteläpelto, 2014; Gaskell, 2018). Wu et al. (2022) have drawn attention to the outcomes of such training programmes, which seek to enhance teachers’ perceived usefulness of ICT and relevant digital tools, information processing skills and information ethics and possible risks. There are suggested techniques to promote this practice, encouraging teachers to discuss cases and communicate with experts in educational technology (Chen et al., 2019). It is also recommended that teachers should join online and in-person learning communities to increase their digital skills (Schaik et al., 2019).

### III. METHODOLOGY

**Context, participants, and data collection**

This research was conducted in the context of Saudi Arabia over a period of one academic year (two academic terms). Digital learning in Saudi universities has become a vital component in the Kingdom’s Vision 2030 plan. There are also clear signs of moving towards adapting more technologies in various educational stages, including universities, enabling students to learn with these tools in a more professional way. Moreover, training teachers on the technological skills associated with teaching represents an important goal to support a knowledge-based economy and to boost professional development for teachers in Saudi Arabia. In general, digital transformation in Saudi has been accelerated, including the establishment of new programmes for language teachers, enhancing their digital skills, relevant learning tools, curriculum materials and enrichment resources.

One hundred fifty-one male and female future language teachers agreed to participate in this study by completing the research questionnaire, which was built on the Framework of Competencies Profile of Future Digital Teachers (Ally, 2019). A Likert scale was designed, ranging from very weak to excellent. All participants were university students studying English as a foreign language at advanced levels (i.e., academic levels five, six, seven and eight) at colleges of Arts, Education, and Language and Translation. Students at academic level eight (last term at the college) normally do practicums or internship in schools. They typically graduate with linguistic competencies ranging between independent user and proficient user, according to CEFR, which is equal to 5.5–6.0 in IELTS scores. The participants came from various universities located in five different places in Saudi Arabia, representing different cultural norms (i.e., cities and regions).
districts). This cultural diversity reflects variation in digital competencies and using technology in general. Participants were considered future (and pre-service) language teachers because they were set to graduate soon in the field of English language teaching. The researcher tried his best to reach the best students (future language teachers) who could fully understand every single item, its meaning, and its implications.

This research adopted the quantitative research methodology, with data collected mainly through the Framework of Competences Profile of Future Digital Teachers, which was developed by Ally (2019). The data was analysed by SPSS using various statistical analyses, including descriptive analyses and correlation to explore the highest and lowest digital competences among the participants, as well as to figure out the relationships and differences concerning gender and level of study. This framework was suggested based on real experiences, but it has not been piloted on teachers in these local, national and international settings. The framework consists of 92 sentence items to make it more understandable to the learners by adding the pronoun ‘I’, as well as including more verbs to make certain items more appealing to the participants. Some lexical items were replaced by others such as E3. Some items in this framework were deleted for reasons of practicality; either they were considered too general or were difficult for participants to understand or were repetitive. For example, the following items were deleted for being too general: teach students life skills; keep up with emerging learning technologies to use in education; and ability to independently learn how to use new technology and software. Items that were deleted for redundancy or potential confusion included the following: keep current in the content area to facilitate learning; adapt to emerging technologies; and ability to change strategies on the fly when supporting the learner to meet the learner needs. Items were also modified to be more understandable to the learners by adding the pronoun ‘I’, as well as including more verbs to make certain items more appealing to the participants. Some lexical items were replaced by others such as E3. Design good digital citizenship model; I4. I can enable learners to be a lifelong learner; and I8. I can work with learners’ individual differences.

IV. RESULTS

This research investigated four main issues: the highest digital competencies already available among future English language teachers; the lowest digital competences that occurred among participants; the relationship between the level of study and the willingness to possess more digital competences among participants; and the differences (if any) between participants’ genders and their possession of more digital competences. Based on the descriptive analysis, the findings have shown that the participants achieved the three highest scores for the following competencies: motivating students to learn (44.4%); demonstrating flexibility and adaptability during the constant changes of the modern age (43.0%); and encouraging creativity among learners (41.1%), as shown in Tables 1, 2 and 3.

<p>| TABLE 1 |
|-----------------|---|---|---|</p>
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<td>151</td>
<td>100.0</td>
<td>100.0</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<p>| TABLE 2 |
|-----------------|---|---|---|</p>
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>I AM FLEXIBLE AND ADAPTABLE IN THE MODERN DIGITAL AGE</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>Percent</th>
<th>Valid percent</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>2.0</td>
<td>2.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>0.7</td>
<td>0.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>35</td>
<td>23.2</td>
<td>23.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4</td>
<td>47</td>
<td>31.1</td>
<td>31.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5</td>
<td>65</td>
<td>43.0</td>
<td>43.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>151</td>
<td>100.0</td>
<td>100.0</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
On the other hand, the findings have also shown that participants achieved the three lowest scores for the following competencies: modifying learning resources/materials to make them more aligned with learning outcomes (19.9%); designing lessons according to the digital citizenship model when using social media to communicate with learners and peers (21.2%); and developing learning materials to meet learners’ specific needs (21.9%), as shown in Tables 4, 5 and 6.

As far as the relationship between various levels of study and the willingness to earn more digital competencies, the findings have shown that there is a positive but weak relationship (correlation) between levels of study of participants and their willingness to gain more digital competencies, as shown in Table 7. This correlation is not at all significant since 0.102 is nearer to 0 than it is to 1. This means that there is no significant relationship between the willingness to increase digital competencies and the various academic levels of study of participants (levels 5, 6, 7 and 8).

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Table 3: I Can Encourage Creativity</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Frequency</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>-----------</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
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<tr>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4</td>
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<tr>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Valid</td>
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</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Table 4: I Can Modify the Learning Resources to Align with the Learning Outcomes</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Frequency</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>-----------</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
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<tr>
<td>2</td>
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<tr>
<td>3</td>
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<tr>
<td>4</td>
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<tr>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Valid</td>
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</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Table 5: I Can Design for Digital Citizenship Model When Using Media to Communicate with Learners and Peers</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Frequency</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>-----------</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
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<tr>
<td>2</td>
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<td>5</td>
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<tr>
<td>Valid</td>
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<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Table 6: I Can Develop Learning Materials to Meet Specific Learners’ Needs</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Frequency</td>
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<tr>
<td>-----------</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
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<tr>
<td>2</td>
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<tr>
<td>3</td>
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<tr>
<td>4</td>
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<tr>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Valid</td>
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</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Table 7: Correlation Between Levels of Study and Gaining More Digital Competences</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Levels of study</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>------------------</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Level/ year of study</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sig. (2-tailed)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>N</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Pearson’s correlation</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sig. (2-tailed)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>N</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Finally, this research explored the differences between male and female participants, in terms of their digital competencies. The findings showed that the mean scores in female and male groups were quite similar (3.87 and 3.78), as shown in Table 8. The standard deviations for both mean scores were between 0.856 and 0.920, which were considered low variance, as they are lesser than 1. This means that these scores fit within a standard normal distribution.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Gender</th>
<th>N</th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>Std. deviation</th>
<th>Std. error mean</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Females</td>
<td>85</td>
<td>3.8706</td>
<td>0.85619</td>
<td>0.09287</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Males</td>
<td>66</td>
<td>3.7879</td>
<td>0.92012</td>
<td>0.11326</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Considering the above findings, the statistical analysis of the independent samples test (t-test of equality) showed a significance value of 0.436 (2-tailed), as shown in Table 9. As this value is above the required cut-off of 0.05 (level of significance), this indicates that there is no statistically significant difference in the mean scores in relation to the differences between females and males, in terms of possessing more digital competences. In other words, there is no statistically significant relationship between gender differences and increased digital competencies.

### Table 8: Group Statistics

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Females</th>
<th>Males</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>possessing more digital competences</td>
<td>85</td>
<td>66</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mean</td>
<td>3.8706</td>
<td>3.7879</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Std. deviation</td>
<td>0.85619</td>
<td>0.92012</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Std. error mean</td>
<td>0.09287</td>
<td>0.11326</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

### Table 9: Independent Samples Test

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Levene’s test for equality of variances</th>
<th>r-test for equality of means</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>F</td>
<td>Sig.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>possessing more digital</td>
<td>0.609</td>
<td>0.436</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>competences</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>possessed</td>
<td>0.565</td>
<td>0.436</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Equal variances assumed</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

### V. Discussion and Conclusion

The findings have chiefly focused on assessing the components and sub-components associated with digital competencies among participants, specifically the highest and lowest abilities, which are in scarcity. Using technology adequately has become a prerequisite for assessing future language teachers’ competencies. The attained results of the current research confirm that 21st century competencies need to be gradually increased, including digital competences and their sub-competencies (i.e., solving problems, creating content, engaging in communication, ensuring safety). This is consistent with Foulger et al. (2017), who claim that individuals’ competence in language teaching necessitates ethical, safety-related and social considerations. In addition, Instefjord and Munthe (2016) acknowledged that teaching capability in the current age requires individuals’ knowledge of how to use technology to improve their personal interaction and pedagogical knowledge. This research has ensured that reaching the maximum benefits of integrating technology into language teaching is a gradual process that requires continuous professional development and training considering the digital domains. In line with this argument, Skantz-Åberg et al. (2022) determined that teachers’ professional digital competence development is a complex process, including socio-historical and socio-technical changes over time. Deliberate training should also be designed to raise teachers’ professional digital competence to become more aware of formal and informal uses of digital tools in various learning environments (Chu et al., 2017; Caena & Redecker, 2019). Basilotta-Gómez-Pablos et al. (2022) revealed that understanding the training needs of teachers in the digital era takes places by determining their needs as well as specifying aspects of practical and experiential training.

The findings have shown that the participants had high competencies, based on their assessment, regarding essential aspects of the practice of technology-enhanced language teaching: the promotion of motivation, flexibility and fostering creativity among learners. Those competences would ensure better quality language learning for everyone, and particularly those who have issues with infrastructure (Gaskell, 2018). On the other hand, the findings also indicated limited competences in the following: aligning learning resources with learning purposes; nurturing digital citizenship (i.e., using technology to professionally engage and participate in society regularly and effectively); and meeting specific learners’ needs. This study argues that these aspects are crucial and must be considered by administrators and teaching faculty at higher education institutions. Falloon (2020) indicated that inadequacy in these competences, or even some of them, would result in negative consequences, in terms of building appropriate online networks and constructive virtual environments. The findings have shown that gaining better digital competencies cannot be measured by the seniority levels of the participants or gender differences. The determining factor here is to acquire more related skills, regardless of age or gender. Individual differences also play a key role because digital competence is seen as a complex
system of multiple sub-skills, including the ability to search, navigate, classify, integrate, evaluate, communicate, cooperate and create/design accurate content (Erdstad, 2015).

The present study has reached key conclusions, claiming that more investment should be made into the new generation of language teachers, including student-teachers, to boost their digital expertise by providing deliberate training. Such training should be planned in the curriculum to support digital integration in education and empower teachers’ future work (Nguyen & Habók, 2022). It is crucial to replace the traditional culture of learning with a community of inquiry. Digital innovations have given learners more opportunities to practice new ways of learning, including the establishment of a community of inquiry, as suggested by Johannesen et al. (2014). In agreement with McGarr et al. (2021), when learners become aware of related skills to digital competences, they become more able to create a professional community of inquiry that is characterised by respect, collaboration, inquiry and exploration. This research has also concluded that the digital proficiency of teachers will have a direct impact on future learners, in terms of using more educational technologies for useful purposes. However, this study cannot be generalised to various educational contexts with different learning objectives. Future researchers should focus more on future language teachers from different educational settings and geographical backgrounds. Future researchers may also investigate the actual skills of using technology among future language teachers, as the data collected for the present study required participants to self-assess their skills. Future research may explore the discrepancy or alikeness between students’ self-rated skills and their actual skills.

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The Effects of the Application of Graphic Organizers on EFL Students’ Ability to Write Opinion Essays and Self-Efficacy

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Henry Praherdiono
Department of Educational Technology, Universitas Negeri Malang, East Java, Indonesia

Abstract—This study examines the effectiveness of ready-to-use researcher-developed graphic organizers to boost students' abilities in writing opinion essays. The study was carried out in the COVID-19 pandemic situation, with the implementation of the teaching and learning process as part of a learning management system. Thirty-one students living in several regions of Indonesia were involved in the study. A Pre-Experimental One Group Pretest Posttest Design was applied in this study, and then descriptive statistics and N-gain scores as well as one way Anova were used to analyze the data. In the pretest and posttest, respondents wrote opinion essays. Furthermore, they filled out a questionnaire on writing self-efficacy. The results indicate a significant improvement in the means of the students as shown in the comparison of the pretest and posttest scores. In addition, the result shows that there is no effect of the application of graphic organizers on the students' self-efficacy.

Index Terms—EFL students, graphic organizer, opinion essay, writing ability

I. INTRODUCTION

Writing is a real challenge that must be faced by students as it is an extremely important element in both the academic world and the professional world of work (Squire & Clark, 2020; Philippakos et al., 2018). By writing, people can convince readers by conveying their ideas or opinions that are supported by relevant facts or events presented logically (Setyowati, 2016). For teachers, teaching the content and knowledge of language skills is highly essential in teaching a second or foreign language (Anderson et al., 2018). This includes writing, which is a very challenging language skill to teach in foreign language classes since it requires attention to the macro and micro parts of writing as well as the structure (Oshima & Hogue, 2007; Regan et al., 2018). An essay in which the writer expresses opinions critically and logically while supporting them with relevant information from reliable sources is known as an opinion essay (Squire & Clark, 2020). In countries where English is taught as a foreign language (EFL), opinion essay writing is usually taught in English classes at the university level (Baghbadorani & Roohani, 2014; Setyowati, 2016). While spoken expression of opinion is fairly simple, writing well-organized opinions can be incredibly difficult for most people.

To improve students’ skills to write good quality essays, appropriate learning strategies or tools are needed. One of the ways in teaching EFL writing is to use graphic organizers (GO) which can be understood as visual learning aids that display structured logical relationships (Ayverdi et al., 2014; Khalaji, 2016) such as concepts, facts, ideas, single words or phrases, and new information with existing knowledge (Baxendell, 2003; Delrose, 2011; Shaw et al., 2012). The application of structured graphics in writing courses or lessons can improve students’ ability to compose words, sentences, paragraphs, and essays (Ahmed, 2018; Boykin et al., 2019; Mochizuki et al., 2019; Regan et al., 2018; Tayib, 2015). Several prior studies have examined the use of GO in various forms, such as concept maps, mind maps, clustering, fish bones, Venn diagrams, and many others, for writing narrative, descriptive, persuasive, expository, and argumentative texts at the elementary school to university levels (Ahmed, 2018; Al-Zyoud et al., 2017; Baghbadorani &

* Corresponding author, Email: livianni03@gmail.com
Roohani, 2014; Boykin et al., 2019; Cheng & Gwo, 2019; Eltahir et al., 2019; Evmenova et al., 2020; Fadhil & Yamat, 2020; Fan & Chen, 2021; Juniarti et al., 2017; Lee & Tan, 2010; Mochizuki et al., 2019; Ningrum et al., 2016; Regan et al., 2018; Takacs et al., 2014; Wei et al., 2019; Younis, 2019). However, studies on students’ skills in writing opinion essays and the graphic tools are still very limited, and the subjects of the existing studies in this topic were elementary school students (Squire & Clark, 2020; Philippakos et al., 2018; Philippakos & MacArthur, 2020).

Squire and Clark (2020) investigated the application of GOs in the form of Idea Coral and Opinion Essay Organizer where students expressed their ideas or opinions in Idea Coral and transferred these ideas or opinions using words, phrases, or sentences in the Opinion Essay Organizer before writing an opinion essay. Meanwhile, the layered graphics used in studies by Philippakos et al. (2018) and Philippakos and MacArthur (2020) are Collaborative Reasoning and Strategy Instruction. The present study attempted to develop a graphic organizer (GO) in the form of a five-step sequence chart to improve students’ ability to write opinion essays. The analysis investigated whether the developed GO improves students’ opinion essay writing skills and influences their self-efficacy in writing opinion essays. This study aims to test and describe the effect of a researcher-developed GO on student opinion essay writing and student self-efficacy. Thus, the research questions are:

1. Do EFL students’ skills in writing opinion essays improve after being taught using GO?
2. Does the application of GO affect EFL students’ writing self-efficacy?

II. LITERATURE REVIEW

A. Graphic Organizer

A graphic organizer is a visual display and graphs which connect ideas or concepts structurally (Ayverdi et al., 2014; Khalaji, 2016). The root of GOs is Advance Organizer, an instructional tool proposed by Ausubel (1968) for outlining students’ expository text learning. The purpose of this instructional technique is to give a bridge to bring together students’ new schemes and new information (Robinson, 1997; Susilowati et al., 2019). The layout of this tool is presented graphically, thus being referred to as a graphic advanced organizer or graphic organizer by some researchers (Ayverdi et al., 2014). Irwin-DeVitis et al. (1999) explained that these graphic layers serve as visual literacy frames that provide information structurally by classifying certain characteristics of a concept or topic into configurations using labels. Other names for this learning tool include concept map (Read, 2008), mind map (Bahadori & Gorjian, 2016), semantic map (Johnson et al., 1986), argumentation graphic organizer (Wei et al., 2019), Venn diagram, KWL chart, fishbone, herringbone, Y diagram, Storyboard Notes, Six Frames, SQ4R, flow chart, Science Fair Organizer, Math Factors, Pie Organizer, Story Map, Story Pyramid, and Persuasive Writing (McKnight, 2013). Even though a variety of graphical tools go by many names and combinations, most of them are of four primary types, namely conceptual, hierarchical, cyclical, and sequential (Irwin-DeVitis et al., 1999), as shown in Figure 1.

![Figure 1. Types of Graphic Organizers](graphic_organizers.png)

In this study, a layered visual graph was developed based on the structure of opinion essay proposed by Oshima and Hogue (2007). In writing opinion essays, students are required to formally express their opinions, in accordance with the organization of the essay which consists of three parts, namely: introduction, body, and conclusion. The introductory paragraph of an essay contains several general statements and a thesis statement in the form of the author’s opinion regarding the discussed problem or topic. The body paragraph(s) covers 2-3 reasons for the thesis statement and a detailed explanation of these reasons. Meanwhile, the last paragraph, which is the conclusion, restates the thesis.
statement in other words (Oshima & Hogue, 2007). The structure of opinion essay according to Oshima and Hague (2007) is presented in Figure 2.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Title......</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Thesis Statement</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Reason A</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Supporting Details</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Reason B</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Supporting Details</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Reason C</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Supporting Details</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Conclusion</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Figure 2. Generic Structure of Opinion Essay

The structure of opinion essay is similar to that of graphic organizers. Therefore, a new model of GO for an opinion essay was created in this study in sequential layer (See Figure 3). In the first step (Rectangle 1), students are directed to write an introductory paragraph which provides an overview of the problem to be discussed, and then followed by a thesis statement which states the author's position. Meanwhile, in the next step (Rectangles 2-4), body paragraphs are compiled, each consisting of a topic sentence which conveys the supporting reason, accompanied by a detailed explanation in the form of examples/data/sources/events relevant to the discussed problem. Transition words are used to connect one paragraph to another to help readers understand the essay easily. The supporting details lead readers to the last rectangle, which is the conclusion. There are several ways to conclude. The arrow that connects the first and the last rectangles in this graph means that the last paragraph restates the thesis statement conveyed in the first paragraph in other words, whereas the small arrows from top to bottom means that the last paragraph summarizes the reasons in the previous paragraphs using different words, ultimately leading to the expression of solutions or predictions.

Several theories have proven that graphic organizers are effective in assisting students in their study. Cognitive theory states that students can organize and link information in a structured way to make it easier to work on or answer questions (Davoudi & Yousefi, 2014; Tayib, 2015). Meanwhile, constructivism theory relates to students’ ability to create concepts or ideas and express their own opinions on their essays (Cheng & Gwo, 2019; Fadhil & Yamal, 2020; Mochizuki et al., 2019; Anderson et al., 2018; Ponce et al., 2013; Wei, 2019; Younis, 2019). Cognitive Load Theory, on the other hand, signifies that graphic organizers can lighten students’ excessive cognitive load when combining ideas in their writing that are tailored to the purpose of the writing (Lee & Tan, 2010). This is connected to the schema theory, which argues that visual graphics can aid students in connecting their new knowledge with their previous knowledge, thus helping them to easily understand the concepts of the lessons and directing them to recognize the structure of the teaching material (Alfares, 2019; Sabarun, 2018; Roozbeh et al., 2016; Mahmood et al., 2013).

According to Miller (1998), there are three models of writing based on research studies and teaching methodologies. The first model focuses on the analysis of the final product of writing, such as linguistic and grammatical, rhetorical, stylistic, and discourse characteristics. The second model is the process of supervising writing as a recursive activity, which incorporates approaches, methods, and strategies. Meanwhile, the last model is a social activity that illuminates the written product with the structure of the type of text adopted by the community. Writing activities with this model may recognize the final product, the writing process, or a combination of both (Cahyono & Widiati, 2011). The model of writing as a process explains the need for methods, approaches, and strategies in the teaching and learning process so that a well-written final product of writing can be produced. One of the strategies for teaching writing is the use of graphic organizers. Previous studies have revealed that visual graphics are effective to improve students' writing skills.

Khalaji (2016) found that graphic learning tools in essay writing “make it easier for students to organize ideas and information to support the topic to be written according to the elements of essay. Graphic organizers create an order and arrangement of information in students’ minds” (p. 103). Bukhari (2016), on the other hand, applied mind maps to writing courses. Mind maps “assist students to easily develop cohesive and coherent contents by following the structure of the writing, namely topic sentences, supporting sentences, and conclusions” (pp. 75-76). In addition, Younis (2019) revealed that mind maps “can help develop ideas quickly as all ideas are written with keywords in a hierarchical form. Mind maps work effectively so that the topic of the writing is well understood by students” (p. 7). Meanwhile, the
results of a study by Ewoldt and Morgan (2017) emphasized that colored graphic organizers really “help students in writing paragraphs as the colors can aid them to see the relationship between the early stages of writing and drafting” (p. 183).

When graphic organizers are applied in writing argumentative essays, they can be used in drafting the arguments. Cheng and Gwo (2019) conducted a study by applying argument maps and revealed that students “can write argumentative essays with general to specific opinions by first making an argument map which makes it easier for them to convey their arguments as well as comprehend the examples and explanations included in the map” (pp. 22-23). Wei et al. (2020) applied a researcher-developed graphic organizer called QTGO to enhance students’ ability to write argumentative essays. The results proved that the developed GO “had an effect on both the quality of the writing and the strength of students’ arguments which significantly increased with the attainment and insertion of argumentative essay elements” (p. 10).

Graphic organizers can also be used as scaffolding. In this regard, students create and fill out the layered learning tool as scaffolding for writing paragraphs (Ponce et al., 2013). Lee and Tan (2010) also described GO as scaffolding that “can be given feedbacks to make it easier for students to write paragraphs. In addition, graphic organizers are also effective in improving students’ ability to compose words and sentences” (pp. 145-147). A study conducted by Hughes et al. (2019) proved that computer-based graphic organizers “improve students’ ability to write words, sentences, and transition words in persuasive essays” (p. 8). A previous study by Anderson et al. (2018) also noted that the application of a layered learning tool before writing “has an influence on both the product of writing and the planning of writing as an information process. In the information process, the tool focuses students on selecting important information, supports their ability to define and classify their ideas or opinions, and helps them to organize these ideas or opinions to be more structured in writing their opinions sequentially and consistently. With regard to the product of writing, the graphs provide organized and consistent information in the writing” (pp. 16-19).

Squire and Clark (2019) in their study on 4th grade students in Utah applied two graphic organizer models for opinion essay writing, namely Idea Corral where students express concepts or ideas in circles and Opinion Essay Organizer which consists of five essay structures that increase students’ writing skills by an average of 10 sentences. The results showed that students “were able to organize their ideas and their essays became coherent and cohesive” (p. 69). A more recent study by Philippakos and Mac Arthur (2020) on a total of 80 2nd grade students in the eastern United States which combined GO with collaborative reasoning and strategic instruction noted “the role of GO as a tool for
organizing ideas and drafting opinions in opinion essays. The results revealed that the quality of students’ opinion essays in terms of ideas, writing organization, and word choices improved, and students were able to write and deal with the three important elements of an opinion essay. In addition, students’ essays were consistent with the hooks/topics, opinions, and evidence such as facts or sources, and they managed to properly form a conclusion by restating their opinions and messages” (pp. 8-9).

B. Graphic Organizers and Self Efficacy

Layered controllers have been proven successful in remediating the academic achievement of students at the elementary school to university levels, both those with special needs (Boykin et al., 2019; Hughes et al., 2019) and those without special needs, who have cognitive problems in learning (Ayverdi et al., 2014; Drapeau, 2016; Khalaji, 2016; Mochizuki et al., 2019; Ponce et al., 2018). Apart from using strategies to improve academic results, self-efficacy also has a crucial role as a variable in enhancing students’ abilities in the academic world (Bruning et al., 2013; Golpavari & Khafi, 2021).

Some studies have indicated the relationship between learning strategies, graphic organizers, and self-efficacy in enriching students’ cognitive intelligence (Boroumand et al., 2020; Eissa, 2012; Estacio, 2021; Nobahar, 2013). A study by Estacio (2021) confirmed that the self-efficacy of the treatment group increased after being exposed to several types of GO in the classroom. In other words, teaching and learning process that combines various types of layered tools “have been shown to bring gains in student self-efficacy. This is as evidenced by the significant distinction in the mean scores between the treatment group and the control after the experiment, meaning that graphic organizers escalated students' self-efficacy for learning. When asked to present their work, students were able to articulate their ideas by answering “why” and “how” questions. In other words, the application of graphic organizers helps students plan what to write, initiate group brainstorming, improve their reading comprehension, identify problems and propose solutions, demonstrate cause and effect, as well as compare and contrast ideas” (pp. 83-84).

In addition, Boroumand et al. (2020) who linked concept maps and self-efficacy found that students' self-efficacy increased rapidly after being given treatment. The results revealed that the posttest mean score of the treatment group increased, whereas that of the control group decreased. Compared to the control group, the treatment group achieved higher self-efficacy after being instructed and motivated to implement concept-mapping strategies in their assignments. The self-efficacy scores of the treatment group accumulated unevenly after the instructional period. This “indicates a more significant improvement in low- and moderate-achieving students than high-achieving students” (p. 29). Furthermore, a study conducted by Nobahar et al. (2013) showed that explicit teaching of concept mapping increased the self-efficacy and ability of EFL students. This means that concept map as a cognitive tool “can enhance students’ self-efficacy as it makes students more confident in doing their assignments. This confirms that training by applying concept maps not only leads to an increase in language skills but also involves energetic internal changes in the learning process” (pp. 2124-2125).

Another prior study on this topic was conducted by Eissa (2012) who examined the effects of using an advanced graphic organizer on academic achievement, self-efficacy, and learning motivation of students with special needs. He found that the applied graphic organizer “assisted students to organize their thoughts and ideas into a single well-understood concept, enabling them to confidently answer questions and share their knowledge. Thus, their academic achievement improved along with the increase in their self-efficacy and motivation” (pp. 20-22).

III. METHOD

A. Research Design, Participants, and Setting

This study applied the Pre-Experimental One Group Pretest-Posttest design to test the effectiveness of the developed graphic organizer as a learning tool for opinion essay writing. The procedure includes doing a preliminary test, making intervention by applying the developed GO, and carrying out a final test.

This study was conducted at the Department of English Education at a university in North Sulawesi, Indonesia, with a total of 31 students (21 female students and 10 male students aged 19-20 years) participating as research subjects. This study was carried out during the COVID-19 pandemic, where the teaching and learning process took place synchronously and asynchronously. The respondents of this study were from various cities and regencies in Sulawesi and Sumatra, as well as Ambon City and Ternate City.

B. Teaching and Learning Process

The teaching of opinion essay writing was carried out synchronously via Zoom or Google Meet and asynchronously. There are three main menus on the site to help students do their assignments, i.e., Learning Objectives, Writing Skills Review, and Assessment. The first menu has General Instructional Objectives (GIO) and Specific Instructional Objectives (SIO) sub-menus which explain what students will learn about various types of opinion essays based on questions supplemented with examples, such as To What Extent, Two Part Questions, Problem and Solution, and Advantage and Disadvantage. The Writing Skills Review is a page dedicated for the elements of writing, namely writing mechanics, four types of English Sentences, Writing Opinion Essay, Introductory Paragraph, Body Paragraph, Concluding Paragraph, and Transitional Words and Phrases. After reading the materials in this page, students went to
the Assessment menu, the main "content of the web" consisting of three parts: Thinking, Answering, and Posting. In the Thinking section, students were asked to read the given topic but they were not allowed to access other topics. The text and the questions, as well as the developed GO, are presented in an interface system to make it easier for students to do their assignments. The developed GO plays a major role in brainstorming and scaffolding where each box has clues relating to the structure of opinion essay and can be filled out by students. In the Answering session, on the other hand, students filled out the GO and wrote an essay to be submitted to their lecturer. After being reviewed and edited by an English writing lecturer, the essays were sent back to the students to be revised based on the feedbacks and then resubmitted to the lecturer. If there was no revision, the students could publish their essays in the Posting section.

The learning process was in accordance with the Self-Regulated Learning strategy by Zimmerman (2000) which consists of three stages, i.e., forethought or planning, performance, and self-reflection/self-evaluation (Huh & Reigeluth, 2017). In the Forethought stage, students began by analyzing the given assignments and then setting their writing goals to be achieved by looking at writing materials and essay examples. The menu on the website for this stage was labeled “Learning Objectives”. Students who had difficulties understanding the elements of academic writing could learn more on the Writing Skills Review menu. The next stage was Performance, where students did the given assignment by transforming their ideas into an opinion essay using the developed GO and elaborating the ideas using complete sentences and transitional words. The menu on the website for this stage was labeled “Assessment”. Finally, in the Self-Reflection stage, students made self-evaluation of their essay through Self-Editing. Students reflected on their work through self-editing worksheets before submitting it to the lecturer in the Assessment menu.

In the teaching and learning process, three texts were provided as writing exercises in six meetings, with the discussion being carried out individually between each student and the writing lecturer with the process of revising, drafting, and editing. In this study, students used the Merriam-Webster Thesaurus dictionary and Grammarly application. The texts were provided as information and the type of level questions categorized under “Analyzing” sub-menu served as a guide for students to write their essays.

C. Measurements

Assessments of the product of writing were divided into two parts: the completeness of opinion essay elements and students’ writing quality. The completeness of opinion essay elements refers to the configuration of the developed graphic organizer. The introduction contains an overview of the problem or topic, including a thesis statement which states the position of the writer’s opinion. Meanwhile, the body has three paragraphs, each of which consists of a topic sentence, supporting details, and transitional words or phrases. The topic sentence includes a reason to support the thesis statement which is strengthened by supporting details. In this part, students provided relevant examples, data, sources, and/or evidence to justify the reason. Then, transitional words or phrases were added in the end of each paragraph to connect it to the next paragraph. The last element of opinion essay is the conclusion, where students restated their thesis statement or summarized their reasons and proposed predictions or suggestions. Assessment of the completeness of these elements used the criteria from Wei et al. (2019). As for the assessment of writing quality, the raters should pay attention to the aspects of opinion essay assessment, namely organization/purpose, evidence/elaboration, and convention. However, this study did not address the use of proper language in students’ essays, even though some errors in the grammar and writing mechanics were found. Two writing lecturers who have taught Advanced Writing courses for over 10 years were appointed to conduct the writing assessment.

After having the test, students were asked to fill out a questionnaire on self-efficacy adapted from Bruning et al. (2013), with a total of 15 questions consisting of five questions for each aspect of writing self-efficacy. The assessed aspects were Ideation, Convention, and Self-Regulation with a range of values from 1 - I can’t do it at all to 5 - I can do it well. The self-efficacy assessment was adapted from Bijl and Shortridge-Baggett (2001), with score ranges of 100-80 (high), 79-50 (moderate), and 49-0 (low).

D. Data Analysis

To answer the first research question, a descriptive statistical analysis was performed due to different scores of the pretest and posttest on the elements of opinion essay and the writing quality. The analysis aims to observe changes in writing before and after implementing the developed GO through the gain score criteria by Hake (1999). Measurement of intra- and inter-rater reliability was done to see consistent decisions of the raters about one’s ability to perform a job/task (Cohen, 2017). As for the second research question, one-way ANOVA was made to determine whether the developed GO affects students’ self-efficacy in writing essays.

IV. RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

A. The Effects of Using the Developed GO on the Writing Ability of EFL Students

In this study, the learning outcomes of students majoring in English in understanding opinion essays with the developed GO were described in the form of the completeness of opinion essay elements in their writing and the writing quality. This was achieved by conducting a pretest to recognize students’ initial ability to write opinion essays before the application of the developed graphic organizer. The reliability score of the two raters for the completeness of opinion essay elements was 67.74 and the score for the writing quality was 51.82.
Table 1 shows the total mean score of 1.2097 for the pretest, illustrating that 31 students did not understand the elements of opinion essays. As seen in Table 1, the introductory paragraph has the same mean score of .2258 as topic sentences and concluding paragraph, followed by transitional words/phrases and supporting reasons which have a mean score of .3387 and .1935, respectively.

### Table 1

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Elements of Opinion Essay based on GO</th>
<th>N</th>
<th>Pretest</th>
<th>Posttest</th>
<th>Gain Score</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Mean</td>
<td>Mean</td>
<td>SD</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Introductory Paragraph</td>
<td>31</td>
<td>.2258</td>
<td>1.0484</td>
<td>.63711</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Topic Sentences (Reasons)</td>
<td>31</td>
<td>.2258</td>
<td>1.2581</td>
<td>.64383</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Supporting Reasons</td>
<td>31</td>
<td>.1935</td>
<td>.8871</td>
<td>.60152</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Transitional words/phrases</td>
<td>31</td>
<td>.3387</td>
<td>1.2258</td>
<td>.66881</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Concluding Paragraph</td>
<td>31</td>
<td>.2258</td>
<td>1.1129</td>
<td>.55842</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total Score</td>
<td>31</td>
<td>1.2097</td>
<td>5.0968</td>
<td>2.47460</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Meanwhile, as seen in Table 2, analysis on students’ writing quality obtained the total mean score of 35.3452 for the pretest, comprising of a mean score of .9839 for the organization/purpose, .9355 for the evidence/elaboration, and 1.9677 for the convention. This signifies that the completeness of opinion essay elements has not been clearly described in students’ works, causing the low quality of their essays.

After intervention with the application of a layered learning tool adapted to the structure of opinion essay, the total mean score for the posttest increased to 5.0968. This is reflected in the mean score for each element of opinion essay, i.e., 1.0484 for introductory paragraph, 1.2581 for topic sentences, .8871 for supporting reasons, 1.2258 for transitional words/phrases, and 1.1129 for concluding paragraph. Along with the increasing completeness of opinion essay elements, the quality of students’ writing also experienced an increase with a total mean score of 54.9677 consisting of 2.1452 for the organization/purpose, 1.9032 for the evidence/elaboration, and 2.3387 for the convention. Based on the results of the two assessments, the smallest increase was seen in supporting reasons and evidence/elaboration. The gain score measures students’ writing quality after following the teaching and learning process. In this study, the gain score calculated on the pretest and posttest results is consistent to that of the elements of opinion essay. The obtained total gain score was .4407 for the elements of opinion essay and .3555 for the writing quality. Improvements can be seen in each element of opinion essay as follows: .4516 for the introductory paragraph, .3753 for the topic sentences/main reasons, .3871 for the supporting reasons, .6129 for the transitional words/phrases, and .4892 for the concluding paragraph.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Writing Quality</th>
<th>N</th>
<th>Pretest</th>
<th>Posttest</th>
<th>Gain Score</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Mean</td>
<td>Mean</td>
<td>SD</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Organization/Purpose</td>
<td>31</td>
<td>.9839</td>
<td>2.1452</td>
<td>.69754</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Evidence/Elaboration</td>
<td>31</td>
<td>.9355</td>
<td>1.9032</td>
<td>1.09102</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Convention</td>
<td>31</td>
<td>1.9677</td>
<td>2.3387</td>
<td>.55358</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total Score</td>
<td>31</td>
<td>35.3452</td>
<td>54.9677</td>
<td>18.79482</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

As for the writing quality, each criterion also showed improvement, namely: .3822 for the organization/purpose, .3159 for the evidence/elaboration, and .3548 for the convention. Based on the gain score criteria, the increase in the completeness of opinion essay elements and the writing quality was > 0.3, meaning that the increase was moderate (See Tables 3&4).

### Table 3

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Criteria</th>
<th>Gain Score</th>
<th>Category</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Introductory paragraph</td>
<td>.4516</td>
<td>Moderate</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Topic Sentences (main reasons)</td>
<td>.3753</td>
<td>Moderate</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Supporting reasons</td>
<td>.3871</td>
<td>Moderate</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Transitional words/phrases</td>
<td>.5565</td>
<td>Moderate</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Concluding paragraph</td>
<td>.4892</td>
<td>Moderate</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

### Table 4

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Element</th>
<th>Gain Score</th>
<th>Category</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Organization/Purpose</td>
<td>.3822</td>
<td>Moderate</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Evidence/Elaboration</td>
<td>.3159</td>
<td>Moderate</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Convention</td>
<td>.3548</td>
<td>Moderate</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

A sequential GO was developed in this study based on the theory of opinion essay by Oshima and Hogue (2007) (See Figure 3). In the final test after implementing the developed GO, questions were provided as clues to be answered by the students to make an opinion essay. The topic was the plant in the area where the students live and what they can do...
to preserve the plant for the next generation. In the first rectangle, students had to write an introductory paragraph consisting of two parts, namely an overview or general description of the topic to be discussed and a thesis statement which signifies the position of their opinion as the controlling idea. In the thesis statement, students conveyed their opinions on what they can do to preserve the plant.

The next rectangles are the body of the opinion essay, where students developed the thesis statement by providing reasons supported by relevant facts, data, quotations, or evidence. Based on the directions included in these rectangles, each paragraph in this section must begin with a topic sentence to be elaborated with supporting reasons in form of personal experiences and other relevant evidence. Then, transitional words/phrases were added in the end of each paragraph to connect it with the next paragraph.

The last rectangle of the developed GO is the concluding paragraph where students restated the thesis statement or summarized their reasons by paraphrasing them and provided predictions or solutions. In this part, students began by writing a conclusion marker. Overall, the content of students’ essays was well-organized cohesively and coherently. The following is an example of opinion essay written by a student with the initials NP.

The popular plant in my area is coconut. Coconut is the only member of the palm family Cocos or Arecaceae. Coconut is very useful in my place, especially for the people in my place. Many things I can do to coconut plants and how I protect them for the young generation.

The first thing I can do is to treat the cleanliness of the tree. Coconut is a plant that does not require special care. I always help my parents on a coconut plantation and see how they clean them. For example, the way to care for the plant is to weed the grass and pick up the fallen coconut leaves around the tree.

In addition, I can do to the plant as an economic source to support my family’s finance. As I know, plants have two main parts namely fruits and leaves. Both of them have benefits if we process them to be valuable goods because they have a selling price. First, I can make coconut milk, coconut oil, and food from coconut meat. Then, I sell the leaves for building materials as the roof of homes or huts. The last, the shell can create amazing art to be souvenirs.

Furthermore, I, as a generation who feel the great positive impact of coconut, have a responsibility to provide a good understanding to the next generation about coconut plants. Here, my way to protect them as I will write articles or make videos on how to be able to plant coconut plants well, how to produce them properly and how to protect the trees from pests without pesticides.

Overall, the famous plant in my place is the coconut and to keep them alive I have to clean weeds around it as well as save coconut trees for young people by composing on paper or recording on camera some activities because they give precious things in our life.

Students’ essays were in line with the layout of the developed GO, meaning that the design is consistent with the needs of students. Wei et al. (2019) stated that the creation of GO that” corresponds to the elements of essay can lead to the completeness of these elements in students’ writing” (p. 10). In addition, Robinson (1997) argued that teachers or tutors” must design a GO according to the material or subject matter being taught so that it can lighten the memory load of students” (pp. 99-100). This is in accordance with a statement by Ponce et al. (2013) that designing a GO that “represents text elements can direct students to compose a text that has good congruence with these elements” (pp. 835-836). Furthermore, Ewoldt and Morgan (2017) expressed that designing visual organizers that “match the elements of the writing must provide labels or instructions for each layer to be able to help students recall the constituent elements easily” (pp. 181-183).

Overall, students’ essays were found to have three elements, namely the introductory paragraph which includes a thesis statement, the body, and the concluding paragraph. Students’ ideas were presented in the thesis statement and then developed in the body paragraphs based on their personal experiences. Students also applied transition words/phrases to connect one paragraph to another and to clarify the relationship between the sentences. In the concluding paragraph, students summarized their statements by paraphrasing them. This finding is in line with several prior studies which found that the GO applied as scaffolding directs students to write essays by filling it out (Lee & Tan, 2010; Ponce et al., 2013).

Thus, researcher-developed graphic organizers have been proven to be able to improve students’ writing skills such as in maintaining the suitability of the structure (Wei, 2019; Ewoldt & Morgan, 2017; Khalaji, 2016; Ponce et al., 2013), explaining organized ideas (Squire & Clark, 2019; Philippakos & Mac Arthur, 2020), writing topic sentences with explanations (Bukhari, 2016), composing essays and paragraphs cohesively and coherently (Squire & Clark, 2019; Bukhari, 2016), increasing the number of transition words in paragraphs (Hughes et al., 2019), and developing a framework for arguments or opinions (Ceng & Gwo, 2019; Wei et al., 2019).

B. The Effects of Using the Developed GO on Students’ Writing Self Efficacy

Furthermore, the effect of the developed GO on students’ writing self-efficacy was tested. However, the results indicated no effect of the layered tool on students’ self-efficacy. To analyze the self-efficacy, one-way ANOVA was performed to see whether the developed layered graph affected students’ self-efficacy, which was categorized into high, moderate, and low levels. The homogeneity test showed that the results for three groups were significant (> 0.05), meaning that the three groups can be seen as having the same variance (See Table 5).
Meanwhile, in the descriptive statistical test for writing quality, the mean scores were 36.6 for the low SE, 16.2 for the moderate SE, and 18.4 for the high SE (See Table 6).

The ANOVA test obtained a significance of 0.467 > 0.05, meaning that there was no difference in students’ ability to write opinion essays in the three groups on their self-efficacy with the application of the developed GO (See Table 7).

This result contradicts several previous studies which found a relationship between academic achievement and self-efficacy, where high-achieving students have high self-efficacy, and vice versa (Boroumand et al., 2020; Eissa, 2012; Estacio, 2021; Nobahar et al., 2013). Likewise, the application of GO in courses increased students’ learning outcomes from low and moderate to moderate and high levels, along with an increase in self-efficacy (Boroumand et al., 2020; Eisa, 2012; Estacio, 2021; Nobahar et al., 2013).

Based on the results above, no correlation was found between students’ writing ability and their self-efficacy. This was influenced by several factors. First, several studies have described the effects of GO on self-efficacy in English proficiency by conducting tests specifically designed to measure and classify the English proficiency level (Boroumand et al., 2020; Nobahar, 2013). This was not conducted in the present study as students’ writing scores were issued by the faculty/department. The second factor was the creation of virtual study groups that allows students to discuss their assignments. Study groups were not made in this study as it focused on independent learning through LMS. In addition, the COVID-19 pandemic caused students to study independently at home, while students actually need their peers to study together and motivate each other to work on their assignments (Tsao, 2021). Sharing assignments enable students to compare their abilities with each other so that they learn to measure their self-efficacy (Hashemnejad et al., 2014). The third factor was the short learning period. The teaching and learning process in this study was taken place in 6 weeks for 3 topics. In a relatively short time, the learning process with the application of the developed GO was not effective enough to improve students’ ability to write opinion essays. This is because other factors within the students also influence their academic success, one of which is self-efficacy. Yan et al. (2022) argued that a short period of less than 1-2 months to apply concept mapping in the learning process is not effective. Academic achievement related to the application of learning tools cannot be observed directly as it requires other factors, such as self-efficacy. This is a chain that cannot be broken or stand-alone, but rather continuous and time-consuming.

V. CONCLUSION

This study examined whether the researcher-developed GO can improve students’ ability to write opinion essays in an English Education course. The pretest results revealed that students’ essay had a low quality as it did not contain all of the proper elements of an essay. After going through the teaching and learning process with the application of GO, brainstorming, drafting, editing, and revision, a posttest was done and the quality of students’ essays increased significantly. The completeness of opinion essay elements in students’ writing is associated with the quality of a well-organized writing. In the posttest, students’ essays begin with an introductory paragraph consisting of the general statement of the topic being discussed and a thesis statement. This becomes an umbrella of ideas elaborated in topic sentences and supporting details in the form of personal experiences in the following paragraphs.
The results of this study showed that students were able to connect paragraphs by adding transitional words so that their essays flowed naturally. In the concluding paragraph, students paraphrased the reasons stated previously in the body paragraphs. Based on the results of this study, the use of the developed GO as a visual learning tool are proven to be able to remind students of the elements of opinion essay and direct them to compose well-written opinion essay. However, the application of the developed GO has shown no significant effect on students’ writing self-efficacy. In other words, there are no significant differences in the essay writing achievement of students with high, moderate, and low self-efficacy levels, meaning that students’ ability to write essays cannot be judged or overestimated based on their self-efficacy (Shawer, 2010). This is consistent with the results of a study by Klassen (2004) that Asians have low self-efficacy compared to Westerners.

VI. LIMITATIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS FOR FURTHER STUDIES

This study applied the Pre-Experimental One Group Pretest-Posttest design with a small sample size. The design was selected due to limited funding and research time, as well as the different locations of the research subjects spread across several regions in Indonesia. Thus, it is highly recommended for further studies to use other research designs and examine a bigger number of research subjects. In addition, this study only examined one type of text, i.e., opinion essay. Future studies on this topic can allocate more time (more than three months is highly suggested) to use different types of GO in each group with various texts such as descriptive, narrative, problem-solving, and comparison/contrast. While going through the teaching and learning process, it is extremely important to measure students’ self-efficacy. Writing mechanics, including sentence structure, word choice, and grammar were not addressed in this study as it only focused on the organization and content of the essays as directed at the rectangles in the developed GO. Therefore, the other elements of essay such as vocabulary and grammar can be discussed in further studies. During the teaching and learning process, the developed GO was employed with SRL. In future studies, heterogeneous small-group learning (combining GO with cooperative learning) can be applied and peers can be involved in assessing the strengths and weaknesses of students’ works. Further studies may also consider students’ proficiency level as a moderating variable by giving a language proficiency test (e.g., TOEFL) to classify students’ proficiency level as high, moderate, and low, prior to conducting the study.

VII. PRACTICAL AND THEORETICAL IMPLICATIONS OF THE STUDY

The main practical implication of this study is that the developed graphic learning tool is consistent with the elements of opinion essay and can help students to improve their skills in writing an opinion essay in three parts: introduction, body, and conclusion. The completeness of these elements can be seen in the five paragraphs of their opinion essays. Paragraph 1 is the introductory paragraph which includes a thesis statement. Meanwhile, Paragraphs 2-4 are the body of the essay in which students elaborate their ideas by writing topic sentences as their reasons and providing relevant evidences to support them. Transitional words are used in the end of each paragraph to connect it to the next paragraph, making it flow naturally and easy to follow. Then, in the concluding paragraph, students restate the reasons mentioned previously in the body paragraphs by paraphrasing them.

Theoretically, this study supports the theory that visual graphics help students organize their writing plans (Anderson et al., 2018; Ewoldt & Morgan, 2017). Anderson et al. (2018) stated that GO has two functions, i.e., as an information process and a product of writing. After implementing a researcher-developed GO, students can process information through the development of ideas by stating their own opinions and supporting them with examples drawn from their own experiences which are arranged systematically and consistently in their essays. Then, as a product, their writing includes all elements of an opinion essay and the content of their essay is coherent and cohesive from beginning to end.

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Revisiting Communicative Language Teaching Approach in Teaching ESL Speaking Skills

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Abstract—As the world heads into modernisation, English is widely spoken by non-native speakers due to the globally competitive market. Teaching speaking in ESL classrooms has always been a massive problem since many learners are struggling to utter simple sentences despite years of learning English. By introducing the Common European Framework of Reference (CEFR) into the existing curriculum, Communicative Language Teaching (CLT) approach is being prioritised to teach spoken interaction among ESL pupils. This systematic review aims to investigate the implementation of the CLT approach in teaching speaking skills in ESL classrooms. By adopting the Preferred Reporting Items for Systematic Review and Meta-Analyses (PRISMA) review methodology, 37 were extracted out of 360 CLT-related articles from Google Scholar and ERIC databases based on the inclusion and exclusion criteria. Based on the selected articles from 2018 to 2022, the findings reveal that teachers and pupils view the CLT approach positively regarding its effectiveness in sustaining speaking skills in ESL classrooms despite the challenges faced. Future research is suggested to fill in the gap of this study by investigating the perceptions of the education stakeholders towards implementing the CLT approach under the ESL context.

Index Terms—Communicative Language Teaching (CLT), speaking skill, English as a Second Language (ESL), effectiveness, challenges, perceptions

I. INTRODUCTION

As the world heads into modernisation, communication skill is a prerequisite to master if one intends to flourish in their respective field. Subsequently, English has become an international language to unite professions and bodies across all fields and disciplines (Rafiq et al., 2021). Besides being used considerably in politics, science, business, the internet, media, medicine and entertainment, English is used in 85% of the research articles and publications in conventional databases like Google Scholar and ERIC (Rao, 2019). Time has changed, and the use of English nowadays is no longer confined to the Anglosphere nation. However, it is being used and spoken widely by non-native speakers from every nook and cranny of the globe as many of them wish to win out in the globally competitive market. As a result, English as a Second Language (ESL) learning has proliferated indefinitely in recent years, especially in Asian countries like Thailand, Indonesia, Singapore and Malaysia, etc. (Lim & Yunus, 2021).

Nevertheless, the effectiveness of teaching speaking skill among ESL pupils is constantly being questioned over the years as many ESL learners struggle to utter simple sentences despite years of learning English since the preschool stage (Al-Jarf & Mingazova, 2020). The major problem is the practice of centralised exams, whereby reading comprehension and essay writing are considered more important to be focused instead of polishing the pupils in terms of their listening and speaking abilities (Mohamed & Aziz, 2018). At this juncture, increasing education stakeholders worldwide have decided to reshape their English syllabus by introducing Common European Framework of Reference (CEFR) scales in aligning equal weightage of language skills towards ESL teaching and learning (Aziz et al., 2018). As supported by Don (2020), the exercise of CEFR has breathed a whole new life into the education field by moving from an exam-oriented to an interactive learning approach.

Out of the four language skills, speaking is regarded as one of the most crucial skills to be mastered by ESL pupils due to the modern world's request. Concerning this, English teachers face no option but to shift their attention to productive oral skills under the newly aligned CEFR curriculum (Devi Krishnan & Yunus, 2019). Consequently, the Communicative Language Teaching (CLT) approach is being prioritised to transform pupils' personal experiences into meaningful and effective language learning environments (Reforms in the Policy of English Language Teaching in Malaysia - Radzuwan AB Rashid, Shireena Basree Abdul Rahman, Kamariah Yunus, 2017, n.d.). The notion of ESL teaching has undergone a considerable transfiguration from the classical Grammar Translation Method (GTM) in the 1990s to contemporary Communicative Language Teaching (CLT) in the current days, as seconded by Singh et al. (2020) in his study. At this juncture, the researchers are interested to know whether the CLT approach effectively assists

* Both authors are corresponding authors and contributed equally to this work.

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ESL pupils in mastering the targeted skills and knowledge, particularly in enhancing their communicative competence in English. Henceforth, this systematic review aims to review the implementation of the Communicative Language Teaching (CLT) in ESL contexts, with three research questions as follows:

RQ1: To what extent does the CLT approach help in teaching speaking skills among ESL pupils?
RQ2: What challenges do ESL teachers and pupils face throughout CLT implementation?
RQ3: What are the perceptions of ESL teachers and pupils toward the CLT approach?

The following section will detail the teaching of speaking skill in the ESL context and the adoption of the CLT approach in 21st-century classrooms.

A. Teaching Speaking Skill in ESL Context

Speaking is a fundamental life skill one should possess through verbal language to convey an idea to another individual. It involves physical and mental processes to ensure an adequate flow of ideas between the two parties. In today’s globalised marketplace, it is imperative to display a good command of spoken English, as a solid attachment can be forged between the two speakers, regardless of their backgrounds and practices (Vellayan et al., 2020). One of the ultimate goals of teaching English in an ESL context is facilitating communicative competence among the pupils. However, it is not uncommon for many ESL pupils to feel challenged to speak fluently and accurately in English (Rao, 2019). In relation to this, ESL teachers ought to provide extra attention and numerous practice grounds for their pupils to apply the language in various communicative circumstances.

As asserted by Nair and Yunus (2021), ESL teachers should replace their traditional teaching mindset with the contemporary method to facilitate young learners mastering an effective speaking skill. The tendency to dominate the lesson should be eradicated since it might distort the learners’ thoughts and silence them in the long run. ‘Glossophobia’ refers to an individual’s social terror while talking to others in public (Pedagogy in Speaking: Challenges Addressed by Teacher-Student in the ESL Context | Ahmed | International Journal of Applied Linguistics and English Literature, n.d.). ESL pupils are often found anxious when asked to speak in English. They find it challenging to express their ideas as they have difficulty switching the language back from their mother tongue. To make matters worse, when ESL teachers emphasise grammatical accuracy while pupils perform speaking activities, it will demotivate the learners from speaking due to their self-consciousness and fear of making other mistakes (Rahman & Pandian, 2018). In short, ESL teachers should dedicte their best efforts to facilitate effective speaking among ESL pupils to catch up with the ever-changing world.

B. CLT Approach in 21st-Century Classrooms

It is commonly agreed that second language learning is not just about consistent training on the language structures like grammar. However, it should serve a bigger purpose: the ability to communicate. As for developing countries like Bangladesh, Indonesia and Malaysia, speaking proper English is at its zenith in sustaining their countries’ growth rate and expanding the globalised world markets (Jansem, 2019). Given the circumstances, ESL teaching and learning have become essential to secure future job opportunities with the outside world. The emergence of the CLT approach in the education field in the last four decades has shaken the Englishes world. At a time when many scholars and teachers rooted for conservative approaches to teaching grammar and vocabulary, CLT penetrated the system by giving a new purpose to ESL education, whereby the goal of teaching speaking is to promote adequate communicative competence and meaningful interaction (Aziz et al., 2020).

Implementing the CLT approach is relevant today as it comprises a replica of 21st-century classroom practices such as creativity, critical thinking and communication (Rahman et al., 2021). The statement is further supported by Richards and Rodgers (2014) in their reports, where the findings indicate that the CLT approach mainly focuses on using language to promote actual communication and perform meaningful tasks. In a way, ‘active learning’, which acts as one of the 21st-century constructs, is visible throughout the execution of CLT activities, in which the learners are situated in real-life situations to accomplish problem-solving activities. As personal interactions, peer assessment and shared contributions are practised consistently, ESL pupils will have relatively increased speaking opportunities with their peers and teachers (Santos & Miguel, 2020). Subsequently, ESL teachers can employ fun learning activities such as games and role play to induce a positive learning environment, thus conditioning the pupils to speak confidently. To sum up, the CLT approach promotes effective speaking skills as learners will be continuously trained to be accountable for their learning, guided by their teachers as facilitators throughout the journey.

II. METHOD

The Preferred Reporting Items for Systematic Review and Meta-Analyses (PRISMA) 2020 checklist is adopted in this systematic review after synthesising the selected articles in a specific manner (The PRISMA 2020 Statement: An Updated Guideline for Reporting Systematic Reviews | Systematic Reviews | Full Text, n.d.). Descriptive comparison, a comparative research methodology, was employed to describe and explain the implementation of the CLT approach in sustaining effective speaking skill among ESL pupils. By reviewing the assembled articles, this paper summarises and organises the findings into three major components; the effectiveness of the approach, challenges faced, and teachers’
and pupils' perceptions towards the approach. The researchers then deploy three phases to perform the analysis: the identification phase, screening phase and inclusion phase.

A. Phase 1: Identification Phase

The first step is the identification phase. Two databases, Google Scholar and Education Resources Information Centre (ERIC), were selected to identify the articles. Google Scholar is a comparatively friendly-user database, and ERIC is well-known for a wide variety of articles, specifically on education-related disciplines and sources. The key terms are typed at the 'Advanced Search' engines in both Google Scholar and ERIC to narrow the scope to the researchers’ interest. Table 1 below presents the key terms used in this systematic review.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Databases</th>
<th>Key Terms</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Google Scholar</td>
<td>“CLT AND ESL”, “CLT AND speaking”, “CLT AND communication”, “CLT AND perceptions”, “CLT AND challenges”, “CLT AND effectiveness”</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ERIC</td>
<td>“CLT AND ESL”, “CLT AND speaking”, “CLT AND communication”, “CLT AND perceptions”, “CLT AND challenges”, “CLT AND effectiveness”</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

B. Phase 2: Screening Phase

The second stage is the screening phase, where duplicates are detected and removed from the list. Meanwhile, the search range was restricted from 2018 until 2022 so that the assembled studies are relevant and up to date. Subsequently, the remaining articles were examined again to check for their eligibility.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Criterion</th>
<th>Inclusion</th>
<th>Exclusion</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Range of years</td>
<td>2018 – 2022</td>
<td>Before 2018</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Articles type</td>
<td>Journals</td>
<td>Review papers, book chapters, dissertations, theses and proceedings</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Topics of interest</td>
<td>CLT-related</td>
<td>Non-CLT related</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Language</td>
<td>English articles</td>
<td>Non-English articles</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Fields of Study</td>
<td>Education</td>
<td>Engineering, Business, Science &amp; Law, etc.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

In view of this, the researchers listed the inclusion and exclusion criteria, as shown in Table 2 above. This process is essential to exclude the articles which do not meet the research demands. For instance, review papers, book chapters, dissertations, theses and proceedings were eliminated from the records.

C. Phase 3: Exclusion Phase

The final stage is the exclusion phase, where a list of articles that do not meet the inclusion criteria are again excluded. The excluded journals include non-CLT and non-ESL contexts articles. Next, non-English articles were excluded as well, followed by the exclusion of non-education-related articles. Accordingly, there are 37 articles included in this systematic review, as presented in Figure 1 below. The article selection process is manifested visibly in Figure 1, as shown below.

Figure 1. Flow Chart of the Article Selection Process
III. RESULTS

Although thousands of studies had been conducted around the world regarding the topic interest, only 37 articles were found eligible for this study after the selection process. Later, the researchers started to analyse the articles and tabulate the findings in a summary table to ease the analysis process. Subsequently, the results were organised and categorised into themes to answer three research questions, namely (1) the effectiveness of the CLT approach in sustaining ESL speaking skills, (2) the challenges faced during CLT implementation as well as (3) teachers’ and pupils’ perceptions towards CLT approach. Accordingly, the thematic analysis is portrayed in Table 3 below.

### Table 3

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Research Themes</th>
<th>Number of Articles</th>
<th>Articles Referencing</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Teachers’ and pupils’ perceptions towards the CLT approach</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>Chang &amp; Suparni, 2020, (Li, 2021), (Pebriani et al., 2019), (Dewi, 2019), (Lafta, 2021), (Abrejo et al., 2019), (Alghamdi, 2021), (Radosavlevikj, 2021).</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

IV. DISCUSSION

In this section, the researchers will discuss the findings of Communicative Language Teaching (CLT) in three aspects which correspond to the research questions of this study, namely (1) effectiveness, (2) challenges as well as (3) teachers’ and pupils’ perceptions.

**A. RQ1: To What Extent does the CLT Approach Help in Teaching Speaking Skills Among ESL Pupils?**

There is a total of 12 out of 37 articles related to the effectiveness of CLT implementation in teaching speaking skills in ESL contexts. Given this, all related studies have suggested that CLT practitioners can facilitate English learning among ESL pupils, specifically in improving their speaking abilities. CLT emphasises a learner-centred approach and realistic classroom interactions. Hence, pupils easily relate CLT activities to real-life situations, thus triggering them to speak more based on their background knowledge and experiences (Pebriani et al., 2019). In light of this, most CLT teachers are aware of the ultimate goal of the CLT approach, which is to encourage real-time interactions among the learners. Hence, to create meaningful communicative opportunities, pupils are frequently exposed to authentic activities like debates, role-plays, and group works that connect their real lives with existing learning materials (Harahap et al., 2021; Arrasul & Pole, 2021; Hengki & Ratna, 2019; Rahmatuzzaman, 2018). Besides, pupils learn English through trial and error through communication. Following this, grammar is indirectly learned with other language skills, which is way more practical since they are not used separately in the real world (Tiwari, 2021).

Apart from that, the CLT approach is proven to be a motivating boost in initiating ESL pupils to speak more in English. Communicative activities in CLT classrooms regularly incorporate contractions and semi-formed sentences, shifting the focus of accurate grammatical language to the free flow of small talk and conversation (Khatib, 2019). As a result, it raises speaking confidence among the pupils since their mindset is to use the target language for everyday use. Therefore, they are not easily intimidated by judgement, exerting themselves braver in expressing their views and ideas to their friends and teachers in ESL classrooms (Zulu, 2019). Likewise, teachers’ application of various interaction styles and supporting activities is found to be one of the success criteria in implementing the CLT approach. Alghamdi (2021), in his study, revealed that CLT techniques like modelling, repetition, group work and feedback are mainly used to assist pupils in developing their communicative competence. All in all, all 12 studies indicate a significant positive effect of the CLT approach in sustaining ESL pupils’ speaking abilities; regardless of limited class size and a short period of time (Rijnan & Irwan, 2020; Abrejo et al., 2019; Zulu, 2019).

**B. RQ2: What Are the Challenges ESL Teachers and Pupils Face Throughout CLT Implementation?**

There are 17 out of 37 studies regarding the challenges faced throughout CLT implementation in ESL contexts. It constitutes almost half of the systematic reviews collected in this study, indicating that many ESL practitioners and learners struggled to implement the CLT approach in respective ESL classrooms. After analysing the articles, the researchers noticed many similarities across the studies despite different countries’ education policies and learning contexts. Hence, a table is formulated to compare and contrast the types of challenges faced throughout CLT implementation, as shown in Table 4 below.
As shown in Table 4, 15 out of 17, most studies depict teacher-related challenges while executing the CLT approach in ESL classrooms. Many CLT teachers have claimed that they understand CLT’s features and are positive to apply it in their daily teaching practice. However, many CLT teachers tend to retreat to traditional teaching methods such as rote memorisation, drilling and translation when their pupils do not show improvement after a few attempts at speaking activities (Rezalou & Yagiz, 2021). Meanwhile, it is also found that there is a scenario where CLT teachers habitually dominate classroom interactions as they hold firm to their strong beliefs that one interaction style is better than the other (Khatib & Tootkaboni, 2019). Phoeun and Sengsri (2021) suggest that such habits should be eradicated as teachers should not make assumptions. Instead, they should provide various interaction opportunities to the learners to improve their communicative competence. Meanwhile, the findings also reveal that numerous ESL teachers were not given sufficient training on the CLT approach, which serves as a significant breakdown towards CLT classroom application (Harahap et al., 2021; Phoeun & Sengsri, 2021; Hoque et al., 2018; Rahman & Ahmed, 2019; Armnazi & Alakrash, 2021; Takal et al., 2021; Pitikornpuangpetch & Suwanarak, 2021). Consequently, it leads to teachers’ limited knowledge, lack of cultural exposure and speaking deficiency (Nayeen et al., 2020; Tiwari, 2021).

In addition, pupils-related challenges are also prevalent across the selected studies in this systematic review. One of the most significant challenges is that many CLT pupils have low English proficiency. They are often found unconfident, demotivated, passive and unwilling to interact in the classrooms due to the fear of being judged by their better friends (Phoeun & Sengsri, 2021; Nayeen et al., 2020; Nuby et al., 2019; Rezalou & Yagiz, 2021). Likewise, learners’ poor socioeconomic background also hurls CLT application, in the sense that rural students are frequently deprived throughout the education system, which in turn leads to low school attendance and ineffective CLT application (Harahap et al., 2021; Hoque et al., 2018). On top of that, system-related challenges are proven to exist amidst the CLT approach in ESL teaching scenarios. With this, most of the CLT practitioners believed there is a mismatch between the assessment system and the given curriculum, as what is being taught in the classroom is not tested in the exams (Rijnan & Irwan, 2020; Phoeun & Sengsri, 2021; Rahman & Ahmed, 2019). As a result, many will lean to grammar and vocabulary learning under the pressure of a faulty examination system which eventually leads to a ‘disguise’ CLT version where drilled sentence patterns become the priority rather than meaningful interactions in teaching ESL speaking lessons (Takal et al., 2021).

Last but not least, context-related challenges are also detected in this study, where the researchers opine that it is the most fundamental factor, as very often CLT is likely to form speaking competencies only in an appropriate social context (Rijnan & Irwan, 2020). In light of this, the lack of government support in terms of budget and insufficient productive CLT materials have impeded the implementation of CLT practices as pupils will quickly lose their interest and concentration in studying under an unfavourable learning environment (Phoeun & Sengsri, 2021; Toro et al., 2019). Besides, circumstances such as poor infrastructure, large class sizes and crowded classrooms will certainly demotivate both teachers and students to carry out authentic speaking activities since the learning space itself is inadequate to support the continuation of effective teaching and learning process (Harahap et al., 2021; Rahman & Ahmed, 2019; Armnazi & Alakrash, 2021; Noori, 2018; Tiwari, 2021).

C. RQ3: What Are the Perceptions of ESL Teachers and Pupils Toward the CLT Approach?

Out of the 37 articles, there are only 8 articles related to ESL teachers’ and pupils’ perceptions of the CLT approach, signifying a research gap that can be filled in for future studies. Regardless of the small number of articles, 7 out of 8, which constitutes a vast majority of the studies, indicate that ESL teachers and pupils generally held positive attitudes...
toward the CLT approach. The distribution of ESL teachers’ and pupils' perceptions toward the CLT approach is presented in Table 5, as shown below.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Article Referencing</th>
<th>Parties Involved</th>
<th>Positive Perceptions</th>
<th>Negative Perceptions</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>(Chang &amp; Suparmi, 2020)</td>
<td>✓ ✓ ✓ ✓ ✓</td>
<td>✓ ✓ ✓ ✓ ✓</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(Li, 2021)</td>
<td>✓ ✓ ✓ ✓ ✓</td>
<td>✓ ✓ ✓ ✓ ✓</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(Pebriani et al., 2019)</td>
<td>✓ ✓ ✓ ✓ ✓</td>
<td>✓ ✓ ✓ ✓ ✓</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(Dewi, 2019)</td>
<td>✓ ✓ ✓ ✓ ✓</td>
<td>✓ ✓ ✓ ✓ ✓</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(Lafta, 2021)</td>
<td>✓ ✓ ✓ ✓ ✓</td>
<td>✓ ✓ ✓ ✓ ✓</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(Abrejo et al., 2019)</td>
<td>✓ ✓ ✓ ✓ ✓</td>
<td>✓ ✓ ✓ ✓ ✓</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(Alghamdi, 2021)</td>
<td>✓ ✓ ✓ ✓ ✓</td>
<td>✓ ✓ ✓ ✓ ✓</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(Radosavlevikj, 2021)</td>
<td>✓ ✓ ✓ ✓ ✓</td>
<td>✓ ✓ ✓ ✓ ✓</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The table shows that teachers and pupils generally have positive perceptions toward implementing the CLT approach (Chang & Suparmi, 2020; Li, 2021; Lafta, 2021; Alghamdi, 2021). Because of this, both teachers and pupils were found positive that CLT activities like role plays, debates, and group work could help develop communicative competence as pupils were frequently exposed to authentic situations resembling real-life experiences. Similarly, studies by Abrejo et al. (2019) and Radosavlevikj (2021) demonstrate consistent findings on teachers’ positive perceptions of CLT application. Most CLT practitioners believe it is vital to adapt rather than adopt CLT with a conventional approach to make it more suitable and realistic for their pupils.

In addition, a study conducted by Dewi (2019) suggest that different target group of pupils in terms of age, gender and ethnicity would possess different preferred learning styles despite pupils learning best by adopting all six sensory modes while conducting CLT activities to master English speaking skills. Nonetheless, the findings gathered by Pebriani et al. (2019) suggested otherwise, as the teacher participants have relatively negative perceptions toward CLT application where they claim that most of the ESL teachers generally possess a low to moderate understanding of the CLT approach. In relation to this, the common misconceptions of ESL teachers include CLT encourages grammatical errors and pupils are not well prepared for examinations in terms of their contents and public demand.

### V. Conclusion

In conclusion, this systematic review has analysed articles on applying the CLT approach in sustaining speaking skills among ESL pupils. Two databases, namely Google Scholar and ERIC, are used in this study and after the article selection process, it is found that 37 remaining articles are eligible for this review paper after going through the inclusion and exclusion criteria. The main findings are then organised and categorised into three themes which correspond to the research questions in this study, namely (1) the effectiveness of the CLT approach, (2) challenges faced as well as (3) teachers and pupils’ perceptions towards the said approach. Generally, the results indicate that the CLT approach is remarkably effective in sustaining effective speaking skills among ESL pupils. Due to its distinctive features of promoting authentic and meaningful interactions, CLT activities can easily relate the learners to their real-life experiences aside from being proven to be a significant motivation boost through various interaction styles and supporting activities.

Aside from that, four types of challenges are identified across the selected studies: teachers-related, pupils-related, system-related and context-related. In line with this, CLT teachers habitually retreat to traditional teaching methods, focusing on grammar and vocabulary learning. Most of the teachers are found not given adequate training on CLT courses, causing them to have limited CLT knowledge and low speaking deficiency. Meanwhile, many ESL pupils have relatively low self-confidence and English proficiency in speaking in English, apart from being deprived due to their poor socioeconomic background. Likewise, a mismatch between the examination and curriculum is believed to impede CLT application, as teachers will lose faith in continuing CLT application. Other contextual challenges include harmful learning environments such as poor infrastructure, large class sizes and narrow classrooms due to the low budget provided by the authorities.

All in all, ESL pupils and teachers positively perceive CLT implementation in ESL classrooms. Most are confident that meaningful CLT activities can develop learners' communicative competence in an authentic learning atmosphere. Besides, several CLT teachers consistently practice CLT in the classroom; they adopt the modern CLT approach with conventional techniques to suit their pupils’ learning context. As for the pupils, they opine that various interaction styles and activities should be applied at times so that learners with different preferred learning styles can be fulfilled. Nevertheless, a double-edged sword cuts both ways, like the CLT approach. The finding suggests that a group of teachers view CLT negatively due to their false beliefs that the said approach discourages grammar learning which does not meet the assessment standards.
VI. LIMITATIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

This systematic review has summed up many articles regarding CLT application in ESL-speaking contexts. It calls for the attention of every stakeholder involved to revisit the implementation of the said approach at all aspects and find ways to overcome the potential challenges that may arise. Despite everything, there are a few limitations that the researchers wish to highlight in this systematic review. Firstly, this review only covers 37 articles from two databases, Google Scholar and ERIC, in which the outcomes might be different if searching through other notable search engines. Secondly, this review only managed to cover 8 articles related to teachers’ and pupils’ perceptions toward the CLT approach due to the use of limited databases. However, this has opened a new research gap for future study purposes in which the researchers are encouraged to explore more the views of every stakeholder involved in the education field towards CLT implementation in ESL teaching and learning contexts.

ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

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Using Classroom Activities in Teaching Speaking Skills for Non-Native Arabic Learners: Teacher’s Perspective

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Mohammad Hamzeh
College of Educational Sciences, Middle East University, Amman, Jordan

Abstract—the study investigates the degree to which classroom activities in teaching Arabic language speaking skills for non-native speakers are used with regards to the perspective of their teachers. A random sample was chosen consisting of (186) male and female teachers in Amman, Jordan. The descriptive survey-based approach was used, including a questionnaire targeting the following five domains: recreational language activities, competition-based language activities, cooperative language activities, dialogue-based activities, and language simulation activities. The validity and reliability of the instruments were verified. It was found that the extent of carrying out classroom activities is moderate. Additionally, there is not any statistically significant difference (α = 0.05) due to gender. The researchers recommend conducting a similar study from the perspective of students.

Index Terms—classroom activities, speaking skill, non-native speakers, Arabic language teachers

I. INTRODUCTION

A. Introduction to Arabic Teaching, and Classroom Activities

Jordan is characterized by cultural and historical diversity, rich with modern and ancient sites spread across the nation, making the country a destination for foreigners from all over the world. For many of these foreigners, speaking Arabic is necessary to communicate with Jordanians, leading them to enroll in institutes that teach Arabic in Jordan.

Teaching Arabic as a foreign language inside and outside the Arab world is deemed a major development amongst the developments that have been achieved during the last sixty years by the institutes responsible for teaching languages. Such institutes hold many important activities and meetings, through which discussions are held about the methods used for teaching Arabic language to non-native speakers, allowing teachers to keep up with the latest advancements in the field of teaching Arabic as a foreign language. In addition, people from disparate cultures and backgrounds get closer to their goals of linguistic and cultural fluency (Facchin, 2019; Elnaggar, 2019).

Hence, speaking skills are one of the main skills required for fluency in Arabic. It is very important in the process of teaching Arabic language to non-natives due to students’ need to communicate with native speakers and engage in various aspects of life. Such aspects include but are not limited to the economic, social, political, health, and scientific aspects. The ability to speak allows people to express their ideas and emotions. Thus, much attention is given to this skill set within curricula used for teaching Arabic language to non-native speakers.

Hamed (2016), Aldakhil (2016), Almutllaq (2019), Shu’Ayb (2020), Albasri (2021), and Mohammad (2021) emphasize the significance of classroom activities in developing the speaking skills of the non-native speakers in Arabic. Classroom activities contribute to raising self-confidence, motivation, and enthusiasm to learn. They also contribute to providing learners with opportunities to develop their speaking skills.

Classroom activities play a major role in meeting the goals of the process of teaching the Arabic language to non-native speakers. They play a major role in making this process successful and dealing with its problems. Classroom activities are most preferable for developing the speaking skills of non-native speakers of Arabic language. They include recreational activities and activities that are based on competition, dialogue, cooperation, and simulation (Alissa, 2020). There are many activities that are used in the process of developing the speaking skills of non-native Arabic speakers. Such activities include the use of teaching aids, language labs, language games, and modern technologies (Shu’Ayb, 2016).

Teaching the Arabic language to non-native speakers and developing their speaking skills comes with many problems, obstacles, and challenges. Such challenges include the failure of teachers in using activities and teaching aids in the classroom. Included in these challenges are the reliance of teachers on asking questions to develop speaking skills and considering this method as the main teaching method. Furthermore, many teachers mistakenly believe that there isn’t any need for carrying out classroom activities in addition to using this method of asking questions (Mohammad,
It should be noted that teachers play a significant role in utilizing a variety of activities and teaching strategies that meet the needs and the interests of each student. Teachers play a major role in offering students a variety of classroom activities that take the differences between individual learners into consideration. This contributes to encouraging students to exhibit the highest academic achievement they can and to form positive perceptions towards education (Souza et al., 2020; Deya’ aldeen, 2020; Elnaggar, 2019; Mosbahe, 2019).

Classroom activities used for developing students’ speaking skills can be separated into 5 different categories. Competition-based activities include brainstorming, problem solving, one-minute sessions, predicting words, and word scatter activities, “who am I” activities, and “who is fastest” activities. Recreational activities include recognition of pictures and places, finding similar binaries, detecting limited information, solving riddles, narrating anecdotes, doing role-playing activities, singing songs and chants, and engaging in a game called “letters and words”. Cooperative classroom activities include continuation of story narration, think-pair-engage, group discussions, gap filling questions, and brainstorming activities. Dialogue-based classroom activities include narrating short stories and novels, making presentations, engaging in debates, and analyzing photos, figures, and phone calls. The simulation-based classroom activities include acting as different professions like a little teacher, little inventor, little leader, little cook, or little journalist. Examining the classroom activities utilized in the process of developing Arabic language speaking skills for the non-native speakers highlights the role that those activities play in developing linguistic abilities (Alissa, 2020; Elnaggar, 2019; Facchin, 2019).

B. Study Problem and Questions

The researchers within the field of teaching Arabic language to non-native speakers have worked in several institutes specialized in this area in Jordan. They engaged in many workshops and held meetings with many teachers who teach Arabic language to non-native speakers. Based on the researchers’ experience, they discovered that there are challenges facing the process of developing the Arabic language speaking skills of the non-native speakers leading to weakness in this area (Algamdi, 2020).

The researchers also noticed that the classroom activities used in the development of students’ Arabic speaking skills are scarce. They noticed that Arabic teachers of non-native students typically rely to a high degree on conventional teaching methods. Moreover, many previous studies confirmed that Arabic teachers of such students do not use teaching aids much at all. Recent research has added that these teachers also do not use modern technologies much in teaching activities (Al-Rabab’Ah, 2016; Al-Qaisi, 2017; Mohammad, 2020; Abed Al-Elkah, 2021; Awad, 2021).

In this regard, several studies — e.g. Those carried out by Alissa (2020), Algamdi (2020), Kenali (2019) and Al-Khresheh (2020) — add that it is necessary to investigate the effectiveness of using teaching aids and activities in developing the Arabic language speaking skills of the non-native speakers within language and cultural institutes. This should be done with the aim of developing the Arabic language speaking skills of the non-native speakers. Hence, the present study aims to explore the effectiveness of carrying out classroom activities in developing the Arabic language speaking skills of non-native speakers.

Shu’ayb (2016) and Alhasan (2019) add that there are problems faced in the process of developing the Arabic language speaking skills of non-native speakers. Such problems arise especially when teaching learners coming from different cultural and educational backgrounds. They include the difference between the learners’ mother language and the Arabic language as well as the differences between learners in terms of culture, knowledge, and capabilities. Other problems include the scarcity of the activities that encourage those learners to use Arabic language in a creative manner and the lack of teachers’ utilization of strategies for developing the Arabic speaking skills of non-native speakers.

The problem confronted in the present study arises from the weakness apparent in Arabic language speaking skills of non-native speakers and from the scarcity of carrying out classroom activities to develop these skills.

To be specific, the study attempts to answer the following questions:

1st question: to what degree are classroom activities used in developing the Arabic language speaking skills of the non-native speakers from the teachers’ perspective?

2nd question: are there significant differences (α=0.05) in the degree of the use of classroom activities from the teachers’ perspective due to the teacher’s gender?

This study furthers knowledge on this topic by providing data on the utilization or lack thereof regarding this practice in classroom settings in Jordan. Many studies suggest that classroom activities are very effective in developing the Arabic language speaking skills of the non-native speakers of this language (Kenali, 2019; Mahmoud, 2020b; Bahruddin, 2021).

It sheds light on the classroom activities used for developing the Arabic language speaking skills of non-native speakers and the failure therein of not using these activities. Such failure hinders the process of teaching Arabic language to such learners (Beqader, 2019; Amayreh, 2019).

The present study is also significant because it is beneficial for experts, researchers, and others interested in teaching Arabic to non-native speakers. It also offers interested groups a useful instrument that can be used for conducting more studies about classroom activities aimed at developing Arabic speaking skills for non-native learners.

C. Study Terms
Classroom activities: they refer to a set of practices that are carried out in the classroom by learners under the supervision of the instructor. Those practices are carried out based on a pre-set plan. They aim to meet specific goals (Aldurayhim, 2021, p. 545).

Classroom activities (operational definition): they refer to a set of practices that are carried out in the classroom for developing the Arabic language speaking skills of non-native speakers in institutes specialized in this area in Jordan. These practices are carried out under the supervision of the instructor. They fall under five domains, which are: competition-based activities, cooperative learning activities, dialogue-based activities, simulation-based activities, and recreational activities.

Speaking skills: it is one of the four language skills (i.e. listening, reading, writing, and speaking skills). They are a means to allow learners to communicate with others and to express their ideas and emotions through pronouncing words and organizing them in sentence(s) (Ismail, 2021, p. 106).

Speaking skills (operational definition): the ability of foreign learners in Jordanian institutes to transmit their messages verbally to others and express their ideas and emotions through using sound language, pronouncing words right, and organizing them in sentence(s).

The non-native speakers of Arabic language: this term refers to everyone who learns the Arabic language but doesn’t speak it as a first language. It involves both foreigners and Arabs who don’t speak it as their first language (Ali, 2017, p. 85).

The non-native speakers of Arabic language (operational definition): this term refers to learners who learn Arabic language in institutes that are specialized in teaching Arabic to non-native speakers in Jordan during the academic year 2021-2022. These learners do not speak Arabic as their first language. They vary in terms of countries of origin and native languages.

D. Previous Literature

The researchers reviewed a number of related studies, and the following is a summary of some of this previous literature:

Alarabi (2021) aims to explore the activities used in developing the Arabic language skills of non-native speakers, including speaking skills in Egypt. He uses a descriptive analytical approach. To collect data, the previous studies were analyzed. In addition, the relevant literature was reviewed. It was found that the activities used in developing the Arabic skills of non-native speakers include: flipped questions, cooperative learning, discussions, interviews, round-tables, presentations, brainstorming, peer teaching, questions & answers, and exercises.

Bahruddin (2021) explores the effectiveness of using classroom activities in developing speaking skills in Indonesia. He uses a case study approach. To collect data, interviews and observations are used. The research finds that the classroom activities used in developing these skills include: discussion, lectures, questions and answers, presentations, reading, and collaborative learning.

Mohamamed (2021) aimed to identify the activities used for developing Arabic language skills—especially speaking—amongst the non-native speakers of Arabic language in Saudi Arabia (KSA). He used the descriptive analytical approach. To obtain information, the relevant studies and literature were analyzed. It was found that the activities used for developing the Arabic language skills—including speaking—amongst the non-native speakers of Arabic language in KSA include poetry, music, and rhythm.

Mykhailivna (2021) aims to identify the classroom activities used for developing English language skills—including that of speaking—amongst the non-native Arabic speakers in Ukraine. He uses a descriptive analytical approach. To obtain information, the relevant studies and literature were analyzed. It is found that the classroom activities used for developing the English language skills—including that of speaking—amongst non-native Arabic speakers in Ukraine include: interactive lectures, interactive role-playing games, group work, and use of alternative teaching techniques (video, internet).

Alissa (2020) seeks to identify the classroom activities most preferred for developing the speaking skills of students from the perspective of Arabic language teachers in Jordan. He uses the descriptive survey-based approach. The sample involves 183 female and male Arabic language teachers. The researcher utilizes a survey. It was found that the classroom activities most preferred for developing students’ speaking skills by Arabic language teachers include: competitive classroom activities (most preferred), followed by (in no particular order) recreational classroom activities, simulation activities, conversational classroom activities, and cooperative classroom activities. It is found that there is not a significant difference between respondents’ attitudes which can be attributed to gender or academic qualification. It was found that there are significant differences between respondents’ attitudes which can be attributed to the experience level of the instructor, with preference going towards those with ten years or more of classroom teaching.

Haj Hani (2020) aims to identify the activities used for developing the Arabic language skills—including that of speaking—amongst non-native speakers of Arabic language in Algeria. He used a descriptive analytical approach. To collect data, the relevant literature and previous studies were analyzed. The research found that the activities used for developing Arabic language skills—including that of speaking—amongst non-native speakers of Arabic in Algeria include: storytelling, scouting and practical methods, problem solving, discussion, dialogue, debate, and brainstorming.

Mahmoud (2020b) identifies the effectiveness of classroom visual activities in developing the speaking skills of non-native Arabic speakers in Egypt at the beginner level. These activities are: still picture analysis, mind-map analysis,
spreadsheet analysis, picture-to-phrase activities, and syntax mapping activities. He used a qualitative approach. He samples 16 learners who are non-native speakers of Arabic language. He used the method of observation to obtain data. Mahmoud found that the targeted activities were effective in developing the speaking skills of the non-native Arabic speakers in Egypt at the beginner level.

Mohammed (2016) aims to identify the classroom activities used for developing Arabic language skills—including that of speaking—amongst the non-native speakers of this language in Malaysia. He used a descriptive analytical approach. To obtain data, he reviewed the relevant studies and literature. It was found that the classroom activities used for developing the Arabic language skills include: questions and discussion, pictures, improvisational oral expression, simulation, representation, keys of speech, and cooperative learning.

II. METHODOLOGY

A. Research Design

A quantitative (descriptive) survey-based approach is adopted. It has been chosen because it suits the nature of the present study.

B. Study Population and Sample

The population consists of all the teachers who teach Arabic language to non-native speakers in Amman, Jordan. It involves 250 female and male teachers based on the statistical data saved by the ministry of education and the ministry of industry and trade during the year 2021. The study samples a representative cross-section of the population. Survey forms were distributed online to the sample group during the second semester of the academic year 2021-2022. The survey forms were filled out online. 186 survey forms were chosen randomly for analysis. This number was chosen based on the table of Kerjcie and Margan (1970). The distribution of the respondents based on gender is shown below in Table 1.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Variable</th>
<th>Category</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>Percentage</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Gender</td>
<td>Female</td>
<td>105</td>
<td>56.5%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Male</td>
<td>81</td>
<td>43.5%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Overall</td>
<td>186</td>
<td>100.0%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

C. Study Instrument

The researchers developed a survey aimed at obtaining data about the classroom activities used for developing the Arabic language speaking skills of non-native speakers. It was developed after reviewing previous studies and literature, such as the studies by Ahmad (2018) and Alissa (2020).

The initial version of the survey involved 32 items. It targeted five domains. The validity of the survey was reviewed by experts. These experts work as faculty members in the educational sciences in Jordanian and foreign universities and language institutes. They were asked to check the clarity, language, and relevancy of the items. Changes were made. The final version was drafted. It consists of 29 items that target five domains. Data in this regard is shown in Table 2 below:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Item No.</th>
<th>Domain</th>
<th>Number of items</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>6-5-4-3-2-1</td>
<td>First domain: Recreational activities</td>
<td>1-6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>11-10-9-8-7</td>
<td>Second domain: Competition-based activities</td>
<td>7-11</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>17-16-15-14-13-12</td>
<td>Third domain: Cooperative learning activities</td>
<td>12-17</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>OVERALL</td>
<td>(29)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Validity of the instrument

To check the constructed validity of the instrument, the researchers of the present study calculated the coefficient value of the correlation between each item and the overall degree. They calculated the coefficient value of the correlation between each item and the domain to which it belongs. The exploratory sample consists of 30 female and male teachers. The coefficient values of the correlation between each item and the overall degree lie within a range of 0.38-0.85. The coefficient values of the correlation between each item and domain range between 0.52-0.95. All the correlation coefficient values are accepted and statistically significant.

Reliability of the instrument

The reliability of the instrument was checked by using the test-retest method. The survey forms were passed to an exploratory sample consisting of 30 female and male teachers. They were passed again to those teachers after two weeks. The Pearson correlation coefficient values were calculated.
The internal consistency coefficient values were calculated. That was done through calculating Cronbach alpha coefficient values. They are shown in the table below:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Domain</th>
<th>The Pearson coefficient value</th>
<th>The Cronbach alpha coefficient value</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Recreational activities</td>
<td>0.81</td>
<td>0.75</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Competition-based activities</td>
<td>0.80</td>
<td>0.71</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Cooperative learning activities</td>
<td>0.83</td>
<td>0.73</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Dialogue-based activities</td>
<td>0.81</td>
<td>0.70</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Simulation-based activities</td>
<td>0.82</td>
<td>0.76</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Overall</td>
<td>0.86</td>
<td>0.82</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

D. Statistical Methods

To meet the goal of the present study and answer the study’s questions, the following statistical methods were used.

To classify means into high, moderate, and low means, the five point Likert scale is used. To set criteria for classifying such means, the study uses the following equation:

\[
\text{Interval} = \frac{\text{the maximum value in the scale} - \text{the minimum value in the scale}}{\text{the number of the required categories}}
\]

\[
\text{Interval} = \frac{5 - 1}{3} = 1.33
\]

The following criteria are set for classifying such means:

- (1.00–2.33): Low
- (2.34–3.67): Moderate
- (3.68–5.00): High

To answer the second question, the study conducts a t-test and one-way analysis of variance (ANOVA).

III. RESULTS AND ANALYSIS

A. Results Related to the First Question: To What Degree Are Classroom Activities Used for Developing the Arabic Language Speaking Skills of Non-Native Speakers From the Teachers’ Perspective?

To answer the study’s first question, means and standard deviations are calculated. In addition, ranks are identified. Table 4 shows such values:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Rank</th>
<th>No.</th>
<th>Domain</th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>Std.</th>
<th>Level</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>Competition-based activities</td>
<td>3.50</td>
<td>.88</td>
<td>Moderate</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>Cooperative learning activities</td>
<td>3.45</td>
<td>.80</td>
<td>Moderate</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>Recreational activities</td>
<td>3.45</td>
<td>.68</td>
<td>Moderate</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>Dialogue-based activities</td>
<td>3.42</td>
<td>.74</td>
<td>Moderate</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>Simulation-based activities</td>
<td>3.26</td>
<td>.87</td>
<td>Moderate</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Overall</td>
<td>3.42</td>
<td>.68</td>
<td>Moderate</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Based on Table 4, the means range between 3.36–3.50. The standard deviations range between 0.74–0.88. The degree to which classroom activities are used for developing Arabic language speaking skills of non-native speakers from the teachers’ perspective is moderate. The overall mean is 3.42. The overall standard deviation is 0.68. Domain no. 2 (competition-based activities) shows the highest mean (3.50). Its standard deviation is 0.88. The degree to which the competition-based classroom activities are used is moderate. The mean of domain no. 3 (cooperative learning activities) is 3.46. Its standard deviation is 0.80. The degree to which cooperative learning classroom activities are used is moderate.

The mean of domain no. 5 (simulation-based activities) is 3.26. Its standard deviation is 0.87. The degree to which such classroom activities are used is moderate.

In terms of the results related to each domain, they are shown below:

(a). First Domain: Recreational Activities

Means and standard deviations are calculated. In addition, ranks are identified. Those values represent the degree to which recreational activities are used for developing Arabic language speaking skills of the non-native speakers from the teachers’ perspective. They are shown in the table below:
Based on Table 5, item no. 2 (language games) ranked first with a mean of 3.90 and a standard deviation of 1.03. Item no. 5 (songs and chants) ranked last, with a mean of 3.20 and a standard deviation of 1.04.

(b). Second Domain: Competition-Based Activities

Means and standard deviations are calculated. In addition, ranks are identified. Those values represent the degree to which competition-based activities are used for developing the Arabic language speaking skills of non-native speakers from the teachers’ perspective. They are shown in the table below:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Rank</th>
<th>No.</th>
<th>Domain</th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>Std.</th>
<th>Level</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>Guessing the words: Students give a description for the picture displayed on the card. The student who guesses the word correctly first shall win.</td>
<td>3.90</td>
<td>.94</td>
<td>High</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>Scattered words: Students rearrange the letters of words to form correct words. The student who wins is the one who identifies the greatest number of correct words and repeats them correctly in front of everyone.</td>
<td>3.70</td>
<td>1.15</td>
<td>Moderate</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>Who am I? Each team of students asks the teacher questions to know the profession written on the card. The team who wins is the one which guesses the profession written in the card first.</td>
<td>3.40</td>
<td>1.11</td>
<td>Moderate</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>One-minute session: The teacher asks the students to introduce themselves within one minute. The student who identifies himself/herself while mentioning the greatest amount of information shall win.</td>
<td>3.30</td>
<td>1.29</td>
<td>Moderate</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5</td>
<td>11</td>
<td>Who guessed first? Students ask questions to two teams, to identify the profession written in the card. The team who wins is the one that guesses it right first within the specified time.</td>
<td>3.20</td>
<td>1.15</td>
<td>Moderate</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Overall</td>
<td>3.50</td>
<td>.88</td>
<td>Moderate</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Based on Table 6, statement no. 9 shows the highest mean (3.90). Its standard deviation is 0.94. The latter statement is related to guessing words. Based on the latter mean, the extent of using the targeted classroom activities is high. Statement no. 11 shows the least mean (3.30). Its standard deviation is 1.15. The latter statement is related to who guessed in the first game. Based on the latter mean, the extent of using the targeted classroom activities is high.

(c). Third Domain: Cooperative Learning Activities.

Means and standard deviations are calculated. In addition, ranks are identified. Those values represent the degree to which cooperation-based activities are used for developing the Arabic language speaking skills of non-native speakers from their teachers’ perspective. They are shown in the table below:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Rank</th>
<th>No.</th>
<th>Domain</th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>Std.</th>
<th>Level</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>Language games: Teacher and student engage in language games. Such games include: Letter cards game, letter and word arrangement game, presentation and naming game, reading words in cards game, crossword puzzle, puzzle box, riddles, and puzzles.</td>
<td>3.90</td>
<td>1.03</td>
<td>High</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>Digital video-related hints: Students make a presentation that’s associated with video and images</td>
<td>3.60</td>
<td>.92</td>
<td>Moderate</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>Virtual trips: The lessons are given through a group of verbal questions. Students search online for information in groups and in a cooperative manner to reach an answer within the right time.</td>
<td>3.50</td>
<td>1.09</td>
<td>Moderate</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>Anecdotes: Students narrate short stories that include comics and represent specific situation(s) or narrate sayings that are characterized with a sense of humor and entertainment.</td>
<td>3.30</td>
<td>1.02</td>
<td>Moderate</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>Performing comic roles: Students represent a comic scene, through which they express themselves or others in a specific situation.</td>
<td>3.30</td>
<td>1.07</td>
<td>Moderate</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>Songs and chants: Students recite words that are accompanied with music</td>
<td>3.20</td>
<td>1.04</td>
<td>Moderate</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Overall</td>
<td>3.50</td>
<td>.68</td>
<td>Moderate</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
which dialogue-based activities are used for developing the Arabic language speaking skills of non-native speakers

(d). Fourth Domain: Dialogue-Based Activities

Means and standard deviations are calculated. In addition, ranks are identified. Those values represent the degree to which dialogue-based activities are used for developing the Arabic language speaking skills of non-native speakers from the teachers’ perspective. They are shown in the table below:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Rank</th>
<th>No.</th>
<th>Domain</th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>Std.</th>
<th>Level</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>16</td>
<td>Group discussion: Each group discusses a specific topic. Then, they will discuss the topic with the rest of the groups.</td>
<td>4.03</td>
<td>1.03</td>
<td>High</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>17</td>
<td>Think - Pair - Share: The teacher asks students a question and gives them time to think about the answer individually (Think). Then, each student presents his / her answer before his / her colleague and mentions the reason for choosing this answer (Pair). After that, he / she shall share his / her answer with the rest of the students and the reason for choosing this answer (Share).</td>
<td>3.75</td>
<td>1.23</td>
<td>High</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>14</td>
<td>Key cards: The teacher gives a card to each student. This card includes one of the following: 1 - A text with blanks, and the student must fill those blanks verbally 2 - Headings for several topics, and the student must choose one of them and talk about it. 3 - A visual or functional keyword is displayed, and the student must paraphrase it by using her / his own language.</td>
<td>3.49</td>
<td>1.10</td>
<td>Moderate</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4</td>
<td>13</td>
<td>Completing the story: The teacher begins by narrating the beginning of a story. Then, the rest of the students participate through narrating the rest of the story verbally</td>
<td>3.48</td>
<td>1.11</td>
<td>Moderate</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5</td>
<td>15</td>
<td>Information Gap: The teacher gives part of the question to one group, and hides it from the other group. Each group searches for the correct solution. Then, the two groups communicate verbally with each other and share ideas to reach an answer for the question</td>
<td>3.04</td>
<td>1.22</td>
<td>Moderate</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>The listening triangle: The teacher divides the students into groups. Each group includes three students. The first student: speaks, reads and explains the idea The second student: He / she listens carefully and asks questions to the first students to clarify the idea. The third student monitors the progress of the conversation and provides feedback. Then, the roles of the three students in each group are switched. Then, new topics, ideas and concepts are addressed.</td>
<td>2.98</td>
<td>1.27</td>
<td>Moderate</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Overall</td>
<td>3.46</td>
<td>0.80</td>
<td>Moderate</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Based on Table 7, item no. 16 (group discussions) ranked first with a mean of 4.03 and a standard deviation of 1.03. Based on the mean, the extent of using group discussions is considered high. Item no. 12 (the listening triangle) ranked last, with a mean of 2.98 and a standard deviation of 1.24. Based on the mean, the extent of using this activity is considered moderate.

Based on Table 8, item no. 18 (multimedia) showed the highest mean (4.10) with a standard deviation of 0.85. Based
on the mean, the extent of using multimedia is considered high. Item no. 20 (phone call) ranked last, with a mean of 2.60 and a standard deviation of 1.30. Based on the mean, the extent of using this activity is considered moderate.

(e). Fifth Domain: Simulation-Based Activities

Means and standard deviations are calculated. In addition, ranks are identified. Those values represent the degree to which simulation-based activities are used for developing the Arabic language speaking skills of non-native speakers from the teachers’ perspective. They are shown in the table below:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Rank</th>
<th>No.</th>
<th>Domain</th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>Std.</th>
<th>Level</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>25</td>
<td>The teacher: The students present a model for the role of the teacher in the classroom through a mini-learning situation. This situation simulates the educational situations presented by their teacher.</td>
<td>3.43</td>
<td>1.19</td>
<td>Moderate</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>27</td>
<td>Broadcaster: Students present a model for the role of a broadcaster on television. They make an interview with colleagues and ask them questions.</td>
<td>3.35</td>
<td>1.24</td>
<td>Moderate</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>28</td>
<td>For an artist: Students present a model for the role of an artist. They present a work of art in any artistic field (singing, acting, drawing, etc.).</td>
<td>3.31</td>
<td>1.15</td>
<td>Moderate</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4</td>
<td>29</td>
<td>Chef: Students provide a model for the role of a chef in preparing food. Then, they describe how to prepare a specific dish.</td>
<td>3.15</td>
<td>1.24</td>
<td>Moderate</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5</td>
<td>26</td>
<td>Environmental Engineer: Students provide a model for the role of the environmental engineer in preserving the environment and energy, finding technical solutions to fight against pollution and other environmental issues.</td>
<td>3.07</td>
<td>1.23</td>
<td>Moderate</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Overall</td>
<td>3.26</td>
<td>.87</td>
<td>Moderate</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Based on Table 9, item no. 25 (teacher) showed the highest mean (3.43) with a standard deviation of 1.19. Based on the mean, the extent of using this activity is considered moderate. Item no. 26 (environmental engineer) ranked last, with a mean of 3.07 and a standard deviation of 1.23. Based on the mean, the extent of using this activity is considered moderate.

B. Results Related to the Second Question: Are There Significant Differences (\(A=0.05\)) Between the Means of Respondents’ Estimations Which Can Be Attributed to Gender?

Means and standard deviations are calculated. In addition, the t-test was conducted. The values are shown in Table No. 10 below.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Domain</th>
<th>Gender</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>Std.</th>
<th>T value</th>
<th>DF</th>
<th>Sig.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Recreational language activities</td>
<td>Male</td>
<td>105</td>
<td>3.47</td>
<td>.718</td>
<td>.362</td>
<td>184</td>
<td>.718</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Female</td>
<td>81</td>
<td>3.43</td>
<td>.637</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Competition-based language activities</td>
<td>Male</td>
<td>105</td>
<td>3.50</td>
<td>.922</td>
<td>.022</td>
<td>184</td>
<td>.983</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Female</td>
<td>81</td>
<td>3.50</td>
<td>.826</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Cooperation-based language activities</td>
<td>Male</td>
<td>105</td>
<td>3.47</td>
<td>.826</td>
<td>.182</td>
<td>184</td>
<td>.856</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Female</td>
<td>81</td>
<td>3.45</td>
<td>.767</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Dialogue-based language activities</td>
<td>Male</td>
<td>104</td>
<td>3.42</td>
<td>.730</td>
<td>.005</td>
<td>184</td>
<td>.996</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Female</td>
<td>79</td>
<td>3.42</td>
<td>.747</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Simulation-based language activities</td>
<td>Male</td>
<td>104</td>
<td>3.31</td>
<td>.812</td>
<td>.900</td>
<td>184</td>
<td>.369</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Female</td>
<td>79</td>
<td>3.19</td>
<td>.940</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Overall</td>
<td></td>
<td>105</td>
<td>3.44</td>
<td>.693</td>
<td>.315</td>
<td>184</td>
<td>.753</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Based on Table 10, there is not any significant difference—at the significance level of (\(a=0.05\))—between the means of respondents’ estimations which can be attributed to gender (male/female).

IV. DISCUSSIONS AND CONCLUSION

A. The First Question

With regards to the first question, the overall result may be attributed to the significance of the classroom activities—specifically the competition-based language activities—in improving the learning process verbally and promoting cooperation and collaboration. It also may be attributed to the significance of classroom activities in promoting creativity, excellence, group work, and developing a healthy personality. It may be attributed to the significance of the classroom activities in developing the physical, mental, psychological, and social abilities and skills of learners.

It may be attributed to the significance of the classroom activities in developing the ability of learners to pronounce words correctly and making speaking activities enjoyable. It also may be attributed to the significance of classroom activities in raising the motivation to learn Arabic language amongst the non-native speakers and encouraging them to
talk in the language. Likewise, it may be attributed to the significance of classroom activities in providing speakers with a lot of time to talk and enabling them to address the problems they face when communicating with others. Additionally, it may be attributed to the significance of the latter classroom activities in overcoming shyness and low levels of self-confidence. Furthermore, it may be attributed to the significance of these activities in enabling students to join competitions in real life and improving their communication skills.

The result may be attributed to the fact that the workplaces of the learners provide them with opportunities to develop, show creativity, and keep up with the latest technological and scientific developments. Workplaces offer such opportunities through offering professional training programs. Such programs allow the learners to master work skills and have cultural exchanges between countries. This indicates that the teachers who teach Arabic language to the non-native speakers received good training in regard to the way one should use classroom activities in developing speaking skills. In addition, most of these teachers do not have graduate degrees. Thus, such teachers have a moderate ability in using classroom activities for developing the speaking skills of the Arabic language learners who are not native speakers. In addition, there are various classroom activities used for developing the speaking skills of the Arabic language learners who are not native speakers. Such activities can be carried out easily.

The researchers of the present study attribute the result to the belief that the Arabic language learners who are part of such education programs that offer increased attention to competition-based language activities relative to others. This is because learners realize that such activities raise their motivation, speed, and accuracy. The researchers of the present study attribute the result to the scarcity of the simulation-based language activities in the training programs. They attribute the result to the fact that doing such activities requires having special clothes and decorations. That requires incurring additional costs by teachers and students.

The researchers attribute the result to the fact that programs that keep up with the latest tech and scientific developments yield higher degrees of student success in terms of speaking skills in Arabic. Thus, classroom activities must fit with the latest technological and scientific developments in the country.

The results of the present study are consistent with the results reached by Ahmad (2015), Alissa (2020), and Ashar’Ah (2013). The researchers found that the competition-based activities are the ones preferred the most by Arabic language learners who are not native speakers.

B. The Second Question

With regards to the second question, the researchers of the present study attribute this result to the fact that the teachers who teach Arabic language to the non-native speakers work on the same content and in similar working conditions and workplace environments. They attribute this result to the fact that these teachers have similar levels of awareness about the significance of using the classroom activities for developing the Arabic language speaking skills of non-native language learners. They attribute this result to the fact that most of the sampled teachers are females who have a graduate degree.

The results of this study are consistent with those reached by Alessa (2020) and Al-Durayhim (2021). Said researchers also did not find any significant difference that can be attributed to gender.

V. FINAL RECOMMENDATIONS AND SUGGESTIONS

In light of the results of the present study, the researchers of this study recommend:
- Increasing the frequency and presence of classroom activities used for developing the Arabic language speaking skills of the non-native speakers. The researchers of the present study recommend using a variety of such activities.
- Exploring the obstacles that hinder the use of classroom activities for developing the Arabic language speaking skills of the non-native speakers. The researchers of the present study recommend offering suggestions for addressing those obstacles.
- Showing attention to the language simulation-based activities. The researchers of the present study recommend meeting the requirement entailed in carrying out such activities in the classroom.
- Conducting a study on the extent to which using classroom activities is beneficial for developing Arabic language skills.

ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

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Trait Emotional Intelligence and Willingness to Communicate in Foreign Language Learning

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Abstract—Over the last decades, the integration of interdisciplinary theories and methodologies in the study of foreign language learning has gained significant attention. In contrast to the cognitive approach, an innovative psychological perspective is adopted to understand the influence of emotions in the learning process. Inspired by such a new turn, this paper investigated the relationship between learners’ Trait Emotional Intelligence (Trait EI) and their Willingness to Communicate (WTC) in foreign language classes. 181 first-year Chinese students majoring in English participated in the study. By using quantitative methods, it was found that participants’ Trait EI and its four sub-items all significantly correlated with their L2 WTC level. Moreover, the regression analysis indicated that Trait EI can have a predictive effect on L2 WTC. In terms of the four facets of Trait EI, only welling-being and sociability could predict participants’ L2 WTC.

Index Terms—Trait EI, Willingness to Communicate, foreign language learning, English speaking teaching

I. INTRODUCTION

With the increasing popularity of interdisciplinary research in academia, many alternative theories from other subjects have contributed to the study of foreign language learning and teaching. More and more researchers begin to explore those long-standing issues like the effectiveness of foreign language learning & teaching from another unique perspective. Unlike the traditional research which mainly focused on the cognitive aspects of language (Prior, 2019), the new trend starting from the 1980s employed a psychological view to understand the process of language learning & teaching (Dewaele & Li, 2020, p. 36). To be more specific, as no mankind can be utterly rational, human behaviors are widely influenced by his/her psychological status and emotions. In contrast to negative emotions like “anxiety”, positive emotion, on the other hand, was believed to “build students’ longer-term resiliency and hardiness” (Dewaele et al., 2019, p. 17) and helped them better tackle linguistic problems during language learning. Therefore, the main issue at this stage would be how to combat the negative emotions and arouse learners’ positive emotions like enjoyment and happiness. While some scholars like Piasecka (2016) and Gregersen (2016) argued external interventions like the application of a particular teaching material or method can serve as a stimulus to make learners happier, others identified a more subtle and internal factor named Trait Emotional Intelligence (Trait EI) that had a decisive role in one’s emotional experience. Compared with the intervention studies, the research on Trait EI does not intend to change individuals’ emotional status immediately but aims to identify the interplay between Trait EI, the emotional experience and foreign language learning & teaching. By understanding such interplay, teachers are capable of finding out the underling reasons for one’s success or failure in language learning from the psychological aspect, which is beneficial for them to develop more comprehensive pedagogical methods. Under such circumstances, this essay aims to explore the relationship between Trait EI and Chinese students’ oral English learning and will pay heed to students’ “Willingness To Communicate” (WTC) in oral English class rather than their performance in a particular test. WTC as an important indicator can clearly reflect one’s learning effectiveness in oral English class (Zarrinabadi & Tanbakooei, 2016). By conducting quantitative methods, the present study will unveil the way in which one’s WTC in oral English class is influenced by his/her Trait EI level rather than simple linguistic factors.

II. LITERATURE REVIEW

A. Willingness to Communicate in Foreign Language Learning

Although the study of Willingness To Communicate (WTC) was limited to individual’s predisposition to communicate with others in their first language (L1) at the beginning (McCroskey, 1992), it soon extended to the use of a second language, especially in the field of foreign language learning. The reasons for such an extension are obvious. Compared with L1 WTC, L2 WTC plays a vital role in language learning. People with low L1 WTC do not necessarily possess a low communicative competence and low L1 WTC will not prevent individuals from learning their mother
tongue either. Nevertheless, second and foreign language learners who are reluctant to communicate with others in L2 are less likely to have a high L2 competence as the ultimate purpose of learning a language is to use it in real-life situations other than having good results on a particular test. Learners with high WTC, on the other hand, can often “seek out opportunities to engage in L2 communication” (Peng, 2012, p. 203) and their L2 learning effectiveness will also be significantly improved.

Under such circumstances, researchers then tried to probe into the underlying factors that influenced one’s WTC level in foreign language learning. One important and all-inclusive model was MacIntyre et al.’s (1998) pyramid model of L2 WTC which indicated the complex linguistic, psychological and contextual reasons behind the L2 WTC level. MacIntyre et al. (1998) classified those factors as situational and stable. The former can be seen as the “immediate factor” (Zarrinabadi et al, 2019) that was dependent on a particular context while the latter, including individual’s attitudes towards the L2 community, communicative competence and personality, was more intrinsic. In the following years, such a model served as a major framework for L2 WTC research with a large amount of empirical evidence being generated both quantitatively and qualitatively. For instance, Liu and Jackson (2008) employed various questionnaires to examine the relationship between learners’ Unwillingness To Communication (UWTC) and their classroom anxiety. It was found that the two variables were significantly correlated. Most students were willing to communicate but due to anxiety, many “did not like to risk using or speaking English in class” (Liu & Jackson, 2008, p. 82). Likewise, Dewaele (2019) identified foreign language classroom anxiety (FLCA) as the major negative predictor of L2 WTC (adjusted $R^2 = .30, \beta = -.48, P < .001$).

Obviously, these studies were affected by the prevalence of “anxiety studies” starting from the 1980s when Krashen (1985) proposed the “Affective Filter Hypothesis” which called for researchers’ attention to the emotional factors in language learning. In this phase, a specialized questionnaire, namely the “Foreign Language Classroom Anxiety Scale (FLCAS)” was designed to identify learners’ anxiety levels. Due to its high validity and reliability, such a questionnaire gained popularity in the study of foreign language learning, which in turn made “anxiety” become the “exclusive emotional focus” (Dewaele & Li, 2020, p. 36) from the 1980s to 2010. Nevertheless, mankind’s emotions and psychological status are too complex to conclude with merely one word or phrase. Anxiety could not be the only feeling that learners experienced when learning a foreign language. Other emotions like happiness and enjoyment or frustration and burnout can have a great impact on the effectiveness of foreign language learning and teaching. It is necessary for language teachers and researchers to identify those emotions so as to improve the students’ learning experience in a more subtle and caring way.

### B. Trait Emotional Intelligence and Foreign Language Learning

With Goleman’s seminal book “EI: Why It Can Matter More than IQ” in 1995, the public started to realize that as an indicator of one’s emotional and interpersonal ability, “Emotional Intelligence” played a vital role in one’s success. An increasing number of firms and organizations would even measure applicants’ EI to evaluate their potential (Matthews et al., 2002). Nevertheless, as the study went further, many researchers like Petrides began to notice that the definition of EI was somewhat vague. Moreover, questionnaires were often designed by different scholars based on their own research purposes. One individual could often be tested with extremely distinct EI levels because of the inconformity of measurement (Liu & Zhang, 2012, p. 45). Under such circumstances, Petrides (2010) classified EI into Trait Emotional Intelligence (Trait EI) and Ability Emotional Intelligence (Ability EI). The former is related to one’s intrinsic personality and is often measured by self-report questionnaires, indicating an individual’s capability in emotional self-perception. It can be seen as the “constellation of emotion-related dispositions” (Dewalele & Li, 2020, p. 35). By contrast, Ability EI pertains to one’s emotional cognitive ability and is normally tested through performance tasks similar to the traditional IQ tests (Chen & Zhang, 2020). It is clear that Trait EI investigates an individual’s internal emotional experience, aiming to assess the “typical performance” while Ability EI examines one’s emotional skills under some certain situations and can often lack objectivity (Petrides et al., 2007). Therefore, an increasing number of researchers tend to employ the concept of Trait EI to understand the complicated process of foreign language learning as such a process is invariably long and arduous. The instrument of Trait EI can reveal four facets of individuals’ Trait EI: “well-being”, “self-control”, “emotionality” and “sociability”. Well-being refers to one’s capability in feeling “cheerful and satisfied with life”. Individuals with high well-being are often more confident and optimistic (Dewaele, 2018, p. 471). Emotionality pertains to one’s ability in empathizing with others. The facet of self-control obviously indicates the ability to control and regulate emotions while sociability can be seen as the indication of one’s social awareness (Dewaele, 2018).

Substantial empirical evidence has proved that Trait EI can have significant impacts on foreign language learning and teaching. On the one hand, teachers’ Trait EI level can affect their attitudes towards teaching (Dewaele, 2018). On the other hand, students’ Trait EI level can influence their sense of enjoyment and achievement, which may ultimately improve or hinder the language learning process (Chen & Zhang, 2020, p. 4). In a survey of 1307 Chinese high school students, Li (2019) found that students’ English grades correlated with their Trait EI at a medium level. Chen and Zhang (2020) also found such correlations among Chinese postgraduates. Apart from the correlation analysis between Trait EI and English learning in general, studies were also conducted on the relationship between a particular English skill (e.g., reading; listening; writing or speaking). Abdolrezapour and Tavakoli (2012) explored the relationship between learners’ Trait EI level and their reading comprehension ability. The result indicated that high Trait EI significantly correlated with reading comprehension ability.
with high reading comprehension ability (R = .660, P < .01). With all the endeavors, Wei et al. (2021) first explored the impact of Trait EI on L2 WTC among Chinese non-English majors. It was found that Trait EI can significantly predict L2 WTC (β = .131, P < .001). At the same time, Trait EI can also have a predictive effect on learners’ enjoyment in language class (β = .103, P < .001), which would ultimately affect one’s L2 WTC (β = .859, P < .001). After this attempt, Wei et al. (2022) continued to investigate the interplay between Trait EI, class social climate and L2 WTC. Such research also confirmed the strong connections between Trait EI and L2 WTC. Nevertheless, the two studies overlooked the four sub-items of Trait EI and thus, failed to provide systematic and holistic understandings. The present study aims to fill this research gap by analyzing the role that sub-factors play in affecting L2 WTC.

III. METHODOLOGY

A. Sampling and Participants

Before the study, ethical approval for the research was obtained by the School of Foreign Languages and Cultures at T College. All the participants were informed that the data was collected for research only and they were entitled not to share their data at any given time. A pilot study was conducted before the formal test. No ambiguity or vague expressions was found in the questionnaires by the five participants in the pilot study.

A convenience sampling was carried out in December 2022 when a one-term oral English class came to end. All the participants were first-year English majors. The second author forwarded the online questionnaires to the students in the class by the means of Wenjuanxing. Wenjuanxing is a widely used platform in China for questionnaire surveys and data collection. Participants can simply scan the QR code generated by Wenjuanxing and fill out the form on their own mobile phones. A total of 181 students constituted the final sample with 28 males (15.5%) and 153 females (84.5%). The mean age was 18.41 (Max: 23, Min: 17; SD=.715).

B. Research Instruments

Two online questionnaires were distributed to the participants: 1) Trait EI Questionnaire-Short Form (TEIQue-SF); 2) Willingness to Communicate-Short Form (WCT-SF). Characteristics of the two instruments can be seen in Table 1. The first one was a simplified version of the original Trait EI questionnaire which was introduced by Petrides in 2009. Unlike the original questionnaire which contained 153 items, TEIQue-SF only contained 30 items and thus, easier for the participants to fill out and more convenient for the researchers to collect the data. Moreover, the validity and reliability were also good despite the limited questions. According to Dewaele and Li (2020), the Cronbach’s alpha for TEIQue-SF’s reliability was above .70 in many situations. In terms of the present study, all the questions were shown on a 7-point Likert Scale (from 1- completely disagree to 7- completely agree) and the reliability result was considerably satisfying with Cronbach’s alpha at .911. All versions of the Trait EI questionnaire can be obtained for free via the website of the London Psychometric Laboratory (www.psychometriclab.com). When it comes to the evaluation of one’s L2 WTC, both quantitative and qualitative approaches have been employed (Zarrinabadi et al., 2019) and the current study adapted Liu and Jackson’s (2008) questionnaire mentioned in the second part. It consisted of eight items and reliability was at .930.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Instrument</th>
<th>Number of Items</th>
<th>Reliability</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>TEIQue-SF</td>
<td>30</td>
<td>.911</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>WCT-SF</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>.930</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

IV. RESULTS AND DISCUSSIONS

The descriptive results can be seen in Table 2. As is illustrated from the table, while the participants showed a good speaking willingness in the oral English Class (Mean=4.91), the difference between individuals was still great with SD = 1.08. In terms of the Trait EI and its four sub-items, most students regarded themselves as a high medium level, with global Trait EI at 4.93 (SD = .68). Such a result was akin to Chen and Zhang’s (2020) study in which 72 first-year postgraduates indicated the mean score of Trait EI at 4.92 (SD = .68). With regard to participants’ four sub-items of Trait EI, it was found that well-being and emotionality had higher mean scores than self-control and sociability. A high score in well-being indicated that the subjects generally had positive views of themselves such as feeling successful and confident while high emotionality scores meant that the participants were alive to their and other people’s feelings (Petrides, 2017). In comparison, the test takers’ sociability mean score served as the lowest, which was also consistent with Chen and Zhang’s (2020) study. As discussed in their study, the low sociability level meant that subjects were not certain about their “social relationship”. Given that all subjects were first-year students who lacked social experience, such a result was plausible.
After the preparatory descriptive analysis, the relationship between students’ Trait EI and L2 WTC was first explored by Pearson Correlation Analysis (two-tailed). The skewness and kurtosis values for the six variables fell between -.503 to .017 and -.686 to .541, indicating that their distributions are normal. As is shown in Table 3, participants’ global Trait EI and its four sub-components were all significantly correlated with their L2 WTC (P < .01) in a moderate to a strong positive level. Therefore, it might be inferred that students with high Trait EI may be more self-motivated in oral English class and are more likely to show initiative in practicing oral English. This finding was supported by prior research that found positive correlations between Trait EI and English-speaking performance (Khoei, 2014; Abdolrezapour, 2016; Chen & Zhang, 2020). The reason for such a result may arise from the communicative nature of speaking skills. Compared with other English skills like reading, individuals are often required not only to comprehend the linguistic meaning but also the emotions in real-time communication. As Rintell (1984) said, being able to understand the emotional state of the person you were communicating with was key for successful communication.

As the correlation analysis was not capable of revealing the causal relationship between variables, the linear regression analysis was conducted to find out the possible predictive effect. By using the regression method “enter”, the data illustrated that the global Trait EI significantly predicted participants’ L2 WTC (β = .537, P < .01). The adjusted R² was .289 which meant that global Trait EI could predict 28.9% variance of students’ L2 WTC level (See Table 4). Compared with previous research (cf. Costa & Faria, 2015; Chen & Zhang, 2020) where R² was invariably below .20, such a result was undoubtedly significant and exceptional. The reasons for this unusual data might be complex but one thing was certain. All the previous research only explored the causal relationship between Trait EI and overall speaking performance through structured tests or self-perceived reports. Nevertheless, the impact of Trait EI is often subtle and indirect. It is more likely that Trait EI first influences learners’ L2 WTC. Then as a mediation, L2 WTC generates salient impacts on the speaking performance. Therefore, future research should move beyond the relationship between Trait EI and English proficiency, identifying more factors mediating learners’ language proficiency.

After the simple regression analysis, the causal relationship between four sub-items and L2 WTC was also explored by multiple regression analysis (stepwise method). Unlike Trait EI, the linear combination of “well-being”, “self-control”, “emotionality” and “sociability” cannot significantly predict L2 WTC. As is shown in Table 5, only “well-being” and “sociability” had predictive effects on L2 WTC (P < .05) and the standardized coefficients were .394 and .175 respectively. The result echoed both the theoretical findings as well as the previous empirical studies. First, it is argued by positive psychology that a high score in well-being signifies a strong presence of positive feelings, which can enhance students’ ability to learn a foreign language effectively and overcome the lingering effects of negative emotions (Dewaele et al., 2019). Additionally, Chen and Zhang (2020) found that well-being had a significant impact on students’ overall performance (adjusted R² = .05, β = 1.37, P = .034) and the combined effect of well-being and self-control significantly predicted students’ speaking performance. Learners with low levels of self-control and high levels of well-being showed the greatest improvement in their speaking scores. In terms of the sociability factor, while the mean score was the lowest in the study, its unique effect of it cannot be neglected. Since human beings are social creatures in nature, language learning in essence is a social behavior. Sociable learners are more confident and comfortable in social situations, which enables them to effectively communicate their ideas and thoughts in English.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Variables</th>
<th>Minimum</th>
<th>Maximum</th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>Std. Deviation</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>L2 WTC</td>
<td>1.88</td>
<td>6.88</td>
<td>4.91</td>
<td>1.08</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Global Trait EI</td>
<td>2.83</td>
<td>6.67</td>
<td>4.93</td>
<td>.68</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Well-Being</td>
<td>2.17</td>
<td>7.00</td>
<td>5.17</td>
<td>.97</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Self-Control</td>
<td>3.00</td>
<td>6.50</td>
<td>4.93</td>
<td>.71</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Emotionality</td>
<td>2.63</td>
<td>6.75</td>
<td>5.20</td>
<td>.79</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sociability</td>
<td>2.50</td>
<td>6.67</td>
<td>4.26</td>
<td>.75</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 2

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Variables</th>
<th>Global Trait EI</th>
<th>Well-Being</th>
<th>Self-Control</th>
<th>Emotionality</th>
<th>Sociability</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>L2 WTC</td>
<td>.537*</td>
<td>.495*</td>
<td>.430*</td>
<td>.428*</td>
<td>.403*</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

P < .01

Table 3

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Variables</th>
<th>β</th>
<th>Std. Error</th>
<th>t</th>
<th>P</th>
<th>Adjusted R²</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Trait EI</td>
<td>.537</td>
<td>.915</td>
<td>8.521</td>
<td>.000</td>
<td>.285</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 4

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that can be done” in terms of the study emotions in affecting the language learning process. As indicated by Dewaele and Li (2018, p. 18), “there is much more that can be done” in terms of the study of emotions and language learning.

V. CONCLUSION

There are a large number of studies on L2 WTC and foreign language learners’ Trait EI has also received wider attention during the last decade. Nevertheless, very few studies link the two areas. Understanding the multifarious impact of Trait EI on foreign language learning is crucial for both teachers and students as Trait EI is “amenable to change, and this change may lead to concomitant improvements in some of its correlates” (Petrides, 2017, p. 6). This is especially vital given the relentless COVID-19 pandemic in which individuals’ emotions are prone to be affected.

Under such circumstances, the current research uses two online questionnaires: TEIQue-SF and the WCT-SF to explore the possible relationship between Trait EI and L2 WTC. It provides evidence that learners’ Trait EI level and the four sub-factors significantly link to their L2 WTC. Additionally, by using both simple and multiple regression analysis, the study shows that Trait EI can have predictive effects on L2 WTC while only well-being and sociability can significantly predict subjects’ L2 WTC. Further research should examine the role of a wider range of factors in mediating learners’ language proficiency and their Trait EI level. It is vital to understand the mechanism of Trait EI and emotions in affecting the language learning process. As indicated by Dewaele and Li (2018, p. 18), “there is much more that can be done” in terms of the study of emotions and language learning.

REFERENCES


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Teaching Writing Skills to EFL Learners: Issues and Concerns

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Abstract—The research examines the approaches employed by the L2 instructors at King Khalid University in Saudi Arabia to help undergraduate learners improve their writing skills. The study focuses on why writing tasks are complex for most L2 learners despite providing them with the necessary input and motivation. A survey and focus group interviews were used as the study methodologies, and two campuses were chosen for the data collection. According to the study, many teachers rely on techniques that need to include the steps necessary for helping learners practice writing. It also indicates that learners rarely show creativity in their writing tasks, and their writing proficiency heavily depends on rote memorization from pre-written materials. Viewing writing as solely a product and expecting to see only the finished product, teachers ignore learners’ developmental stages in writing activities, eventually affecting the learners' capacity for creative writing. The study implies that integrating interaction into the product approach is necessary for successful writing classes.

Index Terms—EFL learners, genre approach, product approach, process approach, teaching writing skills

I. INTRODUCTION

For L2 learners at King Khalid University's undergraduate level, writing tasks appear to be anxiety-inducing because they require internal mental processes and skills to consider the different aspects of writing. Their anxiety level significantly maximizes when they need to write for academic purposes. That happens because learners must adhere to several formal writing criteria, including legible handwriting, precise punctuation, accurate spelling, grammar, appropriate word choice, and syntactic structures. Even though many learners are good at speaking English in casual settings when it comes to writing for academic exams, they sometimes struggle. Sometimes L2 learners conflate the rhetorical conventions of their native language with those used in the English language. The conventions, cultural, and social norms of writing in the target language need to be better understood by learners since they tend to borrow the writing styles from their language to the target language. Jhon (2004) remarks that written language looks at how thoughts and oral language are transformed into written language. Teachers should highlight how spoken and written language significantly differ when teaching writing. L2 learners need to know that word choices in written texts occasionally diverge from those used in spoken language. According to Ur (1991), one reason why teaching writing differs from teaching speaking is that the two modes of discourse have some fundamental differences. As spoken language is typically more loosely structured than written language, it can contain clichés, long descriptions, backchannels, and interruptions, all of which should be avoided in formally written documents. Colloquial expressions like broken syntax, asides, slang, and rhetorical figures sneak into L2 learners' writings because they seem unfamiliar with the features of academic writing (Brown, 2014). Many teachers considerably value writing mechanics and encourage learners to write without errors. Therefore, learners are more concerned with achieving perfection rather than reflecting ingenuity and creative thought. That mindset of the teachers prompts the learners merely to memorize and write and thus secure good marks. L2 learners need to write relatively lengthy replies during summative exams, and only a few can do the work. Most learners like objective-style questions since they are easier to complete, less taxing to respond to, and even allow for guesswork. Since teachers are highly cognizant of the learners' general temperaments that most learners detest being asked to think of creative responses to open-ended questions, they typically correspond to the interests and trends of the learners. Due to the present circumstances, many teachers need more support to include...
interactive exercises in their instructional strategies that might help learners improve their writing abilities. Because the same teaching approaches are employed repeatedly for all sorts of learners to develop their writing skills, teachers may be held accountable for developing negative anxiety regarding writing activities in their learners’ minds.

II. LITERATURE REVIEW

The conventional way of thinking often rejects the idea that writing is a multistep mental activity. That mindset is in line with the nature of product approaches, which are largely focused on writing mechanics. A student writer must produce writing that is grammatically and linguistically correct (Firkins et al., 2007). Nunan (1991) has mentioned a perennial tension in most aspects of language learning and teaching between language as a process and writing as a product.

Syllabus design is another issue that confirms if the emphasis is given to the product or process approach of writing. Nunan (1991) points out that traditionally, in curriculum practice, a distinction has been drawn between the syllabus designer’s activities, which have been focused on the product, and the activities of the methodologies, which have been focused on processes. The teaching-learning activities through product-based approaches involve learners imitating, copying, and transforming models of correct language (Nunan, 1991). The earliest teaching method was that learners should acquire adequate knowledge about forming or structuring sentences before they write coherent essays or paragraphs. Teachers require learners to revise their work until they can write without errors. Instead of allowing learners to express themselves creatively, it forces them to make numerous revisions to achieve flawless writing.

The notion was challenged when beginners were encouraged to write on paper without being obsessed with the language's correctness. In traditional writing, learners write carefully and thoughtfully in their second language to finish writing tasks flawlessly and receive high marks. The inherent flow of language slows down as a result. Considering the different phases of thought processing, a new method of teaching writing was developed. This method significantly and contentiously downplayed the importance of grammar.

This fresh insight into how learners think while completing their writing tasks draws attention to the significance of process-based approaches to teaching writing. The new approach enables L2 learners to understand a topic before they try to write about it. Process approaches focus on orchestrating and pulling together the different writing components by mobilizing mental effort. It indicates a mental route by which L2 writers process ideas and gather and sort information before and while writing. Tribble (1996; as cited in Badger & White, 2000) suggests that process approaches emphasize the individual writer's innovativeness and focus on developing good writing practices rather than imitating a model.

According to Holmes (2012), the focus shifts from the final product itself to the different stages the writer goes through to create this product, and by breaking down the task as a whole into constituent parts, writing can seem remarkably less daunting and more manageable to EFL learners.

Though the process approach is highly appreciated and accepted, it has received many criticisms. Nunan (1991) points out one of these criticisms as the fact that the process approach restricts children to primarily narrative forms, which severely curtails their capacity to master text types like reports, expositions, and arguments that are crucial for academic success in school and beyond. From that point of view, academic writing accentuates the necessity of the genre approach that L2 teachers adopt to teach different writing genres.

Genre approaches are relatively new to ELT (Badger & White, 2000). Genre-based pedagogy views languages as an open, dynamic system where language knowledge is taught explicitly, and genres (types of texts) are used as the starting point for modeling, deconstructing, and understanding language (Badger & White, 2000). More explicitly, genre approaches stress that writing varies with the social context in which it is produced. Different kinds of writing or genres, such as letters of apology, recipes, or dialogue, are used for different purposes. The reality is that most of the L2 learners at the undergraduate level need to become more familiar with the genre-based approach to writing. Hayland (2007) points out that with genre-based pedagogies, teachers can better prepare their learners for participation outside the ESL classroom, where they need to write for occupational, intellectual, or social contexts. Dirgeyasa (2015) adds that learners with little motivation and inadequate competencies appear to benefit from a genre-based approach to teaching and learning writing. Teachers can effectively guide learners to write from dependent to independent steps. However, the genre approach can be considered an extension of the product approach (Badger & White, 2000). The figure below shows the similarities between genre and product approaches.
Every approach, while theoretically useful, is neither exceptional nor error-free. Though the product approach is traditionally teacher-centered, most writing classes are still based on mechanistic, product-oriented exercises and drills (Zamel, 1987; as cited in Nunan, 1991). Many language teachers believe that due to the effect of the conventional approach to teaching, learners are more prepared to manipulate the language’s form than to create language. Rashid (2008) remarks that no well-defined method or approach to teaching English is followed in teaching writing. The process approach is learner-centered but involves complex processes and inductive ways that are only suitable for some learners. Nevertheless, the process approach, by its pedagogical implications, can hold the interest of most linguists. Many linguists have emphasized the integration of both approaches; many of them have argued for a collaborative approach to encourage every member of a team to contribute to a writing task, and many of them have placed stress on providing L2 learners with models so that they can practice and apply them in an authentic context. According to Pincas (1982), the following objectives should be considered while teaching English writing for communicative reasons.

1. As opposed to the ready-made, unrealistic school-type composition of traditional education, the spectrum of writing should be broadened to encompass more genuine, practical, and relevant sorts of writing.

2. It should specifically address the skills needed for effective writing beyond simply reiterating grammar and vocabulary courses.

III. METHODOLOGY

The mixed methods were applied in the research. A parallel sample of different individuals drawn from the same population was used to carry out the research (Creswell & Clark, 2017). Similar questions were created to address the same concept (Creswell & Clark, 2017). The results were shown in the discussion.

Research Question:
The study has been framed around the following question:
1. How is the writing skill developed at the undergraduate level?

The Participants:
The participants in the study are from non-native English-speaking countries. They speak different languages, including Arabic, Bengali, Urdu, and Hindi. They all have at least five years of teaching experience and high English language proficiency. The study sites were two of King Khalid University's female campuses in Abha City. The two campuses have become noticeable over the past few years regarding academic performance. Both campuses have English Language Centers (ELC), where four English language skills are taught.

The tools used in the research are as follows:
A ten-question, closed-ended questionnaire was prepared to gather quantitative details about the teaching and writing approaches used by the L2 teachers.

Focus groups of the teachers were organized, and their interviews were taken to learn more about the teaching of writing and the teachers' perspectives on writing classes.

Data Collection procedures:
Participants were requested to finish the survey whenever it suited them in the following seven business days; there was no deadline. Thirty L2 teachers completed the surveys and the responses were collected on time as expected.

For the focus group interview, five people were randomly chosen for each of the six groups. The interviews took place in an unstructured manner. Ten oral, open-ended questions were predetermined. Some follow-up questions helped provide in-depth data about the more profound insights into their teaching and writing experiences. The required data were noted down.

IV. RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

The questionnaires, each of which has preset closed-ended questions, were distributed. The qualitative interviews were held within the same period. The data were collected using the exact sample sizes.

The first structured question that was asked to the teachers was whether they used any technique, method, or approach in teaching writing.
They were given four options: (a) yes; (b) no; (c) sometimes; and (e) others. The table below shows the reply:

**TEACHERS’ TABLE 1**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Question</th>
<th>Yes</th>
<th>No</th>
<th>Sometimes</th>
<th>Others</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Do you use any technique, method, or approach when teaching writing?</td>
<td>46.3%</td>
<td>3.7%</td>
<td>50%</td>
<td>0%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The table reveals that roughly 46.3% of the teachers chose the first option, 3.7% chose the second, and 50% chose the third. 3.7% of teachers, according to the study, do not use any techniques, methods, or approaches, compared to 50% of teachers who do so occasionally.

**TEACHERS’ TABLE 2**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Question</th>
<th>Yes</th>
<th>No</th>
<th>Sometimes</th>
<th>Others</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Do you conduct activities both in and outside of the classroom to help learners improve their writing skills?</td>
<td>58.7%</td>
<td>0%</td>
<td>41.3%</td>
<td>0%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 2 shows that 58.7% of the teachers conduct activities (free-writing, guided writing, controlled writing, summarizing, blogging, writing college magazines, etc.), and 38.3% of the teachers sometimes conduct activities to enhance the learners’ writing skills.

**TEACHERS’ TABLE 3**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Question</th>
<th>Yes</th>
<th>No</th>
<th>Sometimes</th>
<th>Others</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Do you help learners with brainstorming in writing classes?</td>
<td>25.4%</td>
<td>23%</td>
<td>23%</td>
<td>28.4%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The third question was whether they facilitate brainstorming among learners in writing classes. Only 25.4% of them indicate they do. However, 23% of the teachers need to engage their learners in brainstorming (time constraints to cover the course’s material are the main reason they do not do it). The table shows that 23% of the teachers sometimes conduct the activities, and 38.4% opt for others.

**TEACHERS’ TABLE 4**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Question</th>
<th>Yes</th>
<th>No</th>
<th>Sometimes</th>
<th>Others</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Are you very strict about checking grammar?</td>
<td>87.5%</td>
<td>0%</td>
<td>6.25%</td>
<td>6.25%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

When it came to the fourth question, an impressively high percentage of the instructors chose “yes” (87.5%), and none chose “no” (0%). Only 6.25% of the teachers occasionally check grammar because they place more importance on free writing. Precisely 6.25% of the teachers selected the “other” option. The table shows the strict stance that most teachers take on grammar checks.

**TEACHERS’ TABLE 5**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Question</th>
<th>Yes</th>
<th>No</th>
<th>Sometimes</th>
<th>Others</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Do you give learners writing assignments or homework?</td>
<td>85%</td>
<td>0%</td>
<td>15%</td>
<td>0%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The table shows that around 85% of the teachers give their learners writing assignments or homework, and 15% of the teachers sometimes do it.

**TEACHERS’ TABLE 6**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Question</th>
<th>Yes</th>
<th>No</th>
<th>Sometimes</th>
<th>Others</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Do you discuss the subject before the learners begin writing?</td>
<td>73.4%</td>
<td>0%</td>
<td>26.6%</td>
<td>0%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

If they discuss the subject with your pupils before they begin writing, it was question number six, and 73.4% of the teachers gave a positive answer.

**TEACHERS’ TABLE 7**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Question</th>
<th>Yes</th>
<th>No</th>
<th>Sometimes</th>
<th>Others</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Do you ask the learners for peer correction or assessment?</td>
<td>73.4%</td>
<td>0%</td>
<td>26.6%</td>
<td>0%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The table shows that 83.3% of teachers do not ask learners for peer evaluation or correction. 13.4% of teachers ask learners for peer correction at least occasionally, compared to 3.3% of teachers who do so. The percentage shows an insufficient amount of a collaborative approach in a tutored situation.

**TEACHERS’ TABLE 8**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Question</th>
<th>Yes</th>
<th>No</th>
<th>Sometimes</th>
<th>Others</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Do you ask learners to write about subjects outside their course syllabus?</td>
<td>6.7%</td>
<td>83.3%</td>
<td>13.4%</td>
<td>0%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The percentage shows that most teachers (83.3%) do not ask their learners to write anything not on the syllabus. That means they rarely test learners’ creative writing abilities and only ask learners to write on the subjects listed in the syllabus. Only 13.4% of teachers occasionally require learners to write on the spot. 6.7% of teachers instruct learners to write about subjects not covered in the curriculum to improve their writing abilities and creativity.
According to the survey, 66.7% of teachers do not regularly confer with learners to help them develop their writing abilities. According to the survey results, 16.7% chose "yes," and 16.6% chose "sometimes".

During the focus group interview, the first question that was asked to the teachers was about the methods they adopt to teach writing. They discussed how they teach writing using different techniques, but their responses lacked clarity. To teach the writing of various types to a variety of learners (slow or advanced learners), most teachers employ the following clichéd strategies:

The second question was if they think considering the audience of writing is vital for learners. According to them, the learners should know the audience of their writing, as it can help them decide what information they should include, how they should arrange it, and what kind of supporting details will be necessary for readers. When asked if they help learners brainstorm in groups and pairs in their writing classes, the teachers replied that they occasionally do it because of each class's time constraint. One of the teachers said, "A large class size, the traditional sitting arrangement, and the pressure of completing the syllabus within the stipulated time do not allow me to do all the things required for writing classes".

Several said, "Writing is an individual work that requires silence for concentration. "Group or pair work may not be effective in this case." In response to the fourth question, whether it is essential to check grammar strictly, most teachers said they strictly check it to teach accuracy in writing. They carefully control learners' writing so they can see the correct language and practice grammatical structures. Most teachers give the learners writing assignments or homework because they believe that will engage them in writing activities at home. Some teachers believe giving learners regular writing assignments may ruin their interest in writing activities. They seemed concerned about the learners’ distaste for the extra load and preferred giving less homework. The seventh question was about whether or not a writing topic is discussed before learners are asked to write about it. One of the teachers said, "It is important to give some prior ideas to the learners about the topic on which they write." The majority give writing assignments to the learners, using holistic and analytical rubrics to grade their writing assignments. The seventh question was about the problems of asking their learners for peer correction or assessment. In response to the question, one of the teachers said, "The learners do not feel good when we ask them for peer correction." Many learners are culturally oriented to go for something other than that activity. As we are culturally responsive, we usually only make them do it occasionally.

The weak writing skills of many undergraduate learners have ignited a debate about whether or not universities are failing to generate a sufficient number of exceptional learners with considerable writing talents. There is no arguing that teachers significantly impact learners’ anxiety and fear about writing activities. Writing is still typically viewed as a one-dimensional activity and a tool for repeating specific lexical and grammatical patterns, in which accuracy is crucial. That conventional view of writing constrains the learners’ ability to express themselves creatively. The findings support the notion that the teachers have “trapped our learners with the sentence” and responded to the writing as item checkers rather than as actual readers (Raimes, 1983; cited in Holmes, 2012). Many teachers believe that they can do little with learners’ writing skills because it is an individual activity, and the learners will master the skills by themselves by doing writing tasks at home and school. Scrivener (2011) points out that many teachers think teaching writing skills involves mainly setting writing tasks for learners and collecting and marking them. Giving writing assignments and marking them do not ensure learners’ progress, as teachers need to pay more attention to the complex in-between activities that learners do independently at home or school to finish their writing tasks. Learners go through a series of mental and physical actions in between the teachers giving writing assignments and marking them. The figure below shows how little teachers contribute at stage 2, even though they still need to help learners structure and express their ideas in that stage.
According to Holmes (2012), even in more recent communicative approaches to language teaching, teachers can still see writing as taboo, threatening to detract valuable classroom time from developing oral communication skills. Teachers emphasize the communicative approach to help learners develop their communication skills, but it often takes more work to use it effectively when teaching writing.

They are obsessed with speaking as the primary form of communication, and the other three skills are less significant for communication. Since they mainly emphasize how to speak English well in formal or informal contexts, many learners develop some level of communicative proficiency in speaking English. In reality, a great deal of interaction is done through writing, which requires the other two skills (reading and listening). The ability equips individuals with the syntactic, semantic, pragmatic, discourse knowledge, and lexical resources necessary for effective communication in writing.

Many learners are unhappy with their writing classes because they are less stimulating, monotonous, and challenging. Most teachers make learners memorize the items from the syllabus and expect them to reproduce the exact things on paper during examinations. If given any topics to write about impromptu, learners need help with their writing assignments. L2 teachers must remember that learners need to write for various reasons throughout their lives, not just for examinations. They seem only to consider that we write a little outside the classroom in a real-life situation where writing takes on a functional purpose. A stumbling block to writing fluency is the requirement for a correct balance of all skills when teaching a specific skill.

Teacher’s lesson plans are significant for making writing activities less challenging for learners. These guidelines are based on the course design principles that include considerations of course goals, theories, content, focus, syllabus, materials, methodology, activities, and course evaluation (Raimes, 2002). The material used in writing classes should be relevant to the course goals, objectives, and activities. The academic writing materials selected by the syllabus committee could be of more help to teachers when teaching writing skills. Sometimes it happens because teachers do not follow the guidelines for using those books. Teachers need to work through some details to check the authors’ assumptions and the language and rhetorical focus of every writing unit.

V. Conclusion

With increased knowledge of teachers’ responsibilities in teaching writing in a second language, attention is now placed more on the mental activity that takes place throughout the different phases of a writing activity than on the end product, which concentrates mainly on retentiveness, repetition, correctness, and polish. L2 teachers must provide learners with a flexible learning environment to practice thinking critically and creatively, generating and expanding ideas, revising and editing, and eventually presenting an end product. Teachers need to become researchers to learn more about learners’ issues and difficulties in writing classes and contribute more to their writing development. They will often conduct writing classes that resemble fact-finding exercises, and given the findings, they will use more entertaining, stimulating, and practical approaches to teach them to write. Learners’ writing skills develop through educational institutions as they more frequently use writing to communicate what they know about various subject areas. Later, they are expected to use those skills in a broader range of professional settings. That very expectation from learners confers a responsibility on teachers to adopt the correct method of teaching writing.

A. Research Findings

The study’s findings offer convincing evidence that many L2 teachers teach writing in a fragmented fashion rather than adhering to tried-and-true approaches. The L2 learners progress through a selected three-book writing series from level 1 to level 3. The books offer teachers and learners an efficient and realistic approach to acquiring the abilities, strategies, and information required to succeed in writing tasks. The study shows that, though Benjamin Bloom’s classification of objectives for learning serves as the basis for the book’s design, many teachers, due to their disorganized methods of instruction, only sometimes focus on the transitions from lower- to higher-order thinking skills of learners in writing. The writing classes take learners step-by-step, from writing simple paragraphs to composing essays. At level 1, learners focus more on writing mechanics and sentence structure, which can be taught through a product-based approach. However, teachers can apply a process-based approach when learners move on to more
extended writing pieces, such as descriptive essays, narrative essays, reaction essays, opinion essays, comparison and contrast essays, and cause and effect essays. The study shows that the product approach has been widely used to teach writing. However, it seems L2 teachers continue to explore how to use the process approach, which asks them to help learners in idea generation, organization, development, and editing sequentially before presenting the final draft.

The genre approach to teaching writing is still relatively new. Still, it has recently gained popularity due to its focus on a particular audience and the use of a specific register based on communicative needs in various situations. The issue, according to the teachers, arises when learners confound the registers and other linguistic characteristics of a formal academic genre with those of an informal, casual genre. It has been found that teachers teach writing to learners from various fields, including commerce, law, medicine, and engineering, using the same writing materials chosen and prescribed by the syllabus committee. Only medical learners can access supplementary reading materials supporting their professional development. It still requires unique, customized syllabi that reflect the characteristics of ESP (English for Special Purposes) to use the genre approach to teaching writing.

To teach writing, many teachers suggest applying a communicative approach, and it shows that they are aware of the benefits of instructing English communicatively. However, the way they use their theoretical understanding of CLT to teach writing in an EFL context differs from the fundamental ideas behind the approach. The communicative approach presents some challenges that require teachers with the necessary training and expertise. According to Littlewood (1995), in teaching communicative languages, only functionally focused activities disregard correctness or appropriateness. The only objective is to complete a task or resolve an issue by successfully exchanging meanings. On the other hand, there are activities where learners are required to create forms that are entirely appropriate for the social context, for instance, formality. The fact is that many teachers cannot apply the same principles of communicative language teaching to teaching writing because they want written communication with grammatical accuracy and formal language. In that situation, the structural view of language prevails over the functional view. It is found that producing a coherent, well-written text is highly stressful for learners as the intervening stages in creating text are overlooked. Holmes (2012) states that it is easier for learners to produce highly structured texts after the various pre-writing and drafting stages.

Learners’ levels of interest in writing tasks are greatly influenced by the assessment tools teachers use to assess their writing skills. According to the teachers, they are given clear guidelines on how to assess their learners’ writing, including whether to concentrate on the result, the mechanics, the content, or a combination of all three. The following rubric, developed by the EFL teachers, provides a clear guideline for assessing learners’ writing tasks.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Rubric for Essay Writing</th>
<th>Marks 8</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Score Category</td>
<td>2 marks</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Organization</td>
<td>A clear and concise topic sentence. Maintaining cohesion, and cohesion in the introduction, body paragraphs, and conclusion</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Vocabulary and Structure</td>
<td>Excellent word usage and correct syntactic construction to create a variety of sentences (1-2 spelling/grammatical errors)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Punctuation and Capitalization</td>
<td>Use of capitalization/punctuation correctly (1-3 errors)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Length</td>
<td>110-120 words</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Marks obtained</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Figure 4.
However, the rubric's guidelines for essay length do not require learners to write extended essays; as a result, they may only sometimes feel urged to use creative thinking while completing writing tasks. The rubric reveals that teachers penalize learners for using incomplete and incoherent sentences and for their grammatical, punctuation, and spelling errors. Creativity and mechanics are equally essential for producing a well-written text, but creative writing gives learners more latitude regarding terminology, structure, and conventions than other types of writing. However, learners are motivated to learn by rote when technical characteristics are prioritized over their creative faculties. Additionally, the rubric implies that a learner's knowledge of a language can be divided into distinct pieces, and each part of a linguistic knowledge set is assimilated separately and finally integrated. However, the rubric is utilized to assess learners' skills and opposes constructivism. Teachers must remember that learning a language involves more than just memorizing grammar rules and vocabulary. Instead, it also involves actively constructing meaning by connecting what one already knows with what one tries to achieve by applying innovative ideas.

The study's findings suggest that many teachers should explain to learners that when setting writing goals, they should consider the audiences, and domains of writing tasks. Depending on the genres (academic, general, business, casual, and creative) and intended audience, teachers may decide to be very strict, moderately strict, or flexible in how they grade their learners' writing performance.

Additionally, teachers have to explain to learners the differences between formal writing, which adheres rigorously to all norms and conventions, and informal writing, which permits the use of slang and other informal expressions.

The L2 teachers need to be more proactive participants to encourage learners' enthusiasm for writing tasks. They have yet to play a collaborative role in guiding, developing, and arbitrating the learners' decisions about what good writing looks like. It was found that most teachers give writing assignments to L2 learners. Nevertheless, to keep learners interested and challenged, as well as to introduce them to various writing styles, a wide range of writing tasks, including essays, creative writing, journal entries, and research papers, must be assigned. Most teachers still need to incorporate the essential elements for teaching writing, and therefore, the learners need a framework for evaluating their work. For the learners, there needs to be more provision for writing in the classes, but the writing activities have become a low priority for the teachers, as they are mainly concerned with time and syllabus constraints. In addition, penalizing learners' errors in free writing without considering creativity and providing negative feedback on entire essays may ruin their interest in writing activities both in tutored and non-tutored situations.

B. Implications

Learners construct a text using a range of neural pathways which implies that they exert tremendous pressure on themselves when writing. Teachers must understand that different learners use different strategies to deal with the strenuousness of writing activities. That means that all learners do not always process information in the same sequence to create a final work; instead, each learner may choose to create and apply his or her method or style to finish a writing task. Interestingly, learners can produce equally excellent work using completely distinct strategies or sequences. That indicates that the approach that may be best for one learner may not be suitable for another. In reality, the quality of the finished result matters most often, not the procedures the learners use to get to the final stage of writing. From that point of view, teachers should not recommend one approach as the ideal one. Every method has benefits and drawbacks; therefore, teachers should not be extreme about any of them. Teachers should advise learners to prioritize writing fluency over errors in writing mechanics while composing the initial draft. Learners can fix those errors in their writing when going through the transitional steps of thinking, revising, editing, rethinking, repeated revising, and final editing. Ur (1991) has pointed out that it can be challenging to determine the kind of teacher intervention that will be most effective when teaching learners to write advanced compositions. Finding out how an individual learner thinks, feels, and behaves during different phases of creating a text can be helpful.

To assess if the learning objectives are being met, L2 teachers must have an exploratory outlook on teaching approaches and activities to teach writing. In light of the experience L2 teachers gained from writing classes, they need to review the pros and cons of the approaches they usually rely on, and if required, they should be willing to switch to more productive ones.

To properly assess the writing skills of learners, teachers should use a variety of writing assessment tools. They can develop rubrics based on criteria to assess writing outcomes by breaking down the writing process into various components, including organization, grammar, and content. According to Malley and Pierce (1995), L2 teachers must evaluate writing procedures and methods and use a variety of writing tests for distinct goals, genres, and subject matters. Effective writing assessment tools that show teachers how a learner’s writing skills have improved over time include peer review, writing portfolios, writing prompts, writing conferences, and so on. An L2 teacher may use writing conferences to develop writing skills for a slow learner, as he can closely study him in one-on-one sessions, and consequently, he can discover the weak areas that need to be taken care of. Teachers must allow learners enough time in writing classes to reflect on their writing and learning processes, assess their strengths and weaknesses, create goals, and finally come up with plans on how to get better at writing. In that stage, teachers may ask learners to share their insights and findings in an open discussion so that they can figure out how to adjust and readjust their approaches to meet additional learners’ needs. In writing classes, teachers may encounter learners with higher-order cognitive impairments. Those learners need exceptional teacher support to process ideas through several writing phases. Because the writing skills of those learners continue to grow more slowly than usual, teachers have to create an inclusive
teaching and learning environment by integrating Universal Design for Learning (UDL), assistive technology, and differentiated instruction into their lesson plans.

C. Recommendations

The development of the writing skills of learners has been a subject to be researched over time. Many L2 teachers have been experimenting with cutting-edge teaching methods but still improving learners’ writing skill has remained a challenging issue. The findings underscore teachers’ need to go beyond the conventional writing class, which sees learners’ writing development as successfully reproducing input. The study encourages to use process techniques, particularly when teaching young adults, and blended approaches (product+process) when teaching young learners. However, further research is still required to determine the most efficient ways to integrate structured steps into a blended approach to teaching writing, to develop extra tasks, and to ensure functional writing classes. Many learners may struggle to complete the various parts of process writing due to cognitive constraints, which are related to learners' good working memory and ability to concentrate when doing cognitive tasks. As the study does not examine the factors that contribute to students' cognitive load during writing tasks or strategies to reduce stress, future research in that area can delve deeper into the issue. When teaching sentence structure and written text organization to learners regardless of their age or skill level, teachers typically choose a deductive method, seemingly neglecting the chance that an inductive approach gives to foster learners' metalinguistic awareness. The study recommends more investigation because both strategies have a lot to offer and might be brain-compatible for learners of all ages and academic levels. When teaching language skills, communicative approach is typically preferred by teachers. However, the approach primarily concentrates on developing learners’ communicative competence rather than requiring them to pay close attention to structure, style, or systematic procedures that are required for writing a text. Future research may reveal how to adapt the approach to teach more effectively the unique rhetorical elements of written texts. The study focuses on how the process method changed the roles of teachers and learners in a writing class while also highlighting the necessity for using the product approach due to its success with lower-ability learners. It is crucial to investigate the common teaching strategies employed by L2 teachers, encourage them to adopt different approaches to teaching writing, and facilitate L2 learners’ ability to express their creativity in their writing tasks.

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A Morphological Analysis of Word Formation Processes in English Posters on Instagram

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Abstract—This research aimed to determine the types and the most commonly used word-formation type on twenty posters on @infolomba on Instagram taken from October 2019 to February 2020. The researchers used distributional analysis to analyze the structure of new words by breaking the morpheme elements. The researchers found 360 data considered as new-word formations on English posters. This study exhibits that derivation, inflection, conversion, compounding, abbreviation, acronym, blending, clipping, borrowing, and reduplication were word-formation types in creating new words on posters. The researchers also found the double words formation process, such as compounding + derivation, compounding + inflection, compounding + abbreviation, compounding + conversion, and derivation + inflection. In conclusion, the abbreviations on posters were English posters' most commonly used word-formation type.

Index Terms—formation, Instagram, morphological analysis, poster, process

I. INTRODUCTION

In this era, people use online social media to share information and utilize them for writing their opinion about recent issues. Social network sites have become a primary means of communication over the past decade. Instagram is a favorite social media for young adult users in Indonesia. New features from Instagram are increasingly spoiling young people with cute filters and sharing photos, videos, and content on Instagram. Instagram is used by 64.94 percent of participants (https://www.merdeka.com/reporter/indra-cahya/). Instagram users can add some captions to clarify the picture's information. Important information such as news, advertisements, and announcements can be found there. Therefore, it is possible to find the competition announcements; one of them is published by @infolomba account on Instagram. When the competition announcements are presented on online posters, the posters are easier to be seen by many people, including the regional, national, or international competitions.

Posters must contain persuasive language to make the viewers interested, including concise, clear, and attractive (Kosasih, 2017). These are some examples: info, binary, UNS, IDR, USD, EUFORBIO, and HIMPROBSI. Yet, not all people recognize what those manipulated words mean.

Over time word lists of an increasingly specific nature have been developed, from the General Service List (GSL), which contains 2000 widely used word families in English, to the University Word List, new words are formed in many ways by adding affixes, blending words, and abbreviating phrases. The rules of how words are formed are defined as word-formation processes. One of the multidisciplinary aspects in linguistics to learn newly created words is morphology. Morphology analyzes the essential elements of word structure used in a language (Yule, 2014).

The researchers formulated the purpose of the study as follows:
1. To find out the word-formation types on English posters on Instagram.
2. To find out the most commonly used word-formation types on English posters on Instagram.
3. This research focused on discovering the process of new words formed on English posters.

II. RELATED LITERATURE AND DEFINITION

A. Word Formation

Morphology originates from the Greek word morphe, which means shape or form (McCharty, 2002). According to Bauer, morphology is the branch of linguistics concerning the internal structure of word forms (Bauer, 1983). Based on McCharty (2002), words are the primary unit to compose phrases and sentences and have the predictable meaning as meaningful building-block of language. Meanwhile, words are composed of morphemes, the smaller parts of words.

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Lieber states that a morpheme is the minimal significant unit that forms words (Lieber, 2009). So, words are units in a language composed of morphemes as the minor part to form a word. Bauer, word formation is the possible rule for forming a word, while Lieber, word formation is the principle of existing new words. Meyer stated that word formation is identifying the composition of a new word by a certain general series process (Meyer, 2009). Furthermore, Susilo defines word formation as new words that can be made using affixes (Susilo, 2015).

There are many word-formation processes; inflection, derivation, conversion, backformation, compounding, abbreviation, acronym, blending, clipping, reduplication, borrowing, and coinage.

B. Online Poster

Posters are artistic pictures combined with written words and graphic design components to announce a piece of information. According to Kosasih (2017), posters must contain complete, concise, clear, and attractive information. Online posters are more practical to notice and can be delivered more widely than posters hanging on the wall.

C. Instagram

Huang and Su (2018) state that Instagram is a communication app that uses images. Instagram originates from blending the words “instant” and “telegram,” meaning delivering a message quickly. Instagram was first launched in October 2010 and became favorable social media worldwide after Facebook. Instagram has become a critical visualized communication platform of social networking platform for modern youth, especially teenagers.

@infolomba is an event publisher account on Instagram. It has posted many events and competitions, such as art, sport, math, and technology. This account will share online posters from event organizers to announce their competition.

D. Previous Study of Word Formation

Some previous studies found many types of word formation in forming new words. Ratih and Gusdian (2018) found the most productive English word formation process in Oxford online dictionary. They discovered that affixation was the most effective form of new words. Second, Luthfiyati et al. (2017) found the most common type of derivation words on the headline of the Jakarta Post website from October 2015 till April 2016. Then, Mustafa et al. (2015) found that Malaysian Facebook users used abbreviations consisting of the acronym, blending, and clipping as the most common English word formation process. This research also found the reason Malaysian Facebook users used those abbreviations words by interviewing. Almost all participants gave the same answer. Participants intended to save time and used emoticons to express their feeling while communicating on Facebook.

III. RESEARCH METHOD

The sample posters were English posters on Instagram. The posters used as the samples were taken from the official competition publisher account @infolomba on Instagram. The sample posters with competition content were published from October 2019 to February 2020.

The researcher carried out a descriptive study as the design of the study. This research focused on the new word formation process that occurred on English posters on Instagram where new word formations were created.

The object of this research was the new-word formation process. New words on posters were identified as the data, while the English posters on Instagram became the samples. The researchers chose English posters because the researchers intended to find out the new English word formation process created to deliver messages in communication. Posters contain words to inform important information and are made by using adequate words as much as possible without decreasing any sense of the meaning contained on the posters. The English posters used to analyze as the sample were from the official account of @infolomba.

A. Data Collection Technique

In collecting the samples, first, the researchers searched twenty posters (found from October 2019 to February 2020) on Instagram at @infolomba. These twenty posters were the posters found from October 2019 to February 2020. Second, the researcher selected the data based on English posters published from October 2019 to February 2020. The content was about competition content. Third, the researcher screen-shot the posters and printed them as the data collection samples.

B. Data Analysis Technique

After taking the data from the sample of English posters on Instagram, the researchers analyzed the data. The researcher chose the distributional analysis technique to analyze the data. According to Ling, distributional analysis is the language method to discover the elements by breaking phonetic sequences into morphemes by looking at their distribution in a collection of sentences or phrases (Lockhart, 2019). Halle and Marantaz (1993) stated that distributed morphology adopts the primary organization of principles and parameters of grammar. The distributional analysis aims to separate recurring patterns and try to correlate these regular patterns with some units of meaning (Lockhart, 2019).

The researchers took five steps to determine the types and the most commonly used word-formation process on English posters on Instagram: First, the researchers numbered each poster as a sample. The researchers randomly took
the numbers without seeing the content posters’ theme. Second, the researchers put the new words as the data into the tables. Every new word on posters was copied into the table with numbers.

Third, the researchers identified the word-formation process of the data by giving codes. After that, the researcher analyzed the process of word formation by using distributional analysis by breaking the morphemes. The researcher used the Oxford dictionary to cross-check the word class of the data.

Fourth, the researchers analyzed the types of word formation from whole samples and categorized the data into their types of word-formation processes. The last, the researcher calculated the most commonly used word-formation process. The data was taken into some categories of the word-formation process. The most quantity category was the most commonly used process in forming new words.

After obtaining the result, the researcher utilized investigator triangulation to convince the impact of the study. The researcher collected the data from English posters on Instagram and took some theories from the experts to analyze the research topic deeply.

IV. FINDINGS

This research aimed to discover the types and the most commonly used word-formation type on twenty English posters on Instagram. The posters were taken from October 2019 until February 2020. It has been found 360 new words as the data. Therefore, the researchers found many word formations as follows:

A. Derivation

The derivation is creating new words by adding affixes to a word and changing the word class. Derivation was among the critical features concerning the word-formation process (Liaojie, 2019; Luthfiyati et al., 2017; Wati, 2018). This research found that derivation mostly changed the word class into a noun by adding a suffix (Table 1).

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>No</th>
<th>Data</th>
<th>Process</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>championship (n)</td>
<td>Champion (n) + ship (suff) = championship (n)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>Journalism (n)</td>
<td>Journal (n) + ism (suff) = journalism (n)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>humanity (n)</td>
<td>Human (adj) + ity (suff) = humanity (n)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4</td>
<td>payment (n)</td>
<td>Pay (v) + ment (suff) = payment (n)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5</td>
<td>dentistry(n)</td>
<td>Dentist (n) + try (suff) = dentistry (n)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6</td>
<td>production (n)</td>
<td>Produce (v) + tion (suff) = production (n)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7</td>
<td>digitalization (n)</td>
<td>Digital (adj) + ization (suff) = digitalization (n)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8</td>
<td>polytechnic (n)</td>
<td>Poly (pref) + technic(adj) = polytechnic (n)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

B. Inflection

Inflection is creating new words by adding affixes to indicate grammatical rules, including tense, number, and others (Table 2). The inflection process attaches bound morpheme but occurs for the grammatical case without changing the meaning of the word and word class. Inflection became the key instrument of morphological analysis (Itmeizeh, 2018). From the previous research mentioned, this research found many derivation words on English posters.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>No</th>
<th>Data</th>
<th>Process</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>minutes (n)</td>
<td>Minute (n) + s (suff) = minutes (n)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>files (n)</td>
<td>File (n) + s (suff) = files (n)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>largest (adj)</td>
<td>Large (adj) + est (suff) = largest (adj)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4</td>
<td>fields (n)</td>
<td>Field (n) + s (suff) = fields (n)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5</td>
<td>facilities (n)</td>
<td>Facility (n) + ies (suff) = facilities (n)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

C. Conversion

Yule states that conversion is frequently productive in modern English (Yule, 2014). Conversion is also known as “functional shift,” which turns verbs become nouns or forms a new word by changing its word class without adding any affix (Table 3).

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>No</th>
<th>Data</th>
<th>Process</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
D. Compounding

Compounding is creating new words by joining multiple free bases to produce a single form. The result showed that some compound words were made in many ways, either separately, conjoined, or hyphen (Table 4), which shows the result of compounding found in previous study (Christian, 2019; Evans, 2015; Moehkardi, 2016).

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>No</th>
<th>Data</th>
<th>Process</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>Sponsor (v)</td>
<td>Sponsor (n) = Sponsor (v)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>Show (n)</td>
<td>Show (v) = Show (n)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>Contact (v)</td>
<td>Contact (n) = Contact (v)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4</td>
<td>Scan (v)</td>
<td>Scan (n) = Scan (v)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5</td>
<td>Transfer (v)</td>
<td>Transfer (n) = Transfer (v)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

E. Blending

Blending is creating new words by combining two or more words, but their ending parts are deleted. This research found that blending words were made to shorten a group of phrases and names of organizations (Table 5). This finding is in line with similar previous research carried out by Mustafa et al. (2015), Ratih and Gusdian (2018), Moehkardi (2016), and Giyatmi and Arumi (2017).

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>No</th>
<th>Data</th>
<th>Process</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>Ikom</td>
<td>Ikom</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>Communiphoria</td>
<td>Communication Euphoria = Communiphoria</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>DECODE</td>
<td>Debate competition for College students = DECODE</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4</td>
<td>HIMA</td>
<td>Himpanan mahasiswa = HIMA</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5</td>
<td>Jateng</td>
<td>Jawa Tengah = Jateng</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6</td>
<td>KOMpek</td>
<td>Kompetisi ekonomi = KOMpek</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

F. Abbreviation

An abbreviation is a process of making new words by taking the first letter from a phrase and pronouncing them letter by letter (Table 6). Meyer stated that abbreviations and acronyms are similar, but abbreviation words must be pronounced as individual letters. This research found that abbreviation words were created to shorten a word, phrase, and name of events (Meyer, 2009).

These findings aligned with similar previous research (Evans, 2015; Liaojie, 2019; Mustafa et al., 2015; Ratih & Gusdian, 2018; Wahyuni, 2017).
TABLE 6
SOME DATA ON ABBREVIATION WORDS FOUND ON ENGLISH POSTERS ARE

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>No</th>
<th>Data</th>
<th>Process</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>IDR</td>
<td>Indonesian rupiah = IDR</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>USD</td>
<td>United States Dollar = USD</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>Rp</td>
<td>Rupiah = Rp</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4</td>
<td>EQ</td>
<td>Economic quiz = EQ</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5</td>
<td>EDC</td>
<td>Economic debate competition = EDC</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6</td>
<td>ERP</td>
<td>Economic Research paper = ERP</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7</td>
<td>BC</td>
<td>Business challenge = BC</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8</td>
<td>WA</td>
<td>WhatsApp = WA</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>9</td>
<td>IG</td>
<td>Instagram = IG</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

G. Acronym

In an acronym, each initial keeps its capital letters, but they are pronounced as a perfect word (Table 7). Yule stated that many acronyms become everyday terms, such as laser. This research found that acronym words were made to shortcut a group of phrases and names of organizations (Yule, 2014).

To recognize acronym words is when the vocal words appear in the middle of initializing words, these words are pronounced as perfect words. These findings were similar to previous research (Moehkardi, 2016; Mustafa et al., 2015; Pop & Ariana, 2009; Ratih & Gusdian, 2018).

TABLE 7
SOME DATA OF ACRONYM WORDS FOUND ON ENGLISH POSTERS ARE

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>No</th>
<th>Data</th>
<th>Process</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>INITIATION</td>
<td>Increase International Infographic Competition</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>IECOM</td>
<td>International industrial engineering competition</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>PEC</td>
<td>Polije English Competition</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4</td>
<td>UNECOST</td>
<td>UMBY national English competition for students</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5</td>
<td>EDSA</td>
<td>English Department Students Association</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6</td>
<td>NEED</td>
<td>National English education debate</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7</td>
<td>NEC</td>
<td>National English competition</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Etc</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

H. Clipping

Clipping is like cutting some parts of a word and making it shorter; it does not change the meaning of words and the word class (Table 8). This research found that clipping words were made to be shorter, mainly occurring in months. This finding aligned with similar previous research (Moehkardi, 2016; Mustafa et al., 2015; Ratih & Gusdian, 2018).

TABLE 8
SOME DATA ON CLIPPING WORDS FOUND ON ENGLISH POSTERS ARE

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>No</th>
<th>Data</th>
<th>Process</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>Info</td>
<td>Information = info</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>Math</td>
<td>Mathematics = Math</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>Transport</td>
<td>Transportation = Transport</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4</td>
<td>Fest</td>
<td>Festival = Fest</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5</td>
<td>Oct</td>
<td>October = Oct</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6</td>
<td>Nov</td>
<td>November = Nov</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7</td>
<td>Dec</td>
<td>December = Dec</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8</td>
<td>Jan</td>
<td>Januari = Jan</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>9</td>
<td>Feb</td>
<td>February = Feb</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10</td>
<td>Mar</td>
<td>March = Mar</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

I. Reduplication

Reduplication is the process where all form of the base is repeated. Lieber stated that reduplication words may get full or partial repetition by repeating and then changing some vocal words (Lieber, 2009). Reduplication became the main focus of previous research conducted by Rafi’ie et al. (2018).

The research found two reduplication words on posters; kicir-kicir and ampar-ampar pisang. Those words are full reduplication.

J. Borrowing

Borrowing is taking over words from other languages (Table 9). Yule stated that borrowing had become one of the most common sources of new words in English (Yule, 2014). It became the main focus of previous research (Lenhult, 2013).
Table 9

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>No</th>
<th>Data</th>
<th>Process</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>Medal</td>
<td>Medaille (midle French) = Medal</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>Bank</td>
<td>Banc (old German) = bank</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>Java</td>
<td>Jawa (Indonesia) = Java</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4</td>
<td>Trophy</td>
<td>Tropaion (Greek) = Trophy</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5</td>
<td>Hotel</td>
<td>Hoste (French) = Hotel</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6</td>
<td>Castle</td>
<td>Castellum (Latin)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7</td>
<td>Vocal</td>
<td>Vocalis (Latin)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Etc</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

K. Double Process

Some double processes were found on English posters. It occurred in phrases with more than one word-formation process (Table 10). Those double processes were compounding + derivation, compounding + inflection, compounding + abbreviation, compounding + conversion, and derivation + inflection. This double process was similar to the previous research (Ratih & Gusdian, 2018).

Table 10

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>No</th>
<th>Data</th>
<th>Word formation</th>
<th>Process</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>International</td>
<td>Com+der</td>
<td>Inter(v) + nation (n) + al (suff) = International (n)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>Mental illness</td>
<td>Com+der</td>
<td>Mental(adj) + illness (n) = Mental illness (n)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>Story telling</td>
<td>Com + der</td>
<td>Story(n) + telling (n) = Story telling (n)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4</td>
<td>News casting</td>
<td>Com + der</td>
<td>News (n) + casting (n) = News casting (n)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5</td>
<td>uploading</td>
<td>Com + der</td>
<td>Up (prep) + load (n) + ing (suff) = uploading (n)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6</td>
<td>Mental illness</td>
<td>Com+der</td>
<td>Mental(adj) + illness (n) = Mental illness (n)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7</td>
<td>Public relations</td>
<td>Com + infc</td>
<td>Public (n) + relations (n) = Public relations (n)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8</td>
<td>Handprints</td>
<td>Com+ infc</td>
<td>Hand (n) + print (n) + s (suff) = Handprints (n)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>9</td>
<td>Talent show</td>
<td>Com + con</td>
<td>Talent(n) + show (n) = Talent show (n)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10</td>
<td>E-certificate</td>
<td>abb + com</td>
<td>E-certificate = Electronic certificate (n)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>11</td>
<td>winners</td>
<td>Der + infc</td>
<td>Win (n) + ner (suff) + s(suff) = Winners (n)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>12</td>
<td>requirements</td>
<td>Der + infc</td>
<td>Require (v) + ment (suff) + s (suff) = Requirements (n)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>13</td>
<td>participants</td>
<td>Der + infc</td>
<td>Participate (v) + ant (suff) + s (suff) = participants (n)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The researcher found 360 data, considered new words, on English posters. Figure 1 shows that the word-formation process on English posters had derivation (83 words), inflection (44 words), conversion (12 words), compounding (53 words), blending (6 words), abbreviation (87 words), acronym (14 words), clipping (25 words), reduplication (2 words), and borrowing (13 words).

V. Discussion

Based on the finding, the results were that new English words had been created. This is to answer the research questions of this research.

The first research question was: What are the new word-formation types found on English posters on Instagram? The researchers found some types of creating English new words, such as derivation, inflection, conversion, compounding,
blending, abbreviation, acronym, clipping, reduplication, and borrowing. The researchers also found some double word-formation types in creating new English words on posters, such as compounding + derivation, compounding + inflection, compounding + abbreviation, compounding + conversion, and derivation + inflection.

While the second research question was: What are the most commonly used new word-formation types on English posters on Instagram? From Figure 1, the abbreviation had 87 words from 20 posters which was considered having quantity the most. Therefore, abbreviation was concluded to have the most common word-formation types on English posters on Instagram taken from October 2019 till February 2020. By looking at this phenomenon, new words have been created currently. McCharty states that blending and acronyms are actively used to create new vocabulary. However, they differ from derivational affixation and standard compounding in being more or less self-conscious. They are concentrated in areas with the greatest demand for new noun vocabulary, such as (currently) information technology.

From those results, abbreviation became English posters’ most commonly used word formation. By this finding, it was concluded that abbreviation on posters was used to make words shorter to deliver messages as effective as possible. According to Kosash (2017), posters must contain complete, concise, clear, and attractive information. Therefore, abbreviating words was necessary to make content concise without reducing the sense of important information on the posters.

The pattern to recognizing abbreviation words is when the vocal words disappear in the middle of an initializing word. Then these words need to be pronounced letter by letter, so those are abbreviation words. This result was in line with the previous research by Mustafa, Kandasamy, and Yasin, who found that abbreviation was the most common in Facebook communication (Mustafa et al., 2015).

VI. CONCLUSIONS

From the results of this research, the researcher concluded that there were ten-word formations and some double processes found on English posters on Instagram. The researcher used distributional analysis to identify the word structure by breaking the morpheme elements. From twenty posters published from October 2019 until February 2020, the researcher found derivation, inflection, conversion, compounding, abbreviation, acronym, blending, clipping, borrowing and reduplication word-formation types in creating new words on posters. The researcher also found a double process of word-formation type in creating new words on posters, such as compounding + derivation, compounding + inflection, compounding + abbreviation, compounding + conversion and derivation + inflection.

The researcher found that the abbreviation was English posters’ most commonly used word formation type. This occurred on posters because posters must contain adequate words in delivering messages. Abbreviating words was necessary to make the content concise without reducing the sense of important information on the posters. However, the researcher found no coinage and backformation process on posters.

Concerning the study’s conclusion, some suggestions are offered to the readers and future researchers in the same field. Therefore, it is suggested that the readers recognize the differences in word-formation type to form new words. The readers should be more aware of creating new words by considering the word-formation theory on morphology, the Linguistics theory about word formed. Furthermore, future researchers in the same field are suggested to carry out the same topic in other communication media to see the language phenomenon that involves communication. Moreover, it is also suggested that future researchers conduct a morphological study on the students because morphology can improve their vocabulary.

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She began her career in teaching English to young learners at the Eye Level learning center. She deals with bilingual children who use English as a second language. It was challenging for her to teach basic English reading by following the Cambridge curriculum. Not surprisingly, she successfully applied much of her knowledge of English phonology to teach basic reading using the phonics method. She is also interested in business English, so she plans to build her own learning center.

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Factors Affecting the Improvement of Speaking Skills Among Jordanian EFL Learners

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Abstract—The purpose of this research was to investigate the factors affecting the improvement of speaking skills among Jordanian students of English as a foreign language. This objective was reached by concentrating on educational tools, instructional strategies, and the mistakes made by students that have an impact on their skill to speak English from the perspective of students at Irbid National University and Jadara University. 316 students took part in this research project as part of the sample. In this study, a quantitative research design was used, and the participants were each given a customized version of the questionnaire that was used to collect data for the study. According to the findings, educational tools are used extensively in university settings. In addition, the findings demonstrated that the instructional strategies and the mistakes made by the students had a moderate impact on the students’ skills to speak English.

Index Terms—factors affecting, improvement of speaking skills, educational tools, instructional strategies, the mistakes made by students EFL Learners

I. INTRODUCTION

English as a foreign language (EFL) requires proficient proficiency in all four linguistic skills: listening, speaking, reading, and writing (Soomro & Almalki, 2017). Ironically, EFL teachers typically resort to repetition and memorization when teaching speaking abilities, even though speaking is the most fundamental ability in learning a foreign language (Rao, 2019). In addition, effective communication involves the ability to come up with language that your audience will grasp (Gashaw, 2017). It has been argued by Gillis (2018) that there are several benefits to developing one's oratory skills. To sum up, an effective communicator is one who successfully conveys information. Therefore, one of the most crucial techniques of communicating in a foreign language is to build and improve one's speaking abilities. The challenges that EFL students confront in their pursuit of language proficiency make it especially challenging for them to acquire this skill, and effective language acquisition generally takes a lot of time (Chot, 2015). Furthermore, the ability to talk smoothly and completely is a fundamental communication technique because it is such a significant component of everyday interaction and is typically the initial impression of a person (Alrabai, 2014). Therefore, educators must help students acquire the ability to communicate effectively by preparing them to deal with the myriad of elements that influence the growth of this skill (Soomro & Farooq, 2018). Many students of foreign languages believe that oral proficiency is the best indicator of linguistic competence (Al-Sobhi & Preece, 2018). Additionally, the students characterize fluency as the capacity to communicate effectively with others. Intrinsic motivation is tied to the satisfaction of the three fundamental needs of humans which include relatedness, competence, and autonomy (Deci & Ryan, 1985). Learning that is intrinsically driven is done so because the learner enjoys it and finds it valuable, interesting, and challenging in and of itself. Furthermore, it is difficult for students to pick up this crucial skill for communicating with others, while some argue that listening is the foundational ability for effective public speaking (Eissa, 2019).

For university students in Jordan, poor speaking skills are a major issue since they do not receive enough practice with the language through activities like giving talks, participating in group debates, or presenting research. Therefore, the goal of this study is to investigate the elements that shape the evolution of the ability to communicate effectively. In light of the significance of the other abilities which form the framework for learning a second language, it is crucial to identify and characterize the primary impediments that hinder the development of the speaking skill. It's also supposed to give teachers tools they may use in the classroom to help their students improve their language skills and become more confident public speakers. Because of their language barriers, English language learners in Jordanian universities are the primary focus of this study. A lack of vocabulary or insufficient words is also assumed to characterize this group. They make minor mistakes in grammar while asking for the simplest things like permission or use the restroom, and many of them still can't properly introduce themselves (Khasawneh & Alkhawaldeh, 2020).

Many researchers, including Elhassan, Bashir and Adam (2017) and Encalada and Sarmiento (2019), have proposed methods to improve speaking skills through syllabus design, teaching principles, and speaking assessment, but the challenge of teaching English to students, particularly the challenge of improving students' oral communication skills, remains unsolved. As mentioned by Hussain (2018), one of the numerous factors to consider is a lack of confidence and concern over making mistakes. Lack of English proficiency appears to be an issue in Jordan. Nowhere in Jordan did students find it as conducive to learning a new language as being around family, classmates, and native speakers.
Because of these obstacles, the learner is constantly reminded of his or her limited conversational skills. Given the aforementioned justifications, factors influencing the development of speaking English among university students need to be properly considered. Investigating the many factors influencing students' acquisition of speaking English skills was therefore the main objective of this study.

Research Questions
The following questions served as the basis for this study:

- What educational tools are employed in the instruction of English-speaking skills?
- What instructional strategies do English language instructors employ while instructing English speaking?
- What mistakes do students make the most often when speaking English?

II. LITERATURE REVIEW

Speaking is described as an integral aspect of second language instruction and learning (Khan et al., 2019). This is because it is via speaking that students construct and share meaning through the use of verbal and nonverbal symbols in different settings. The teaching of speaking skills has been underestimated for a long time, and English language teachers have mostly continued to treat it as a mere repetition of exercises or memorizing of dialogues, despite the obvious relevance of these activities (Novitasari, 2019). Knowing how to communicate in English is widely considered the most difficult and complex talent to acquire (Khan et al., 2019). Syafrizal, Evenddy, Gallea and Liana (2018), argued that even students who score well on reading and writing tests may not always have strong oral communication abilities. In today's society, students need to cultivate and strengthen their communication abilities so that they may express themselves and acquire the social and cultural norms relevant to each communicative situation (Viera, 2017). Nunan (2003) defines “fluency” as the ability to utilize language with ease and without hesitation.

Language experts and teachers of English as a foreign language agree that speaking the target language with native speakers is the best way to acquire it (Ali et al., 2019). Learning English through conversation and participation in authentic contexts is facilitated through communicative language teaching. In a school setting when this strategy is implemented, students will have more chances to practice their spoken English through participation in real activities and meaningful assignments with their teachers and classmates (Basa et al., 2018). Group projects, mind maps, photographs, narratives, role plays, and simulations are all great ways to practice English conversation (Bimpong, 2020; Khasawneh & Al-Rub, 2020).

A. Educational Tools

Modern classroom communication relies heavily on students' ability to access and use a variety of linguistic resources. To best meet the needs of instructors and students in a wide range of settings and eras, instructional materials should be regularly updated (Afraz et al., 2018). Academic studies have indicated that children who are given access to a wide range of teaching and learning resources, such as charts, tape recorders, radio and television programs, and photographs, are better able to acquire and refine their linguistic competence (Arbain & Nur, 2017). According to Bimpong (2019), students learn best when they have opportunities to actively participate in class discussions and activities, and when they have access to a wide range of materials that allow them to view, touch, manipulate, and interact with the subject matter. When educational tools are well-utilized, abundant, and diverse, they highlight the spoken message, attract students' attention, and allow for unrestricted physical and social interaction, as further elaborated by Bimpong (2019).

Adequate and effectively used teaching and learning aids are crucial to the success of any instructional activity. Instructional materials are a means of expression (Buckingham & Alpaslan, 2017). To make the most of these tools in the classroom, he says, it's up to the teacher to prepare ahead of time and present the material in a way that students will find meaningful. However, the author laments that there are often not enough (or any) instructional materials in schools, rendering the efforts of teachers futile (Darancik, 2018).

The availability of instructional materials in the classroom increases the efficiency with which knowledge and skills are imparted when teaching English (Defrioka, 2018). According to Leong and Ahmadi (2017), the lack of these resources in the classroom hinders the attainment of educational goals. Leong and Ahmadi (2017), made a similar plea, asking that they be made available by all relevant parties to facilitate education. According to Mantra and Maba (2018) research, having access to sufficient reading resources (such as textbooks, workbooks, and other guides) helps students retain more of what they learn. Kassem (2018) continues to make the case that to assure the utilization of instructional materials, the teacher must be knowledgeable about how to manage and use the aids that are accessible. Some of these teaching resources are:

(a). Centre for Resources

This offers teaching tools such as a language lab, library, and other audiovisual elements. Ibrahim and Hashim (2021) argue that language instructors use educational approaches that involve pupils in little real-world dialogue. This means that instructors in communicative classrooms should speak less and listen more, while students should do the majority of the talking due to the teacher's superior English proficiency. Abd Halim, Mohamad and Yunus (2018) assert that language instructors should utilize examples and repetition in addition to explanations to help pupils learn sufficient
relevant English vocabulary for usage in a variety of contexts. Teaching aids are also highly useful in language instruction for fostering perception and comprehension, reinforcing spoken information, aiding in memorization, functioning as an incentive, and boosting students' interest in learning via the use of their five senses (Guerra, 2017). These teaching tools include wall charts, weather charts, maps of the surrounding region, and image cards that the instructor may place on the blackboard or wall for students to see (Triwittayayon & Sarobol, 2018). By analyzing learners' use of fillers and hesitation, Socheath (2018) argues that teaching aids allow instructors to gauge the extent to which students' communication skills have grown. In addition, the usage of audio devices such as radios and cassette recorders may aid in the development of students' pronunciation and articulation of words via imitation of the radio's models and playback of recorded sounds. In addition, learners may strengthen their verbal communication skills by attempting to explain their profiles, which will require them to search for the appropriate words to use while speaking English, therefore fostering fluency (Dincer & Dariyemez, 2020).

(b). Laboratory of Language

One of the innovative tools for use in contemporary language classrooms and remedial instruction is the language laboratory. It is made up of several different audio-visual teaching tools and English-speaking models that may help students improve their oral communication skills and their confidence in using the target language by providing them with many opportunities for practice and constructive criticism (Abrar et al., 2018). Students in the lab are also exposed to native English speakers who serve as role models and teachers in terms of proper English pronunciation (Cohen et al., 2018). Students studying English as a second language who don't have much contact with native speakers may lag behind those who do because they will have a harder time picking up the language's oral features without the rapid feedback provided by native speakers (Dincer, 2017).

(c). Use of Newspapers as a Teaching Tool for English

The newspaper is a valuable resource for teachers of English as a foreign language. Newspapers are a great resource for English teachers, both in terms of preparing lessons (such as letter writing to the editor) and in planning lessons (such as describing a cartoon from a certain page) (Dincer & Yesilyurt, 2017). Teachers should exercise caution while using newspaper-based exercises since they have the potential to significantly enhance their students' motivation for learning English and improve their reading and speaking abilities (Forbes & Fisher, 2018).

(d). Instructional Strategies to Learn the English Language

When it comes to delivering the material, every educator has a distinct style. This is why some educators are better than others in terms of educational effectiveness. Therefore, it is the responsibility of every educator to include speaking practice and assessment in classroom activities. According to Pawlak (2018), pupils' language growth may be facilitated by talking to one another because of the exposure learning provides. Learning takes form and takes form again via conversation. Students are thus expected to participate in discussions and other classroom activities using verbal means. There are several strategies an English teacher may use to encourage classroom discussion and the learning of new vocabulary and grammar. To determine whether or not the language used in the classroom has an impact on student learning (Zaki, 2021). Al Nakhalah (2016) investigated classroom discourse occurrences and pedagogical approaches. The author saw that teacher conversation predominated among the students. Al-Eiadeh et al. (2016) research on pedagogy in formal, multilingual classroom settings indicated that instructor discussion predominated over student conversation. She added that students' participation mostly consisted of answering the teacher's questions and comments. Jansem (2019) also studied the dynamics of classroom discourse in a subset of secondary institutions. The results showed that educators had considerable authority over class time and decided what students learned.

Inquiring into students' use of English verbally during class, Abd Halim et al. (2018) discovered that one way to get them to talk and think aloud was via group projects that encouraged debate and discussion. Therefore, students need authentic opportunities to utilize language (Abrar et al., 2018). Learners in this setting would benefit from chances for role-playing, dramatic readings, and debates, as well as more traditional forms of oral expression like class discussions. Then, Al Nakhalah (2016) argues that pupils only require little assistance until they have been adequately exposed to the material, at which point they will have acquired sufficient vocabulary and linguistic skills to function independently. According to Novitasari (2019), the most effective learning occurs when students apply what they've learned in real-world situations. Teachers should place a strong focus on hands-on approaches including group projects, experiments, and debates (Pawlak, 2018). Further, the author argues that students' oral and auditory talents, as well as their appeal to their senses, may be fostered by encouraging them to express themselves verbally in class discussions and, where feasible, providing them with radios, televisions (TVs), and movies (Rao, 2019). Teachers of English should also improve their fluency in the language so that they can provide a good example for their pupils. With proper management, group work may improve language learning outcomes, as argued by Socheath (2018). The students benefit from the freedom to practice language usage in this small group environment without the teacher's constant monitoring. In this regard, instructors in the classroom should play the roles of facilitators and enablers rather than content experts. In addition, it is recommended that emulation and repetition be used while learning to speak (Soomro & Farooq, 2018).
Ahmed (2020) researched the methods English language instructors use to instruct their students in oral communication. Teachers in this research used methods including conversation, group and pair talks, and storytelling to help students improve their English oral ability. However, Ahmed pointed out in the research that instructors didn’t implement discussions because they found the topic dull. In a similar vein, Viera (2017) analyzed the classroom dynamics of English language classes to see what impact instructors had in getting students to open up and communicate. The results showed that rather than relying on student-centred strategies like discussion, instructors favoured teacher-centred methods like explanation and questioning. Triwittayayon and Sarobol (2018) argue that the classroom and social surroundings are crucial for language acquisition. Instead of assuming that students would pick up new vocabulary in an L2 spontaneously as toddlers do when learning their first language, instructors should provide many opportunities for students to learn on their own by placing them in situations with abundant English input (Syafirizal et al., 2018). Therefore, to successfully acquire and utilize a second language, a learner must first grasp the meaning of the new vocabulary learnt in that language and then use that vocabulary within a specific situation, such as when speaking English.

B. The Mistakes That Students Make When Speaking English

When learning English, non-native speakers nearly always have challenges in every area (listening, writing, reading, and speaking). A lot of people also make mistakes with their spelling, grammar, and punctuation. This is because there are facets of English that are quite challenging for those learning the language for the first time. In the case of English as a Foreign Language, students acquire the ability to use a wide range of descriptive adjectives (Soomro & Almalki, 2017). Therefore, students must pay close attention to the sequence in which they use the following adjectives: viewpoint, body size, shape, age, skin tone, ethnicity, and lastly material (Socheath, 2018). These problems are unique to the English language, where there are no rules dictating whether to use the prefix or the suffix forms and where a lack of vocabulary is the most common cause of these mistakes (Khan et al., 2018).

One common way that non-native speakers of English show their lack of fluency is by using the wrong article. Other typical issues that need to be examined to achieve fluency in a speech include the use of prepositions, tenses, and repetition. In parallel research, Janssem (2019) looked at the impact of students' native tongue on their English language development. This research confirms previous findings that a conducive atmosphere is crucial for second language acquisition since it aids in removing potential barriers to fluency in English. A lack of regular English-speaking practice was shown to be primarily responsible for problems with pronunciation. When reading aloud or taking part in class discussions, students were shown to have incorrect pronunciation.

C. Previous Studies

According to Ahmed's (2020) research, pre-service EFL teachers may learn a lot from students who use self-study tactics to improve their English language abilities. The research method was a quasi-experimental before-and-after test arrangement. A random sampling of two classes from the first-year prep students was done. The other group served as the control group in an experiment. There were 36 female students in each cohort. While conventional means were utilized to instruct the control group, the experimental group was given opportunities for independent study. The study found that students in the preparatory school sample who used self-study strategies saw a significant improvement in their speaking abilities. This is because these strategies help to establish a comfortable and encouraging atmosphere in which students can practice their public speaking skills without feeling pressured or exhausted. In addition, students can take more control of their education and make better use of learning opportunities both inside and outside the classroom.

Soomro and Farooq (2018) studied how students’ motivation to improve their public speaking varied among classes, instructors, and classroom settings. 184 male and female EFL first-years at Taif University responded to the survey questionnaire. The results suggest that both male and female students may benefit from a more conducive learning environment for the development of their speaking abilities, but that this is not the case due to a lack of action on the part of educators and students. They have a wide range of English instructors, students, and environmental elements to blame for their low proficiency. And all of these things have an important effect on students’ motivation to improve their public speaking.

Triwittayayon (2018) examined the most important aspect influencing one’s English-speaking skills: how well one learns the language. There were a total of 15 people involved: 10 English instructors who had taught the five high school students who won prizes at a national speech competition to ensure their English speaking abilities, and five students who had won awards at the same competition. The researchers conducted in-depth interviews and semi-structured interviews to collect data. Students’ age, attitudes, family support, exposure to the language, personality, and English instructors were all shown to contribute to their level of fluency in the language, with personality and exposure to the language having the most impact. Teachers and students alike may use the study's findings to better understand what influences students' English proficiency.

Qasemi (2020) assessed the challenges that English students experience while communicating in English. Quantitative methods were developed to help with the investigation's overall goal. The primary method of collecting information was a set of questionnaires. The study's results demonstrated that the vast majority of students value and appreciate the need for effective communication skills. Findings show that most kids do not get any speaking practice in English outside of school. The research also highlights another difficulty, the wide range of pupils’ prior experiences.
with the English language. The results also demonstrated that the majority of pupils are inspired and confident in their public speaking abilities. More than that, the results showed that educators play a crucial role in inspiring their students' oral presentations.

Zaki (2021) investigated what influences Turkish students' English spoken. This study was conducted in a private language school in Istanbul, Turkey. Twenty-five men and twenty-five women made up a total of fifty participants. Between the ages of 16 and 22, our participants spanned a wide variety of ages. Several variables were shown to negatively affect students' confidence and comfort level while speaking up in class: a lack of chance to speak, fear of making errors, a lack of self-confidence, and a lack of familiarity with the material being discussed. Slow development is also caused by not speaking and listening enough, having a limited vocabulary, being too timid, and, most crucially, thinking in the native language before translating into the target.

III. METHODOLOGY

This study adopted a descriptive survey approach that allowed the researcher to get information on students' perceptions of variables impacting students' learning of English speaking abilities. According to Saunders, Lewis and Thornhill (2016), studies based on Descriptive Surveys are conducted so that educators and policymakers may have access to quantitative data on topics of importance to them in the field of education. According to Bell et al. (2011), the descriptive survey technique allows researchers to gather data that depicts existing phenomena by polling respondents on their thoughts, feelings, and actions. Using a descriptive survey has the added benefit of saving time and money by allowing researchers to examine a large sample quickly.

A. Study Population and Sample

The target population is described as the population of interest from which the individual participant for the measurement is taken (Cooper, 1998). This study targeted the private universities in Irbid governance that have two private universities that are Irbid National University with (2500) students and Jadara University with (4000) students, this means that the total population is (6500). Morgan's table served as the basis for determining the sample size of (365) students. The study's sample was drawn using a stratified random sampling process to provide an adequate representation of the population's several demographic subsets. In this research, 224 students from Jadara University and 141 students from Irbid National University served as participants. Following the conclusion of the data-collecting phase, the total number of students from the investigated institutions who provided replies was 331. The total number of questionnaires that were suitable for analysis was decreased to 316 surveys, which corresponds to a response rate of 86.6% of the entire study population. This was caused by the fact that the respondents to fifteen of the respondents did not complete their responses.

B. Research Instrument

Following a review of several prior research and their respective tools, the researcher devised a questionnaire to discover the students' perspectives on the elements influencing the development of speaking abilities. Two parts comprised the final form of the instrument. The first section of the questionnaire included basic information on the respondents, such as their gender and college type. The second section consists of 21 items that assess the elements that influence the development of speaking abilities in Jordanian institutions. Based on Mekonge (2017), these findings have been incorporated. To assess each topic in the questionnaire, a five-point Likert scale from "1" (very low) to "5" (very high) was employed.

Instrument Validity and Reliability

The research instrument was given to ten English language specialists from Jordanian universities for review of its linguistic formulation, scientific accuracy, and clarity. The items have been authorized with some minor language adjustments based on the feedback of the experts. Cronbach's alpha was computed to determine the reliability of the instrument; the reliability coefficient was (0.871), as shown in Table 1. A value of (60%) or above suggests a reasonable degree of response reliability, as stated by Bell et al. (2011) and Saunders et al. (2016). This demonstrates the reliability of the measurement.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>TABLE 1</th>
<th>CRONBACH'S ALPHA OF INSTRUMENT</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Factors Affecting the Improvement of Speaking Skills</td>
<td>Value of Cronbach Alpha</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Educational Tools</td>
<td>0.921</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Instructional Strategies</td>
<td>0.874</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mistakes of Speaking English</td>
<td>0.814</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Factors Affecting the Improvement of Speaking Skills as all</td>
<td>0.854</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 1 shows that the values of the internal consistency coefficient for the elements influencing the development of better speaking abilities were generally accepted, with values ranging from (0.814-0.921). All parameters of the instrument had Cronbach Alpha values over 0.60, suggesting that the research instrument was reliable and valid.

C. Data Analysis

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The data were examined by using the SPSS program to get the mean score, as well as using the independent sample t-test. When comparing means, determining whether or not there is statistical significance requires the use of the t-test for independent samples. The following table presents the means that were used in the interpretation of the data.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Means</th>
<th>Decision</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1.00-2.33</td>
<td>Low (L)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2.34-3.67</td>
<td>Moderate (M)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3.68-5.00</td>
<td>High (H)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

### IV. RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

#### A. Profile of Respondents

Descriptive analysis was used to define the "college type" attended by respondents as well as their gender. The gender breakdown of the responders was as follows: 65.5% male and 34.5% female. According to Table 3, the great majority of responders (69.9%) are from humanities colleges, whereas just a small percentage (30.1%) are from scientific colleges.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Variables</th>
<th>Category</th>
<th>N</th>
<th>%</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Gender</td>
<td>Male</td>
<td>94</td>
<td>33.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Female</td>
<td>191</td>
<td>67.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Academic rank</td>
<td>Assistant professors</td>
<td>218</td>
<td>76.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Associate professors</td>
<td>49</td>
<td>17.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Full professors</td>
<td>18</td>
<td>6.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The College</td>
<td>Humanities</td>
<td>182</td>
<td>63.9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Scientific</td>
<td>103</td>
<td>36.1</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

#### B. Research Question One

Table 4 displays the mean scores and standard deviations utilized by the researcher to answer the first research question on the educational tools used to teach English-speaking skills.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Item</th>
<th>N</th>
<th>Mean (M)</th>
<th>Stdev</th>
<th>Decision</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Item1</td>
<td>3.72</td>
<td>0.99</td>
<td>H</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Item2</td>
<td>3.89</td>
<td>1.25</td>
<td>H</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Item3</td>
<td>3.81</td>
<td>1.22</td>
<td>H</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Item4</td>
<td>4.13</td>
<td>1.02</td>
<td>H</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Item5</td>
<td>3.55</td>
<td>1.07</td>
<td>M</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Item6</td>
<td>4.12</td>
<td>1.04</td>
<td>H</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Item7</td>
<td>4.07</td>
<td>1.11</td>
<td>H</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Item8</td>
<td>3.98</td>
<td>1.06</td>
<td>H</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Item9</td>
<td>3.97</td>
<td>1.07</td>
<td>H</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Item10</td>
<td>3.71</td>
<td>0.99</td>
<td>H</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Total</strong></td>
<td><strong>3.90</strong></td>
<td><strong>0.83</strong></td>
<td><strong>H</strong></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

According to Table 4, the mean value of the instructional instruments used to instruct students in English-language skills was 3.90, and the standard deviation was (0.83). This indicates that a high level of application was made of the educational resources that were designed to educate students at the institutions under consideration proficient in the English language. When compared to the other pieces of educational material that are used to develop English-speaking abilities, item 4 had the highest mean (4.13). Additionally, among the items of the educational instruments used to teach English-speaking skills, item 6 has a high mean value (4.12). When compared to the other items, the mean value of item 16 is the lowest of all of them at 3.55.

Based on the results of the effects of exposure to different types of instructional materials on students' language skills, kids who are exposed to more of these resources have a more natural time improving their speaking abilities. This is so because they both stimulate students' senses and provide them with exemplary examples of written and spoken English to emulate. Teaching resources are effective because they facilitate learning and have a purpose in the classroom. Therefore, it is important that both the teaching and learning process and the environment in which these materials are employed be adaptable over time. Students learn best via hands-on experience, which is why instructional materials are so useful. Therefore, these materials need to be made accessible in the classroom if we are to fulfil our instructional goals. Similar findings were found in studies by Soomro and Farooq (2018), Ahmed (2020), and Zaki (2021).
C. Research Question Two

Means and standard deviations were calculated for each variable related to the methods that English language teachers used to teach students to speak English.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Item</th>
<th>N</th>
<th>M</th>
<th>St.dev</th>
<th>Decision</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Item1</td>
<td>3.60</td>
<td>1.10</td>
<td>M</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Item2</td>
<td>3.25</td>
<td>0.99</td>
<td>M</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Item3</td>
<td>3.42</td>
<td>1.07</td>
<td>M</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Item4</td>
<td>3.46</td>
<td>1.00</td>
<td>M</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Item5</td>
<td>3.24</td>
<td>1.00</td>
<td>M</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Item6</td>
<td>3.25</td>
<td>1.00</td>
<td>M</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>3.37</td>
<td>0.80</td>
<td>M</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 5 showed that the mean value of the methods that English language teachers used to teach students to speak English was (3.37) with a standard deviation of (0.80). This means that the methods that English language teachers used to teach students to speak English from the point of students of universities under study are moderate. Item 1 has the highest mean value among the items of the methods that English language teachers used to teach students to speak English (3.60). While item 2 and item 6 have the lowest value of the means among the items with (3.25).

This outcome occurred because the chosen style of instruction was too time-consuming to be implemented in a standard 40-minute class period. Where instructors employed, though poorly managed, strategies that promoted pupils’ oral communication abilities. As an example, we underutilized activities like conversation and role-play in favour of talking and sharing stories. Classroom debates and conversations were also found to be started by instructors, with students just following suit. Students were more comfortable speaking English in these classroom settings because they could freely share their thoughts and ideas. Ahmed’s (2020) study had similar results.

D. Research Question Three

Means and standard deviations were calculated for each variable related to the mistakes students make when speaking English.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Item</th>
<th>N</th>
<th>M</th>
<th>St.dev</th>
<th>Decision</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Item1</td>
<td>3.60</td>
<td>1.10</td>
<td>M</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Item2</td>
<td>3.24</td>
<td>1.00</td>
<td>M</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Item3</td>
<td>3.43</td>
<td>1.07</td>
<td>M</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Item4</td>
<td>3.47</td>
<td>0.99</td>
<td>M</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Item5</td>
<td>3.25</td>
<td>1.00</td>
<td>M</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>3.40</td>
<td>0.78</td>
<td>M</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 6 showed that the mean value of the mistakes students make when speaking English was (3.40) with a standard deviation of (0.78). This means that the mistakes students make when speaking English from the point of students of universities under study are moderate. Item 1 has the highest mean value among the items of the methods that English language teachers used to teach students to speak English (3.60). While item 2 has the lowest value of the means among the items with (3.24).

The absence of real-world conversational English practice among pupils likely contributed to this outcome. Despite receiving top marks, the tense was more of a writing mistake than a pronunciation one. Students’ incorrect word pronunciation owing to mother language influence was another typical problem. Poor pronunciation was thought to be caused by a combination of factors, including a lack of formal education, the learner’s immediate surroundings, and the learner’s mother language. To put it another way, some students couldn’t start school when they should have because of the culture in which they were raised. However, the majority of pupils did not begin school until they were older than six, the minimum age required to enter kindergarten. Regardless of their actual ages, they were coerced into enrolling in the oldest available class. Lastly, students ranked repetition as the lowest-scoring fault. This remark implied that instructors seldom noticed the inaccuracy, maybe because they so often took over the classroom and left pupils with little opportunity to utilize English in context. Consistent findings were found in research by both Qasemi (2020) and Zaki (2021).

V. Conclusion

This study aimed to explore the factors affecting the improvement of speaking skills among Jordanian EFL learners. This was accomplished by focusing on educational tools, instructional strategies, and the mistakes of students that influence speaking English from point of students at Irbid National University and Jadara University. The results showed that educational tools are highly applied at universities as a result of the proliferation of ICT, there is now a way of efficiently and effectively delivering services to students in the digital realm. Also, the results revealed that the
instructional strategies and the mistakes of students that influence speaking English are moderate. This indicates that the institution should take appropriate measures to address the problems caused by ineffective teaching methods and student errors while using the English language.

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REFERENCES


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Effect of Integrating PBL in BL on Student Engagement in an EFL Course and Students' Perceptions

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Abstract—In higher education, blended learning (BL) is becoming increasingly popular, and students' engagement (SE) in this setting can be a crucial indicator of their academic performance. Despite suggestions for enhanced student engagement in blended learning, few studies in blended learning have specifically addressed student engagement in their research questions. To address this deficiency, problem-based learning (PBL) was adopted to complement BL to foster SE in the Chinese EFL context. A questionnaire and semi-structured interviews were administered to 379 and 12 students, respectively. Results showed that the integration of BL and PBL significantly affected College English students' behavioural, cognitive, and emotional engagement. Additionally, the qualitative findings verified that students recognised the positive effect of integrating PBL into blended learning. It particularly emphasised the importance of face-to-face (FTF), a learning management system (LMS), and the provision of interesting resources and material as keys to fostering student engagement in BL. The use of real-life situational settings, group study, and the development of learning strategies were also highlighted to promote student engagement. This study sheds light on how to increase student engagement in blended learning environments and extends to the setting of Chinese EFL.

Index Terms—blended learning, PBL, student engagement, students' perceptions

I. INTRODUCTION

BL has been adopted frequently by higher education institutions in recent years. BL refers to the integration of face-to-face and online learning (Garrison & Vaughan, 2008). BL is a widespread practice in universities nowadays. It is crucial to enhance student engagement in BL and offers insightful recommendations for future instructional strategies (Huang et al., 2022). Many investigations have focused on student engagement (SE) in the BL setting because SE is essential for the deployment of BL to be successful (Halverson, 2019; Teng & Wang, 2021; Heilporn, 2021; Manwaring et al., 2017). High SE has been linked to several positive educational outcomes (Fredricks et al., 2019), deep learning, student happiness, and academic success are all significantly impacted by SE (Halverson & Graham, 2019; Kahu, 2013; Heilporn, 2021).

Student engagement refers to the energy and effort students employ within their learning community (Bond et al., 2020). Numerous studies have found that students' limited engagement in academic activities is the main reason for their dissatisfaction, unpleasant experiences, and decision to leave school (Greenwood et al., 2002; Perie et al., 2005). Although it is well recognised that BL can increase SE (Graham, 2019; Henrie et al., 2015; Manwaring et al., 2017), this is not necessarily the case in Chinese English classes due to the teachers' dominant role in the setting and the students' passive roles in learning (Liu, 2011). For instance, Yan (2022), Ma (2022), and Jiang (2021) reported in their recent studies that SE in College English blended learning had been low. They also mentioned that some students did not actively participate in class when using network resources for teaching and that teachers frequently dominated lectures (Ma Yan, 2022). All non-English majors must take a course called "College English" during their first two years at colleges and institutions. Improving SE in College English blended learning is crucial and imperative for Chinese higher education.

PBL is a pedagogical initiative that acknowledges the central role of students. It is said to improve indicators of cognitive engagement, e.g. learning motivation (Sungur & Tekkaya, 2006; Pease & Kuhn, 2011), problem-solving skills (Raiyn & Tilchin, 2015; Schmidt et al., 2011), deeper understanding (Vernon & Blake, 1993), application of learning...
content (Berkson, 1993), and autonomous learning ability (Schmidt et al., 2011; Chung & Chow, 2004). As a result, PBL has the potential to complement BL to develop SE (Delialiolu, 2012), and it can also increase the environment's ability to foster SE's behavioural, emotional, and cognitive dimensions. Not many BL studies address students' engagement with their research questions (Heilporn, 2021). Insufficient empirical research employs a specific strategy to enhance SE in blended learning experiences in the setting of Chinese EFL. This study uses a mixed-method approach to ascertain whether integrating PBL in BL can enhance SE and elicit perceptions from the end users. The study's findings are believed to offer direction and advance the literature on encouraging SE in BL environments, which have significant implications for educators and academics.

II. LITERATURE REVIEW

A. PBL's Theoretical Background

PBL derived from the theory that learning was a process in which the learners actively constructed knowledge (Gejselaers, 1996). Constructivism is a theory that supports PBL because it holds that teachers cannot impose information on students and that students actively construct knowledge and make meaning from their personal or societal experiences (Jonassen, 2004). The students actively work on projects and activities that are true to the environment, which is one of PBL's advantages. The emphasis is on the student's ability to interpret their meaning in a situation where they would use that information. Through inquiry and dialogue, students think critically and keep an eye on their thinking. Constructivists contend that skills have meaning when the students acquire them within a meaningful context. At the same time, PBL gives students a problem to solve and creates dissonance for students to construct knowledge (Marra et al., 2014).

B. Student Engagement

SE attracted researchers' attention 70 years ago with Ralph Tyler's research on the relationship between time spent on learning and SE (Kuh, 2009). Since then, there has been a significant evolution and expansion of SE research (Schindler et al., 2017). In recent years, it has received a lot of research (Heilporn, 2019; Halverson, 2019; Bond et al., 2020; Bond & Bedenlier, 2019; Teng & Wang, 2021; Manwaring et al., 2017). We may claim that successful students are more likely to be engaged in their studies. Many scholars (Bond et al., 2020; Fredricks et al., 2019; Christenson et al., 2012; Kahu, 2013; Manwaring et al., 2017; Halverson, 2019) agreed SE has three dimensions: behavioural engagement, emotional engagement, and cognitive engagement.

The indicators contributing to the dimensions of students' engagement should be clearly articulated, and further research can be conducted accordingly and effectively. The degree to which students actively engage in learning activities is how these scholars describe student behavioural engagement (Schindler et al., 2017; Fredricks et al., 2004; Kahu, 2013). According to Schindler et al. (2017), Kahu (2013), and Kuh (2009), interaction with peers, instructors, and staff, as well as the amount of time and effort invested in learning activities, are all behavioural engagement indicators (Schindler et al., 2017; Fredricks et al., 2004; Kahu, 2013; Trowler, 2010; Kuh, 2009). Next, student cognitive engagement concerns the degree to which students invest in learning and expend the mental effort to comprehend and master content (Schindler et al., 2017; Fredricks et al., 2004). Indicators of cognitive engagement mainly include motivation to learn (Schindler et al., 2017; Zepke & Leach, 2010), deep processing of information (Fredricks et al., 2004; Kahu, 2013; Schindler et al., 2017), learning strategies (Fredricks et al., 2004; Schindler et al., 2017), persistence to overcome academic challenges and meet/exceed requirements (Fredricks et al., 2004; Trowler, 2010; Kuh, 2009; Schindler et al., 2017). Finally, student affective reactions to learning are referred to as student emotional engagement (Fredricks et al., 2004; Trowler, 2010; Schindler et al., 2017). A sense of belonging to a learning community and attitudes, interests, and values toward learning are examples of emotional engagement indicators (Fredricks et al., 2004; Trowler, 2010; Kuh, 2013; Schindler et al., 2017).

C. Student Engagement in College English Blended Learning

Due to the rapid development of internet technologies, educational technology-based tools and applications have become crucial modern instructional aids for the teaching and learning of the English language (Zhiyong, 2020). After Covid-19, teaching English in a BL setting has become the "new normal" in Chinese higher education. The needs of college students are met through blended learning, which increases learning time and space and enhances the effectiveness of instruction in teaching English to students (Qi, 2021). Blended learning, which combines technology, can give students a flexible learning environment and give teachers more time to spend with students, either individually or in small groups (Pinto-Llorente et al., 2017). However, China has emphasised rote memorisation and teacher-centred education, which makes many academics found difficult to promote SE in this environment. According to Guo et al. (2019), students lack originality and participation motivation mainly because of teaching methods that encourage rote memorisation. PBL exercises demand that students use their newly acquired knowledge to locate and resolve problems (Anderson & Tredway, 2009). In addition to fostering a sense of community among students in blended learning environments, PBL also promotes SE in practical learning tasks (Callahan & Payne, 2018). PBL may be a sound teaching strategy to complement BL to enhance SE in teaching English in Chinese universities.
D. Integration of PBL in BL to Enhance SE in College English Blended Learning

BL integrates the advantages of both face-to-face learning and online learning. Face-to-face instruction is dynamic, making it easy for students to speak and participate and benefit from forging solid bonds. Interactive activities in face-to-face education, such as group discussions, case studies, debates, and problem-solving exercises, offer rich interactive experiences that raise students' behavioural engagement. Students interact face-to-face and work together to build the social context necessary for face-to-face communication. Digital tools can also improve the interactions in face-to-face learning via quizzes, discussion boards, random selection, sign-in, and point-adding systems. Online learning satisfies students' needs for customised education and overcomes the limitation of class time. Digital technologies and learning management systems can facilitate online and face-to-face learning integration. For instance, the discussion forum also improves communication between students and instructors. Together, teachers and students can produce and exchange learning materials. Teachers can also communicate with students through social media. Online learning, in-person instruction, collaboration, and interactive activities provide a rich, dynamic experience that raises students' emotional and behavioural engagement. However, if BL is used in a teacher-centred environment, it cannot fulfil its function in promoting SE. Furthermore, recent studies indicate that BL has little effect on students' cognitive engagement (Heilporn, 2021).

In PBL, which is student-centred, teachers act as facilitators and coaches to coordinate and promote problem-solving. PBL is a teaching approach that encourages problem-solving as a crucial tool for independent study and critical thinking in contexts that reflect real-world situations (Dolmans & Schmidt, 1996; Loyens et al., 2015; Wood, 2003). PBL has been shown to facilitate cognitive and metacognitive learning (Yeung et al., 2003; Mathews-Aydinli, 2007; Yew & Schmidt, 2009). According to Mathews-Aydinli (2007), PBL involves students in learning how to learn in addition to language and content acquisition. Tiwari et al. (2006) found that deep learning processes are reinforced in PBL classes through activities like discussions about classifying and sharing what students know and don't know, elaborating on and incorporating new information into the group's solution, and presenting and defending the group's answer to their peers. In addition to language and subject acquisition, Mathews-Aydinli (2007) believed that PBL involves students learning how to learn. PBL offers more opportunities for students to connect, participate, collaborate, ask questions, and use instructional methods for students' diversified learning in a blended learning environment (Gray & Tobin, 2010). PBL allows students to experiment with and develop new forms of discourse appropriate for the reading, writing, and collaborative practices prevalent in the digital age (Savin-Baden & Wilkie, 2006, p. 18).

The following PBL steps were integrated into College English blended learning (Figure 1): (1) Problem initiation. Definition of the problem that needs to be solved. (2) Problem analysis. Decisions such as the problem's scope and the required resources. (3) Task formulation. Problem objectives specification and ensuing task distribution. (4) Problem Delimitation. Each group must specify the limitations of the problem and reorganise the task and responsibilities allocation depending on the group's findings. (5) Solution. Determination of solution by each group through discussions and under teachers' guidance. (6) Problem discussion. Group and class discussion through recursion of the process's steps. (7) Evaluation. Student cognitive engagement may be influenced by these PBL steps, calling for students to identify problems, analyse problems, devise tasks, discuss difficulties, and work in teams. Students challenged to engage in higher forms of learning, such as analysing, synthesising, and evaluating, tended to be most engaging (Krause & Coates, 2008).
PBL activities can be used in BL and face-to-face (FTF) settings, which can work together in various ways. Characteristics of blended learning supplement PBL. With the help of rich and dynamic materials, BL gives students access to a more flexible and constructivist learning environment where they may take charge of their education. BL encourages interactions between the students and the teacher by allowing them to talk and work together both within and outside of the classroom. Since PBL relies on group study, this characteristic is a good fit for BL. Additionally, blended learning can give English language learners who are hesitant in FTF settings a chance to participate in collaborative problem-solving.

Some examples combined the BL and PBL in teaching and obtained better teaching results in language teaching (Dawilai, 2018; Lin, 2017). The statistical findings revealed that the PBL group outperformed the non-PBL group regarding English writing, reading comprehension, and active participation in the learning process. However, few researchers have focused on increasing student engagement with PBL and BL integration in Chinese EFL classes, despite the need for this instructional strategy. The following research questions were used to frame the current study in the context of Chinese EFL: (1) Does integrating PBL in BL enhance SE in College English? (2) How does integration of PBL in BL enhance SE in College English?

**III. METHODS**

The present study adopted a mixed-method approach, encompassing a quantitative inquiry and semi-structured interviews. A questionnaire was administered to College English students to investigate their BE, CE, and EE levels before and after the implementation of integrating PBL in BL, and a qualitative study consisting of one-on-one interviews was conducted.

**A. Participants**

In total, questionnaires were collected from a valid sample of 379 Chinese university sophomores aged from 18 to 23 after removing the incomplete responses. The participants were second-year students enrolled in a College English course at a university in south China, and they underwent the integration of PBL in BL. Pre- and post-survey were administered to measure BE, CE, and EE before and after eight weeks of treatment. Of the surveyed participants, 215 were males (57%), and 164 were females (43%). All participants have taken three semesters of blended learning.
College English. The participants in this study had been exposed to instructional technology tools and were familiar with blended learning. Twelve participants who agreed to participate in the follow-up interview were selected as interviewees. This interviewee group was made up of four males and eight females.

B. Instruments

A questionnaire and an interview protocol were, respectively, adapted and designed for data collection in the present study as follows.

Student Engagement Questionnaire in College English Courses

An online survey questionnaire was adapted, survey was adapted from Teng & Wang's "A Survey of Student Engagement in College English Courses" (Appendix A) (2021), which is especially designed for EFL students in Chinese higher education. It has 26 items and is graded on a Likert scale from strongly disagree (1) to strongly agree (5). The level of student engagement increases as the score rises. It was created for the Chinese academic setting, where the target students use similar digital tools like Wechat and the Superstar platform. Additionally, the items on this instrument centre on the three engagement dimensions that were the subjects of this article. Experts and researchers tested the validity of this questionnaire survey and made further revisions and improvements.

C. Interview Protocol

The interview protocol was designed to obtain students' perceptions of the effect of integrating PBL in BL on BE, CE, and EE. This interview protocol contained 15 questions (see Appendix B). During the interview, these questions were adjusted organically to explore the reasons, experiences, implicit feelings and specific examples towards integration of PBL in BL influencing their BE, CE, and EE.

D. Data Collection

The questionnaire was distributed to participants via an online survey tool. A purposive sampling approach, considered a time-saving and cost-effective method to identify the potential participants and obtain information-rich data (Patton, 2002), was adopted to select participants from a university where College English was being taught in blended learning. Their English scores in the college entrance exam were below 94 (the full mark of 150). The chosen university belongs to the Guangdong-Hong Kong-Macao Greater Bay Area, a big project in China that aims to be "Chinese Silicon" and needs a large number of English users. Prior to data collection, teachers' descriptions of integrating PBL in BL were obtained to ensure that the selected class had treatment properly. The survey was carried out with the respondents anonymously. All participants completed the questionnaire before and after integrating PBL in BL and were informed that the data would be used for research purposes. The questionnaires took approximately 5 minutes to complete, and from these participants, the researcher selected 12 participants to interview. The criteria for selecting interviewees were that the 12 interviewees demonstrated different SE levels (high, moderate, and low). The 12 interviewees were sophomores who took College English at the selected university, and all had received blended learning. The semi-structured, 40-min face-to-face interviews were conducted in Chinese, the participant's first language, and were digitally audio-recorded with the interviewee's permission.

E. Data Analysis

Before distributing the questionnaire survey, the reliability of the questionnaire was checked in the form of Cronbach alpha, and the result revealed that Cronbach's Alpha in BE, CE, and EE was 0.914, 0.839, and 0.894, respectively, which proved its good reliability. Then, paired sample test was run to explore whether integration of PBL in BL affects students' BE, CE, and EE.

Interviews allow for an in-depth and thorough understanding of personal feelings and experiences (Patton, 2015). The qualitative data, therefore, were analysed inductively and recursively according to the following process. First, the interview transcripts were read and re-read to pinpoint recurring words, phrases, and clauses in relation to the effect of integrating PBL in BL on students' BE, CE, and EE. Then, open coding was performed to yield a cluster of codes, and the initially identified codes were then translated into significant categories. The categories were then compared and integrated using axial coding (Strauss & Corbin, 1998), and the logical linkages between these categories were found to identify recognised themes. Finally, the themes should be constantly examined until a complete thematic map has been constructed.

IV. FINDING AND DISCUSSION

RQ1: Does integrating PBL in BL foster College English students' engagement?

The researcher would like to probe whether there are variances between students' BE, CE, and EE after the implementation of integrating PBL in BL. Paired sample tests were done to answer research questions. From table (n=379), we can see that the means score of BE of the post-survey (3.0561) is higher than its pre-survey score (2.7880) after 8-week treatment, with a mean score difference of .2681 (3.0561-2.7880). In addition, the t-test result of students' BE is significant (p<.05) according to table 2. The mean CE score of the post-survey (3.0443) is also more remarkable than the pre-survey score (2.8022), with a mean score difference of 2.421 (3.0443-2.8022). Additionally, table 2's t-test results for students' CE are significant (p<0.05). In terms of EE, the post-survey mean score (3.0741) is higher than the
pre-survey mean score (2.7801) after 8-week treatment, with a mean score difference of 294 between the two (3.0741-2.7801). Table 2 shows that PBL integration in BL has a significant impact on students' BE (t=-2.453, df=378, p<0.05), CE (t=-2.195, df=378, p<0.05), and EE (t=-2.760, df=378, p<0.05). In other words, the integration of PBL in BL significantly affects SE in College English.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Table 1</th>
<th>PAIRED SAMPLES STATISTICS OF SE</th>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Mean</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Pair 1</td>
<td>BE-pre</td>
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<td></td>
<td>BE-post</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Pair 2</td>
<td>CE-pre</td>
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<td></td>
<td>CE-post</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Pair 3</td>
<td>EE-pre</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>EE-post</td>
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<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Table 2</th>
<th>PAIRED SAMPLES TEST OF SE</th>
</tr>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>95% Confidence Interval of the Difference</td>
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<td></td>
<td>Paired Differences</td>
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<tr>
<td>Pair 1</td>
<td>BE-pre-BE-post</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Pair 2</td>
<td>CE-pre-CE-post</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Pair 3</td>
<td>EE-pre-EE-post</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

RQ2: How does blended learning integrating PBL enhance SE in College English?

As the statistical data showed that BE, CE, and EE had been improved by integrating PBL in BL, the secondary research question focused on how PBL in BL fostered SE. The qualitative findings with the following themes further contributed to a deeper understanding of these results from students' perceptions.

The first theme was that face-to-face (FTF) learning, digital tools, and learning management systems (LMS) in BL contribute to students' BE. FTF was a prevalent theme that most participants in the interview mentioned. Students gain SE from BL in two areas: a communicative learning environment and diversified interactions. "I actively participate in FTF learning because I think it is easier to form an intense learning atmosphere, [...] FTF learning can also urge me to listen carefully and make greater progress" (P10). "I am actively involved in the FTF, the learning atmosphere is strong, and we can help each other," Participant 4 said. P9 added: "I am more active in FTF learning. I think FTF learning can maintain social communication between students, and students and instructors can get better teaching feedback from FTF." P2 said: "I think FTF learning is the most effective and direct teaching method." P1 said: "Blended learning includes more diversified learning methods, which can make us more active". Added by P3: "BL's diversified learning forms have increased the application scenes of English".

Participants also highlighted the function of LMS enhancing BE, which enabled students to devote more time and energy to learning. As the LMS (Superstar platform) can be accessed through a mobile phone or personal computer, both Participant 6 and Participant 12 indicated that LMS enabled them to study anytime and anywhere. Participant 12 explained: "I can not only use books for learning, but mobile phones are also more convenient to carry, and I can learn English anytime, anywhere." P4 mentioned that "LMS not only enables me to absorb the knowledge better but also enables me to spend more time to learn English after class, allowing me to devote more time and energy to college English". P5 explained that "LMS enables me to learn English more freely, and then I can watch videos in the LMS and learn again and again where I don't understand". Participants indicated that digital tools in LMS are also helpful in fostering students' behavioural engagement. "I like to post questions in the discussion forum and communicate with other students because I can have room for freedom while understanding the content of the text" (P3). "Posting problems in the discussion forum is more attractive to me because we can ask and comment on other people's questions. I think this is a better way for interaction, which can let me participate more." P5 said. Participants 6, 8, and 12 said they liked communicating online. To a certain extent, digital tools can help improve participation in the classroom, such as using software to ask and answer questions and increase the sense of involvement. At the same time, it can also help me pay more attention to the text," P3 added. Participants' statements about digital tools' use aligned with what Heilporn (2021) mentioned, that various digital tools were highlighted to promote student behavioural engagement at the undergraduate level. They can stimulate student participation and attention, therefore fostering student behavioural engagement.

In addition, findings point to the role of group study as the second theme to optimise engagement, and group study is one of the significant components of PBL. "I prefer group study, which also gives other students more time to share and
more opportunities to perform. Such a mode has broadened my learning range." (P10). "We can discuss online (with the help of technology) and offline. Well, we get together, which is more convenient to collect information, including easier division of labour." P12 added. "And if these two teaching methods (BL and PBL) are integrated, the (behavioural) engagement of group members in group discussions can be increased, it will reduce the phenomenon of escaping from responsibility." Participants felt that solving problems together as a group improved students' deep learning, which is one of the signs of cognitive engagement. "When faced with a problem I don't understand, I will collaborate with my group or other students to discover a solution" (P2). "When we form a group, we converse and share ideas, regularly assess and develop our understanding of the material, and work together to complete the learning target" (P10). "It gives our classmates a chance to work together and coordinate activities." (P12). P5, P6, P7, P9, and P12 acknowledged PBL's impact on deep learning. For instance, "I think I may be more concentrated or in-depth to learn during group study." (P5). "PBL influences my study habits and improves my comprehension of the English language." (P6). These results support earlier research on the impact of PBL on cognitive engagement (Hmelo-Silver, 2004; Vernon & Blake, 1993).

According to participants, group study enables group members to feel close to each other and gain satisfaction from expressing themselves and enhances a sense of belonging. P7 said: "It is fascinating to watch the presentations of other groups when sharing in class, and I can learn a lot of views and ideas." "During my group cooperation and discussion participation, I feel happy." P2, P3, and P6 all expressed their satisfaction while working together to solve problems. P10 said: "It is interesting in the learning experience of College English blended learning and PBL. I like group cooperation; it gives students more time to share and opportunities. It can improve our good habits of helping each other and getting along well with each other and enhance our belonging sense and ability to teamwork".

Our study also figures out PBL's real-life situational settings and helps to develop learning strategies as an additional condition to enhance CE. In China, however, English language teaching in classrooms is usually teacher-directed (Zhang et al., 2022), leading to students' low motivation and limited development of learning strategies. The real-life situational setting is a characteristic of PBL (Loyens et al., 2015), which brings the learning to life for students, as well as a personal incentive. Several participants agreed that real-life problems in PBL can improve their motivation. "I think the problems or settings related to our real life or future job can help me focus more on learning and understand the content more in-depth. Take Unit 3: Job hunting as an example, and we can put forward problems related to job skills combined with our students' current situation: what skills do we think we need to find a job, or how can you make the interviewer remember you?" (P7). P1 agreed that real-life situational settings could stimulate her thirst for knowledge. Participant 2 added: "Real-life situational settings can stimulate me to understand that learning is the motivation to explore problems. It can help me focus more on my study".

As Hmelo-Silver (2004) suggested, PBL is a kind of experiential learning in real-life situations and can help students actively participate in the learning process. Moreover, as participants emphasised, PBL helps students develop learning strategies like self-direction, planning, and deep processing. "PBL task directs my learning and forces me to study more methodically than my previous methods, leading to poor learning efficiency" (P4). "My capacity for applying knowledge, [...] and my critical thought, has significantly increased when using the PBL method" (P9). "During problem-solving, we discussed possible learning strategies." (P7). "PBL process led me to organise my English-learning strategies and enable me to engage more fully in my college English course" (P11).

Further, PBL's processes, like application elaboration, discussion, interaction, and reflection, help to improve deep processing. "PBL allows us to think more about ourselves, rather than entering stuff blindly without thinking about problems," P8 commented. "I can learn more thoroughly as a result (of PBL). "PBL makes us think harder about how to solve challenges." These claims validated how PBL affects students' cognitive engagement. This finding is supported by Dolmans et al. (2016), who revealed that PBL had a favourable effect on the use of deep processing.

Last, the varied perceptions of students attached importance to the provision of interesting resources and material. Blended learning provides the ease of incorporating interesting resources and material, such as evocative images, video clips, narration, and other audio tracks, which enable students to better comprehend, relate to, and recognise the significance of the course subject. In this way, students won't perceive the course material as meaningless facts; instead, it might elicit an emotional reaction that makes it easier for them to retain it for the course duration. P11 said: "The degree of active participation depends on your interest in this issue." P12 asked for more interesting resources: "I also hope the teacher can recommend something interesting besides textbooks, which can stimulate my interest in learning English." "Regarding the problem's topic, I hope it is relevant to the class and the outside world. It makes me feel better to combine inside and outside classroom activities. I will be more experienced and interested if I study college English." (P7). Adding information to tasks engages students' emotions (Huk & Ludwigs, 2009).

V. CONCLUSION

Regarding the popularity of blended learning in higher education, enhancing student engagement in blended learning is imperative. Blended learning has transferred the emphasis of education from teaching to learning (Huang & Ling, 2022). The focus on teacher-centred and rote memorisation in the Chinese context inhibits blended learning from fostering student engagement. This study integrates PBL in BL because they complement well and have a favourable impact on students' BE, CE, and EE in the setting of Chinese EFL. According to the data analyses with SPSS 26, the integration of BL and PBL significantly affects students' BE, CE, and EE. Our study's results offer some preliminary
evidence in favour of PBL integration in BL as a helpful strategy for promoting SE in college-level English. These discoveries provided practitioners with a course of action and produced intriguing directions for further study. This study demonstrated that utilising FTF, LMS, group study, real-life situational settings, development of learning strategies, and provision of interesting resources and materials are favourable conditions contributing to SE, providing practical implications for improving SE in the Chinese EFL context. Group study should be more important due to its positive impact on BE, CE, and EE, which adds to the current literature to foster SE in the Chinese EFL context.

Finally, this study has some limitations. To begin with, it did not present teachers' perceptions of integrating BL and PBL in College English, instead aiming at offering students' perceptions of how the integration of BL and PBL fosters student engagement in College English. Future studies might examine how teachers feel about integrating BL and PBL to improve student engagement or use them across disciplines. In addition, the fact that this study was limited to a Chinese university may prevent it from providing a comprehensive picture. Research can be done in the future using various research methods.

APPENDIX

A. A Survey of Student Engagement in College English Courses (Adopted From Teng & Wang, 2021)

Instructions:
The survey items in this questionnaire have been designed for the measurement of student engagement in College English courses. Please review the survey items and provide comments regarding the content of the question, the wording, the timing, as well as the general format of the survey. Space for comments is provided after each question. You may write "none" if there is no comment needed.

PART I- Demographic Details

1. Your age is______________________________

2. Your gender is  A. Male                               B. Female

3. Are you a liberal arts student or a science student?   A. a liberal arts student   B. a science student

4. What is your English score in the final examination last semester? _____________

PART II- Please read the statements and choose one of the 5 options according to your situation: strongly disagree (1), disagree (2), basically agree (3), agree (4), strongly agree (5).

1= Strongly disagree 2= disagree 3= basically agree 4= agree 5= strongly agree

Section A

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Items</th>
<th>Comment</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>BE (01): Ask questions in class or contributed to class discussions.</td>
<td>1 2 3 4 5 NO</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>BE (02): Regularly study on the weekends.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>BE (03): Spend a lot of time studying on my own.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>BE (04): Rarely skip classes.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>BE (05): Usually come to class having completed readings or assignments.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>BE (06): Regularly work with other students on course areas I have problems.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>BE (07): Regularly get together with other students to discuss courses.</td>
<td></td>
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</table>

Section B

<table>
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<tr>
<th>Items</th>
<th>Comment</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>CE (01): Strategic about the way I manage my academic workload.</td>
<td>1 2 3 4 5 NO</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>CE (02): Put together ideas or concepts from different courses when completing assignments.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>CE (03): Worked harder than I thought I could to meet an instructor's standards.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>CE (04): Enjoy the intellectual challenge of courses studying.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>CE (05): Finding my course intellectually stimulating.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>CE (06): My Education will create many future opportunities for me.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>CE (07): I am hopeful about my future.</td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>CE (08): Learning is fun because I get better at something.</td>
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Section C

<table>
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<tr>
<th>Items</th>
<th>Comment</th>
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<tr>
<td>EE (01): I am interested in the work I get to do in my classes.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>EE (02): I feel excited by the work in my school.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>EE (03): Talk about career plans with a faculty member or advisor.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>EE (04): Have serious conversations with students who are very different from me.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>EE (05): Include diverse perspectives in class discussions or writing assignments.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>EE (06): Feel part of a group of students committed to learning.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>EE (07): I really like being a university student.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

B. Student Semi-Structured Interview

1. How do you think blended learning and the problem-solving process have helped you put more time and energy into learning College English?
2. Did you think the problem-solving process influences your learning strategies, help you focus on the learning, or learn the content in a deeper way?
4. Which learning activities involve/attract you the most and why?
5. Which learning activities you don't want to take part in and why?
6. Did you actively communicate with others during the learning activity? Can you give some examples?
7. Did you take part in face-to-face teaching actively? Why or why not?
8. Did you take part in the self-paced study online actively? Describe what involve you in the self-paced study online.
9. Do you think the problems are challenging or interesting?
10. Did you think the digital tools used in class can help you more involved in learning? How did you use these digital tools?
11. Did you actively take part in the problem discussion? Why or why not?
12. Did you actively take part in the group work? Why or why not?
13. How effective is your group's cooperation in solving problems? Can you give some suggestions?
14. Were you satisfied with the group work? Do you have any suggestions?
15. How do you think blended learning integrating PBL makes you more actively involved in learning College English?

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The Effect of Emotional Intelligence and Self-Efficacy Awareness on EFL Teachers’ Pedagogical Practices: A Qualitative Study in the Saudi EFL Context

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Abdullah Alshaikhai  
King AbdulAziz University, Kingdom of Saudi Arabia

Abstract—The study aims to explore the EFL Saudi teachers’ perceptions of awareness of emotional intelligence (EI) and self-efficacy. It aims to explore the EFL teachers’ awareness of EI and self-efficacy that might influence their performances in EFL classrooms. Moreover, the study examines EI and self-efficacy strategies used by EFL teachers to aid them in their classrooms. The study uses a qualitative paradigm by collecting data using two tools: a workshop and follow-up semi-structured interviews. The data were collected at a Saudi university’s English Language institute. The sample consisted of six Saudi EFL teachers. The findings reveal that teachers have positive perceptions of the awareness of EI and self-efficacy. In addition, teachers utilized their social surroundings in attempting to understand their students’ needs to facilitate the learning process. Despite being unfamiliar with technical terms, teachers’ responses were aligned with the cornerstones of EI and self-efficacy. Teachers emphasized the role of gaining knowledge through their experiences which thus helps them in their pedagogical practices. Based on the findings of the study, pedagogical implications and future research recommendations were suggested.

Index Terms—EFL teachers’ performances, emotional intelligence, self-efficacy, situated learning theory, Saudi EFL context

I. INTRODUCTION

A. Emotional Intelligence and Self-Efficacy

EI has been drawing an increasing interest to its cornerstones, practices, and relationship to the educational system. It plays a significant role in a person’s life as it is the ability to recognize one’s emotions, understand those emotions and act upon them (Mayer et al., 2000). In doing so, a person can direct their own emotions and understanding those of others surrounding them to benefit their own emotional and intellectual advancement (Mayer & Salovey, 1997). By recognizing the role that EI plays, researchers have sought to understand its link and effects on bettering teachers, which in return can have a positive effect on their classrooms (Sung, 2015).

Self-efficacy is the belief that a person has about their ability to carry out any given task. This belief is influenced by many factors amongst which the affective one is EI (Bandura, 1995). A teacher’s self-efficacy belief can influence his/her performance and thus the learning process. As the psychological and emotional status of a teacher can inform their self-efficacy in creating an active learning environment that results in achieving the objective of any class, researchers opted for the inclusion of self-efficacy training to improve teachers’ self-efficacy beliefs (Wossenie, 2014; Ghanizadeh & Moafian, 2014).

Research on both constructs has been conducted to determine the relationship between them and to what extent one can inform the other as they are closely linked. Researchers have found a strong correlation between EI and self-efficacy, which consequently influences teachers’ performances in classroom, how they manage their classes and how they choose their instructional approaches. The following section briefly reviews the theoretical framework that guides this research.

B. A Brief Review of the Theoretical Framework

This research is informed by Situated Learning Theory (SLT) as its underpinning go hand in hand with the factors affecting teachers’ performances in this study, which are EI and self-efficacy. The socio-cultural aspect lies in the core of SLT, and it stipulates for learning to occur in and derived from the social context. Learners in this theory are viewed as active recipients of knowledge that can be concurred from their day-to-day situations whereas the context in SLT acts as a core element in the learning acquisition. SLT provides us with several constructs that instruct the learning process:
a) It is an active and self-directed process, which means learners need to be independent and active in the learning process; b) It is situational and derived from everyday situations; c) It is a social process that consists of different ways of thinking, problem-solving and interactions; and d) It is an emotional process and for it to take place, the learner must be aware of his or her emotions whether positive or negative (Stein, 1997; Mandl & Kopp, 2005).

EFL Teachers in this study are the learners as they utilize their classroom setting as a social context to acquire and deliver knowledge. Being in EFL classrooms, teachers can maximize their outcomes in their own context that helps them create an active learning environment. EFL teachers can derive knowledge from their students’ emotional responses through using EI to better read and understand their learning needs that lead to their improved self-efficacy beliefs regarding their performances. Given the close link between EI and self-efficacy, teachers as active self-directed learners should be aware of their impact on the learning process.

In the next section, the rationale of the study is presented to demonstrate the reasoning behind this study.

C. Rationale of the Study

There is a growing body of research on EI and self-efficacy and their effects on different aspects of the learning and teaching processes, and some of it is critically reviewed in the subsequent chapter. In the Saudi context where this research is conducted, the focus of research on EI has been students and to the best of the researcher’s knowledge, there has been inconclusive research on teachers’ EI and self-efficacy awareness and their impact on teachers’ performances, specifically in the language classroom. A comprehensive search of the literature revealed a few studies addressing teachers’ EI and self-efficacy effect on their performances inside higher education language classrooms in the Saudi context. Therefore, this limitation provided the impetus for the present research.

EI and self-efficacy are eminent factors that predict teachers’ effectiveness, performance, and work attitudes. Previous research highlights the positive effects of high levels of EI and self-efficacy that result in better performance and work attitudes, thus leading to teacher’s effectiveness. However, those studies were limited to surveys and are in different contexts while this research aims to explore the awareness of EI and self-efficacy and its effect on EFL teachers’ performances, specifically using a qualitative approach, and fills the gap in the Saudi EFL context. The significance of this research lies in its exploratory nature that sheds some light on the effect of EI and self-efficacy on EFL teachers’ performances and its implications that include recommendations on how to foster and promote EI and self-efficacy to enhance and facilitate the teaching-learning processes in foreign language classrooms.

D. Research Aims

This study seeks to obtain data which will help to address the aforementioned research gaps. Hence, the main aims of this research are:

- To identify EFL teachers’ perceptions of EI and self-efficacy.
- To establish the extent of the effect of EFL teachers’ awareness of EI and self-efficacy on their performances.
- To outline EI and self-efficacy strategies that teachers use, and suggest pedagogical implications based on the findings.

E. Significance of the Research

The findings of this study may offer insights into teachers’ stance towards EI and self-efficacy awareness and pinpoint the extent of the effect of said awareness of teachers’ performances in the language classroom. As previous research has shown, the emotional aspect needs to be at the core of any reform directed at the educational level for both teachers and students to ensure a better learning environment (Hargreaves, 1998). Therefore, the findings of this study can serve in putting forward recommendations and pedagogical implications for EFL teachers, policymakers and reforms that foster EI and self-efficacy and result in better outcomes. Teachers voice their input and highlight the importance of understanding EI and self-efficacy and their effects to improve themselves by creating a conducive learning environment.

F. Research Questions

This research is guided by the following three research questions:

1. What are the EFL teachers’ perception of emotional intelligence and self-efficacy awareness in relation to their pedagogical performance in EFL classrooms?
2. What is the effect of emotional intelligence and self-efficacy awareness on EFL teachers’ performances?

II. LITERATURE REVIEW

Over the past couple of years, researchers have been highlighting the effect of EI on teachers as well as its relationship to self-efficacy. There has been a growing body of research on the two constructs and the extent of their effects. Researchers have found a strong correlation between EI and self-efficacy which consequently has an effect on teachers’ pedagogical performances, how teachers manage their classroom teaching and how teachers choose their instructional approaches. This chapter reviews literature on EI, self-efficacy, and English language teachers’ pedagogical performances. The chapter begins by introducing the theory that underpins this research and goes to define
EI and its components. It then explains self-efficacy and discusses related studies. Finally, it discusses the relationship between EI, self-efficacy, and teachers’ performances in the language classroom.

A. Emotional Intelligence

EI has been defined by Mayer et al. (2000) as cited in Nikolau (2002) as “an ability to recognize the meaning of emotions and their relationships, and to reason and problem-solve on the basis of them. EI is involved in the capacity to perceive emotions, assimilate emotion-related feelings, understand the information of those feelings, and manage them” (p. 267). It has also been defined in terms of the ability to succeed in the surrounding environment and stressful situations through non-cognitive abilities and skills (Bar-On, 1997). Accordingly, Mayer and Salovey (1997), as cited in Ebrahimi et al. (2018), proposed the ‘ability model’ that “EI is the ability to recognize emotions, to access and generate them in order to aid thought, to comprehend emotions and emotional knowledge, and to reflectively control them to advance emotional and intellectual growth” (p. 438).

On the other hand, Goleman (1995), as cited in Chen and Guo (2020), proposed the mixed model based on the model of Mayer and Salovey (1990), which provides a slightly different definition of EI: “the capacity for recognizing our own feelings and those of others, for motivating ourselves, and for managing emotions well in ourselves and in our relationships” (p. 84). Mayer and Salovey (1993) suggested that individuals with abilities to experience feelings clearly and regulating their effect confidently are more likely to be better able to control their moods and overcome failures. Emotional management is a vital component in certain information-processing mechanisms that enable problem-solving (Mayer & Salovey, 1993).

Sung (2015) reviewed five components of EI proposed by Bar-On (2004) which are: a) Intrapersonal EI which comprises self-awareness and self-actualization; b) Interpersonal EI related to interpersonal skills; c) Adaptability and problem-solving; d) Stress management; and e) General mood (Bar-On, 2004; as cited in Sung, 2015). Sung (2015) highlighted the importance of teaching EI and its impact on the quality of life in higher education in Asia. She elaborated on the diverse cultural aspects and how they differ from context to context. However, she stressed the relevance of EI in each context because the human brain functions in the same way to process emotional information. In the same vein, Joseph et al. (2019) synthesized a review of the literature on EI training in higher education and concluded that the courses offered on EI in universities are limited in scope and application. They pointed out inadequate empirical research on EI training in higher education and the consequent opportunities for scholars to fill this gap.

Similarly, Hargreaves (1998) recognized the role of the emotional aspects on teachers and consequently their teaching. He suggests that no educational reform would be successful unless emotions and their impact on the teaching/learning process are at its core. Moreover, integrating emotional aspects and dimensions in teaching is to be considered the norm and not the exception. He promoted a better understanding of emotions and how to manage them in educational contexts. The inclusion of emotional dimensions is a vital step in the improvement of the educational system.

Mayer and Salovey (1993) addressed the criticism on EI and concluded that it is an ability in its merit and is closely related to intellectual processing. Emotions are predictors of mood shifts which inform the categorization of daily life tasks based on importance. Correspondingly, those shifts inform cognitive and behavioral activities when dealing with different situations. EI has different operating mechanisms including “emotionality, emotion management and neurological substrates” and they stress the point of EI manifestation which encompasses “verbal fluency in emotional domains” and “information transmission” among other things (p. 440). Mayer and Salovey (1993) emphasize that thought flow when experiencing emotion could either hinder information processing or enable it which in turn could lead to openness to experiences or cut off experiences. Therefore, it is essential that individuals are aware of their emotional regulatory abilities to better understand their surroundings and their wellbeing (Mayer & Salovey, 1993). The following section focuses on research on the effect of EI on teachers.

B. Research on the Effect of Emotional Intelligence on Teachers

Joshiath (2012) acknowledged the role emotions play in teachers’ practices and daily tasks. Therefore, following Goleman’s (1995) mixed model, the researcher carried out a study to investigate the role of an EI package created to improve student teachers’ knowledge of their strengths and weaknesses in relation to EI competency. The researcher used an experimental paradigm consisting of a control group (25 participants) and an experimental group (25 participants) and pre- and post-tests. The results were positive and showed a significant increase in student-teachers’ EI. After the EI package, student-teachers were more open and aware of their innate abilities to manage their emotions. The EI package was successful and could be used as a tool to enhance and promote EI in teachers.

Razavi (2014) explored EFL teachers’ EI in relation to their personality traits. The researcher administered a questionnaire and analyzed data through SPSS. Based on the findings, the researcher recommended that teachers should be involved in training and professional development workshops that focus on EI skills. Similarly, Mousapour (2015) conducted a study to determine the relationship between teachers’ EI and their teaching styles. The researcher recruited 90 participants who completed both the emotional quotient questionnaire and the teaching styles inventory questionnaire. The results demonstrated that there was a strong positive correlation between teachers’ EI and their teaching styles, which means that teachers with higher levels of EI use better teaching styles.
C. Self-Efficacy

Self-efficacy has been defined as the belief that a person entertains regarding his/her ability to accomplish a certain goal, objective, or task (Bandura, 1993). According to Bandura (1995), four key factors affect one’s personal beliefs regarding perceived self-efficacy: a) mastery of learning, which requires the mastering of the tools and processes to manage life’s dynamic circumstances; b) a focus on victorious or successful experiences; c) social persuasion, which is a result of support from other people; and d) psychological and emotional status, which affects a person’s attitude, mood and information processing (Bandura, 1995).

Moreover, Bandura (1995), as cited in Scribner (1998), hypothesized that efficacy embodies itself in “four processes of human functioning: cognitive, affective, motivational, and selection” (pp. 10–11). Teachers’ perceived self-efficacy has a significant impact on the way they manage the creation of a positive and active learning environment (Bandura, 1993). Bandura (1977) elaborated on the definition of self-efficacy and claimed that it entails a duration of time, the exertion of efforts and perseverance in the face of obstacles, all of which are required to attain the desired goal. Self-efficacy has been found to change the way an individual thinks, feels and acts (Schwarzer, 2008).

Various studies have examined the effect of self-efficacy on EFL teacher’s performances in language classrooms. For instance, Eslami and Fatahi (2008) investigated the impact of EFL teachers’ sense of self-efficacy on their instructional strategies. The sample included 40 EFL nonnative teachers at different schools teaching different grades with a minimum of five years of experience. The data collection instruments used were a sense of self-efficacy and instructional strategies, either grammatically oriented or communicatively oriented questionnaires. Both descriptive and inferential statistics yielded the following results: teachers with a positive sense of self-efficacy beliefs tended to vary the use of instructional strategies and resorted to focusing on meaning and fluency rather than accuracy. The more efficacious teachers felt the increased likelihood of her usage of communicatively oriented instructional strategies.

D. Relationship Between Emotional Intelligence and Self-Efficacy

What follows is an account of research on the relationship between EI and self-efficacy to different aspects of teaching. A study by Moafin and Ghanizah (2009) investigated the relationship between EI and self-efficacy and revealed a strong correlation between teachers EI and their self-efficacy. The sample was relatively big and consisted of 89 female and male Iranian EFL teachers. The positive relationship between the two indicates that high levels of EI are linked to high levels of self-efficacy. Interpersonal relations and problem-solving were presented as having the highest correlation to teachers’ self-efficacy.

Nikoopour et al. (2012) conducted similar research on a larger scale with a sample consisted of 336 female and male EFL teachers. The results supported previous research findings regarding the significant relationship between EI and self-efficacy. Moreover, teachers with more years of experience scored higher levels on both EI and self-efficacy tests. Sarkhosh and Rezaee (2014) reached a similar conclusion regarding the significant relationship between EI and self-efficacy. They administered the EI and self-efficacy surveys on 108 EFL Iranian university teachers. The results showed that three subscales of EI, flexibility, optimism, and interpersonal relationships, were positive predictors of self-efficacy.

Wossenie (2014) sought to identify a relationship between EI and self-efficacy of 43 EFL primary schoolteachers in Ethiopia. The data was collected through administering EI and self-efficacy questionnaires. The results showed lower than expected levels in both domains. However, there was a strong and significant correlation between the two variables. The research findings suggest the incorporation of EI and self-efficacy training in teacher education programs.

As shown above, EI and self-efficacy appear to be closely linked. In the subsequent paragraphs, the effect of EI and self-efficacy on different aspects of teaching and teachers are discussed. Penrose (2007) explored teachers’ EI and self-efficacy and teacher effectiveness. The researcher collected data using an EI scale and self-efficacy scale from 135 teachers. The results showed that EI and self-efficacy are closely related. Furthermore, the researcher found that teachers who had high EI had a high sense of self-efficacy, which is related to achieving better outcomes.

Salami (2007) investigated EI and self-efficacy in relation to work attitudes. He collected data from 475 teachers through surveys. The data was analyzed through SPSS. The findings showed a significant relationship between the variables and work attitudes. Teachers who had higher EI and self-efficacy had a higher emotional commitment to their place of work, thus developing positive work attitudes.

E. Factors Affecting Emotional Intelligence and Self-Efficacy

Goleman (2006) identifies factors that are considered predictors and components of EI. He lists the following as the most prominent constructs: self-awareness, self-regulation, motivation, empathy, and social skills. Self-awareness refers to the ability to identify one’s emotions, strengths, weaknesses, skills, values, and their effects on others. Self-regulation means the ability to regulate one’s abrupt emotions and impulses. Motivation is the inner drive to accomplish a goal or an objective. Empathy is the ability to be considerate of others’ feelings and the effect of your decisions on them. Finally, social skills are skills that help a person manage their social relationships (Goleman, 2006).

Returning to the subject of self-efficacy and factors influencing it, Bandura (1995) highlights four main factors that affect one’s self-efficacy beliefs which are: mastery of learning, successful experiences, social persuasion, and psychological and emotional status. Moreover, Bandura (1997) argues that once self-efficacy beliefs are established,
they cannot be changed. However, recent research focusing on self-efficacy has proved otherwise. There are other factors than the aforementioned factors that affect self-efficacy beliefs and change them either positively or negatively.

For instance, Tschanen-Moran and Hoy (2007) explored factors that affect novice and experienced teachers’ self-efficacy beliefs. The assumption is that teachers’ self-efficacy beliefs are closely related to the exerted efforts in teaching, objectives set to accomplish, their perseverance in the face of failure and their resilience when things go wrong. The researchers aimed to add to the empirical body of research on the factors predicting teachers’ self-efficacy beliefs. The sample was 255 novice teachers with three or fewer years of teaching experience, and experienced teachers with four or more years of teaching. The researchers used questionnaires as a means for data collection. The results showed that novice teachers had lower levels of self-efficacy beliefs than experienced teachers which highlight the years of teaching experience as a factor affecting self-efficacy. Experienced teachers had higher levels in instructional strategies and classroom management, and it could be attributed to their years of experience as well. Demographics, such as gender and race were not significant factors that affected teachers’ self-efficacy beliefs. The context was not a resilient factor; however, for novice teachers, the availability of teaching resources was a predictor of the conception of their self-efficacy beliefs. Finally, mastery of experiences was a predicting factor for both novice and experienced teachers.

III. RESEARCH DESIGN

This research follows a qualitative research design, specifically a case study design to explore the teachers’ perceptions of EI and self-efficacy in the Saudi EFL context, Yin (2000) defines a case study as “an empirical inquiry that investigates a contemporary phenomenon in depth and within its real-life context, especially when the boundaries between the phenomenon and context are not clearly evident” (p. 18). The case study is a broad method which may involve the use of several types of data gathered and analysed using different methodologies, which is why it is used in this research to explore and answer the proposed research questions (Creswell, 2012). Similarly, case studies showcase the detrimental role of “contextualization and holistic accounts of individual” (Duff, 2010, p. 52). Since this study focuses on the EFL teachers’ perceptions of EI and self-efficacy in a Saudi higher education institution, the university context serves as a case study where a group of teachers are interviewed regarding the research phenomenon.

Owing to the exploratory nature of this research, two methods of data collection were adopted to get a better understanding and in-depth knowledge of the research construct (Wahyuni, 2012). Therefore, a purposeful sampling was used to collect data as it allows the researcher to “intentionally select individuals to learn or understand the phenomena” (Creswell, 2012, p. 206). The target sample were Saudi EFL instructors with experience of teaching college level English. This research only focused on obtaining data from female participants due to gender segregation in Saudi universities. The data was thematically analyzed using NVivo software.

A. Context of the Study

According to the reviewed literature in the previous chapter, research body on EI and self-efficacy awareness effects in the Saudi University level context deemed inconclusive. Research in the context focused qualitatively on students’ EI and how it affected them differently. Hence the focus of this study was the second important party in a classroom, the Saudi EFL teachers and how their awareness of both factors EI self-efficacy would affect their teaching practice. The participants of the study were female Saudi EFL teachers who have been working at the English Language Institute (ELI) of a Saudi Arabian university. All teachers have had 2+ years of experience teaching English to Saudi EFL students. The English program at the ELI has two tracks; arts and science, and all the participants have taught both the tracks. The program has four levels which range from A2 – B2 according to CEFR. All teachers have taught beginner levels and upper intermediate levels. In the following section, the research sample is discussed in detail.

B. Data Collection

This study has utilized two data collection tools to gather qualitative data. The first stage was based on an online workshop and the second stage involved semi-structured interviews with the participants.

(a). Online Workshops

The first data collection tool was an online workshop prepared to explore teachers’ responses to certain scenarios, which were constructed based on Bar-On’s (2004) EI model. The model consists of five components: a) Intrapersonal EI which comprises self-awareness and self-actualization; b) Interpersonal EI related to interpersonal skills; c) Adaptability and problem-solving; d) Stress management; and e) General mood (Bar-On, 2004). The scenarios for the online workshop were derived from situations (e.g., Describe a perfect day in your classroom which signifies a teacher’s intrapersonal EI which comprises of self-awareness and self-actualization). The workshop was piloted on three English instructors to ensure its comprehensibility and efficacy. Teachers were sent Google forms to fill in general information about themselves and choose a preferred time to attend the workshop as it was presented on the course of two days. Each day three participants attended the online workshop via Zoom platform; hence it was easily accessible and proved to be a user-friendly platform. After introducing myself and welcoming the teachers’, the session commenced with prompts related to the scenarios. Each teacher got her turn in reciting their reaction to the proposed
scenarios. Then, the teachers were asked the constructs of EI and self-efficacy and briefly introduced the two concepts. Finally, a date for the semi-structured interviews was set with the participants.

(b). Semi-Structured Interviews

I conducted semi-structured interviews with six participants after the online workshop. The participants were contacted a couple of days after the online workshop via emails to set dates for the interviews. The interview questions were derived from the reviewed literature and my personal observation of teaching practices in the Saudi EFL context. Apart from set questions, emergent questions were asked based on the participants’ answers. Each interview was conducted via a Zoom call and lasted about 10-15 minutes. The participants were cooperative and open for a second interview if required.

B. Data Analysis

Qualitative data are known to yield rich, raw and rigorous descriptions, which need to be managed for the purpose of analysis. The first step to analyze data is good keeping and storage of collected data. In this research, as everything was conducted online, data were stored in an encrypted cloud to ensure the anonymity and personal information of the participants. All recorded workshop sessions and semi-structured interviews were transcribed manually on a word file to be thematically analyzed via NVivo. Data cleaning was a step taken to guarantee the confidentiality of the participants and to ensure that all information leading to their identification was discarded properly. Thematic analysis renders an inductive approach to data analysis in which themes and interpretations emerge from obtained data, rather than being pre-determined or pre-defined (Wayuni, 2012).

IV. RESULT DISCUSSION

The findings are presented following the theoretical framework and proposed research questions of this study.

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**RQ1: What are the EFL teachers’ perception of emotional intelligence and self-efficacy awareness in relation to their pedagogical performances? (Table 1)**

An initial objective of this study was to explore the effects of EI and self-efficacy awareness of EFL teachers’ performances in EFL classrooms. The first research question of this study sought to investigate the perceptions of teachers regarding EI and self-efficacy awareness. An interesting finding that could answer this question is how teachers’ thought that EI could help them understand their students more which will consequently help them “adjust their teaching methods or techniques”. As highlighted by SLT, teachers direct their learning to develop themselves through authentic settings in language classrooms. Teachers actively use their social settings in the form of EFL classroom to acquire new knowledge, improve on previous learning and mirror that through their teaching practices. By doing so, teachers could be leading the learning process to a better outcome that is in alignment with their learning goals for themselves and their students.

Furthermore, teachers emphasized that when they can spot the changes of facial expressions and change in mood, they are better equipped in dealing with such changes as they might help them change their way of teaching according to their students’ emotions and mood. This is consistent with the theory of SLT that suggests how teachers process their students’ responses and reactions in order to accommodate students in language classrooms. When teachers are aware and attentive in their classroom settings to their students’ expressions and emotional responses, they are able to identify their students’ needs based on their reaction and responses throughout the class. These findings are in correlation to Dev et al.’s (2016) findings which confirmed that teachers’ EI and self-efficacy had a significant role on their performances in terms of understanding others’ emotions, regulating one’s emotions and adapting accordingly. As established by previous research (e.g., Eslami & Fatahi, 2008; Nikoopour et al., 2012; Sarkhosh & Rezaee, 2014; Mahasnesh, 2016), EI and self-efficacy are highly correlated which has been established in this study as well. Teachers have stated that when they are aware of their own emotions and have a better regulation of their own reactions, they are better able to

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manage themselves in the language classroom and have more confident in carrying out the lesson to reach the desired outcomes. One teacher considered it “the occurrence of learning”. The findings suggest that teachers maintain a good learning pace of their own development. According to SLT, teachers progress through the social setting of their classrooms.

In addition, another important finding is that all teachers agreed that their students’ mental health and psychology are important aspects of EI and self-efficacy, as one teacher stated, “their mental health is more important than any other thing”, and another teacher declared “mental support is everything”. Which could indicate the importance of teachers’ regard to EI and self-efficacy awareness that may help them in the EFL classroom. Moreover, a teacher mentioned how EI helps her know her audience which helps her know the kind of students they are and how to assist them. Similarly, another teacher marked the importance of being confident as with trial-and-error teachers will be able to find out what works for their students. This might signify how teachers rely on their EI and self-efficacy awareness to adapt, change, and perform in the EFL classroom. Teachers are actively directing their learning in a way that both benefits them and their students in the authentic setting of the language classroom. This finding supports the findings of previous studies by Moafin and Ghanizah (2009) and Wossenie (2014) conducted in different contexts using quantitative methods which show that those higher levels of EI are highly linked to higher levels of self-efficacy.

One of data collection tool that was used to implicitly identify how teachers’ perceptions of EI and self-efficacy awareness was the workshop in which teachers as detailed in the methodology chapter were given hypothetical scenarios and what would their reactions be and their possible effects on carrying out the lesson. Teachers showed awareness of their reactions and how to balance what they do in order to improve themselves and the classroom environment. Teachers were aware of the possible effects of the general mood on themselves and in return on their students and their learning. Teachers, although some of them stated not knowing the technical terms, were actively trying to practice the underlying constructs of both EI and self-efficacy. Teachers based on the findings of this study perceived awareness of EI and self-efficacy positively.

To reiterate, teachers possibly hold high regards for the role EI and self-efficacy awareness in the EFL classroom and view it positively as it could result in knowing what best is for their students and their needs. These findings support SLT’s constructs of how teachers can direct their own learning through the social setting of a language classroom in a way that benefits their students’ progress. Putting both teachers’ and students’ emotions into account could help the learning environment which will consequently result in better teaching practices.

RQ2: What is the effect of emotional intelligence and self-efficacy awareness on EFL teachers’ performances?

(Tables 2)

Table 2

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<th>Effects of emotional intelligence and self-efficacy awareness on EFL teachers’ performances.</th>
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The second research question tackled the possible effects of EI and self-efficacy on teachers’ performances and to what extent it is. A finding of this study is that teachers use their EI skill to elicit knowledge from students and build on that knowledge to better serve the objective of the lesson. Moreover, teachers elaborated on differentiating methods of explaining items such as pictures, videos, miming, personalized exercises, humor, relating grammar to stories and if needed using L1 depending on their students’ reactions or facial expressions. This might indicate that teachers utilize EI and self-efficacy in aiding the learning process in the language classroom to enhance their performances. What the teachers do is the epitome of what SLT stands for which is obtaining knowledge, learning, and implementing acquired practices within the social context of the EFL classroom (Fox, 2007).

An interesting finding of this study is that teachers resort to their EI and self-efficacy skills when they teach lower achievers and repeaters. Trying to put the students’ interest at heart and maintaining a fostering learning environment as a teacher stated the “Mental support is everything”. Moreover, a teacher elaborated and mentioned that a teacher should be able to facilitate the students’ learning while managing how they feel:

*If you think they have a lot of energy that day, you have to use this energy to facilitate their learning from that day. So, it depends on their feelings. What do they feel? And you can figure it out and you just have to change your way in teaching according to their emotions, moods in that day, I think.*

Learning is informed by several constructs which activate the emotional process of knowing one’s feelings either positive or negative (Stein, 1997). Hence, it may be that teachers’ practices are dictated by their awareness of their own emotions and their students’ emotions which help them with the learning environment. Moreover, teachers’ performances are influenced by their teacher-student relationships which is why many teachers prefer to know their students and establish good rapport with them to improve the learning process.
Furthermore, the above finding corporates what has been stated in the literature in a sense that teachers’ utilization of EI and self-efficacy enhances their teaching and performances (e.g., Hargreaves, 1998; Josith, 2012; Razavi, 2014; Dev et al., 2016; Asrar-ul-Haq et al., 2017; and Kaur et al., 2019). As a response to a scenario in which students were being disruptive, teachers mentioned resorting to different methods to attract the students’ attention which highlights adaptability and problem-solving and is one of the EI components proposed by Bar-On (2004). These findings further support previous research related to the effects of EI and self-efficacy on teachers’ performances.

Teachers have emphasized the importance of utilizing their EI in getting to know their students and understanding them and their backgrounds. Teachers think that being able to understand their studies helps them manage classrooms effectively. To that end, teachers are better able to personalize their classes and lessons to result in students’ engagement and enthusiasm. Moreover, by doing so, teachers can establish a good rapport with their students and have a better teacher-student relationship. One teacher indicated that it is imperative for a teacher to show their students that they care about them as human beings to foster a healthy learning environment. It is not merely a transaction of passing information regardless of the student and who they are. Teachers stated that they put in effort as they know that separating the student from their social context is impossible. Therefore, they utilize getting to know their students in forming a better rapport with them which helps their teaching practices. In accordance with SLT, teachers are being self-directed learners who employ interactions to their benefit.

V. Conclusion

The findings of this study have shed light on the awareness of the relationship between EI and self-efficacy and their effect on teachers’ pedagogical performance in the EFL classroom. The need for incorporating such skills could be seen beneficial to both teachers and learners in the language classroom. However, there were some limitations such as if there were other tools such as observations would have yielded a more comprehensive understanding of teachers’ performances and their EI and self-efficacy awareness; hence, resulting in more credible and trustworthy data. The study was restricted to female teachers due to the sampling choice based on availability. It would have been interesting to investigate the male teachers’ perceptions and awareness of EI and self-efficacy. Presumably, data from EFL male instructors could differ based on their own experiences resulting in broader findings.

Pedagogical Implications

There are several pedagogical implications based on the findings of the study. EFL teachers, if not provided by their respective place of work are to familiarize themselves with the set of skills that would aid them in teaching, such as EI and self-efficacy. Policymakers need to put forth a reform program that does not only focus on latest teaching strategies and topics of the sort but on the skills teachers need to improve the quality of their teaching and learning. Moreover, a natural progression of this work is to investigate the levels of EI and self-efficacy of EFL teachers and observe their classes. It is still unclear the levels of EI and self-efficacy teachers possess as this study focused on their awareness of the constructs. Furthermore, future research could focus on conducting a quasi-experimental study in which EFL teachers are provided with EI and self-efficacy training to measure their performances in a controlled and an experimental group. Considerably, more research work needs to be done in the Saudi EFL context to determine the extent of the effect of EI and self-efficacy on different aspects relating to the learning process such as experience, teaching method, classroom management and so on.

REFERENCES

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Brainstorming Combined With Project-Based Learning as an Effective Learning Strategy in Writing Classrooms

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Abstract—Innovative teaching strategies are required to be implemented in teaching writing to enhance students’ writing skills. This study aims at investigating the effectiveness of brainstorming combined with project-based learning implemented in writing classrooms. This study employed a descriptive research design. Several data collection methods were conducted to gather the data, such as classroom observations, semi-structured interviews with the selected university lecturers, questionnaires and document study of the mid-semester and final semester scores. This study found that brainstorming combined with project-based learning is an effective learning strategy for improving students’ writing skills. Moreover, brainstorming combined with project-based learning promotes students’ active participation in writing classes. This study implies that brainstorming combined with project-based learning should be implemented more intensively in the classroom to develop students’ learning competence.

Index Terms—brainstorming, project-based learning, writing, skills

I. INTRODUCTION

Writing is one of the four English skills used to convey ideas, opinions, thoughts and feelings in written form. It is a productive language skill which is very important for students to learn because it helps them to be successful academically. Therefore, students’ writing skills should be continually developed in writing classrooms by utilizing various teaching strategies (Widiastuti et al., 2022). Innovative and creative learning strategies should be implemented in teaching writing to engage students in learning and ensure that students’ writing competence develops continually (Denham, 2020). Developing students’ writing skills becomes essential for teachers in language teaching because having good writing skills is very important for the students to communicate in written forms. By writing, students can communicate and express their ideas, thoughts and feeling to others (Aghajani & Adloo, 2018).

Writing is a complex language skill which requires students to practice continuously to master all components of writing (Kadek & Lastari, 2018). In other words, writing skills cannot be mastered without regular and continuous practice (Mantra, 2017). To be able to write appropriately, students must have a good mastery of various linguistic elements (Mantra & Widiastuti, 2019). Moreover, in writing, students should be able to express their ideas, opinions and feelings to other people appropriately in written forms. Consequently, students must have a good vocabulary, grammar, spelling and language usage abilities. Therefore, students should have good knowledge of various linguistics features to express their ideas adequately (Motallebzadeh et al., 2018). It indicates that communicating in written forms requires compressive linguistics knowledge concerning micro and micro writing skills (Mantra et al., 2021). These may cause students to be reluctant to write because they need to know various linguistics skills, and also they have to know what to write (Adas & Bakir, 2013). Moreover, students should have the imagination or creativity to think while writing to make reading enjoyable (Nurlaila, 2013).

Providing a good learning atmosphere for the students to practice their writing skills in the classroom is essential to develop students’ writing skills (Saud et al., 2014). Teachers must implement appropriate learning strategies to create conducive learning conditions. Teaching strategies become keys to a successful writing classroom. Teachers should facilitate students with various learning activities to provide opportunities for the students to practice their writing skills (Sun & Feng, 2009). Students may also engage more intensively in learning activities when the teachers use appropriate
and innovative learning strategies. Therefore, it is undeniable that the appropriate implementation of a learning strategy plays an essential role in learning success (Handayani & Widiastuti, 2019). Moreover, students' learning motivation can be improved if the techniques are appropriate for the learning condition (Cahyani et al., 2018).

Additionally, when appropriate learning strategies are implemented, the learning objectives can be easily obtained, and the student's learning achievement can be improved continually. Teachers need to be able to innovate learning strategies to suit the student's needs. In writing classes, teachers may also combine the learning strategies and select the most appropriate learning strategy to improve students' writing skills (Schillings et al., 2018; Tyas, 2020).

Several learning strategies can be implemented in writing classes, for example, brainstorming and project-based learning. Brainstorming is a strategy which enables students to work in a group to discuss and share their writing problems with other students (Rahmawati, 2022). In the brainstorming strategy, students can contribute ideas, suggestions, opinions, thoughts, and information obtained from each group member. Each member is free to respond, criticise or add. Meanwhile, in the brainstorming method, all thoughts can be accommodated by the group leader and then used as the main idea and developed into a complete conclusion (Astu Bhairawa et al., 2020).

Brainstorming is designed to encourage groups to express various ideas and judgments between individuals in a group. Everyone expressed an idea to record and then put it together with various other ideas. Moreover, brainstorming can be combined with project-based learning (Kaufua et al., 2021). Project-based learning can develop students' creativity in developing their writing skills. Projects can be exciting and challenging for students (Insani et al., 2018). Teachers nowadays are encouraged to provide students to carry out projects to develop students' ability to do valuable things for their life skills. Therefore, to solve students' problems in writing, brainstorming and project-based learning are implemented in the writing classroom (Alberto, 2018).

Previous studies have been conducted related to writing skills and brainstorming techniques. Rahmawati (2022) conducted a study concerning the effect of the brainstorming technique as a pre-writing activity on the student's achievement in writing. It was found that the brainstorming technique facilitates the students to improve their ability in writing skills. Kaufua et al. (2021) conducted a study concerning the implementation of brainstorming to improve students' writing. It was found that the brainstorming technique is effective for learning to write a descriptive text. Furthermore, a study by Villalba (2022) found that project-based learning effectively improves students' English.

Similarly, this study investigated the use of brainstorming. However, this study focused on investigating the effectiveness of brainstorming combined with project-based learning used by university lecturers in improving their students' writing skills.

II. RESEARCH METHOD

This study employed a descriptive research design to investigate the effectiveness of the brainstorming strategy combined with project-based learning. A descriptive research method is a purposive process of gathering, analysing, classifying, and tabulating data about prevailing conditions, practices, processes, and trends and then making adequate and accurate interpretations of the data results (Gatbonton, 2008). This study was conducted in English education study programs, and four classes of fourth-semester students were thoroughly investigated. The data were collected through semi-structured interviews, classroom observation, and document studies of the student's writing scores in the pre-and mid-semester and final term tests. Additionally, a questionnaire was administered to collect data concerning the students' changes in behaviour in learning writing skills through brainstorming combined with project-based learning.

The data were descriptively analysed to establish the findings of the study. All data were first put in the correct categories and triangulated with other data to ensure their validity and reliability. The findings were then presented argumentatively to provide a clear horizon to the readers concerning the effectiveness of brainstorming combined with project-based learning in enhancing students' writing skills.

III. RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

The results related to integrating brainstorming and project-based learning used by the teachers to enhance students' writing skills were presented below and the results were then discussed briefly.

A. Results

In the present study, the researchers interviewed English lecturers teaching the writing subject. The interview excerpts with the lecturers who currently teach the writing subjects could be presented as follows.

"My students' writing ability was still very low. They had a lot of problems developing their ideas in writing. Perhaps, it is because they could not explore what to write. My students found difficulty in using appropriate vocabulary and grammar. I use brainstorming and then assigned them to write texts through projects. This way of learning made my students become active in learning writing" (Lecturer A).

"When I taught writing skills, I told my students the topics of the writing exercises. Then asked them to write descriptive text, recount text, narrative, or other forms of writing. They took a long time to write the text. They are often stuck in the first paragraph. Therefore, to make them active, I brainstormed with them and then gave them projects to do. They have to write a report and present the report in the classroom" (Lecturer B).
"My students often get bored and reluctant to write the text properly, and when they are asked to submit their assignment, they are busy finding similar text on google. To break this habit, I used brainstorming combined with project-based learning. After implementing the strategies, my students are active in doing writing projects" (Lecturer C).

"Well, my students have difficulty in developing ideas, using suitable vocabulary, and constructing sentences into correct text. When I implemented the brainstorming combined with project-based learning, my students engaged themselves more intensively in writing classes because they have to be responsible with their assignment and they have to be ready to present their report in the classroom" (Lecturer D).

Furthermore, at the beginning of this study, several classroom observations were conducted in writing classes to see the implementation of brainstorming combined with project-based learning. Lectures taught in classes A, B, C and D were observed intensively. The summary of the observation can be presented as the following.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Class</th>
<th>Learning Topics</th>
<th>Learning Method</th>
<th>Description of Quality Implementation</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Class A</td>
<td>Education in the 21th Century</td>
<td>brainstorming combined with project-based learning</td>
<td>Pre activity started with brainstorming. Students were then assigned to the project. The projects were done during the main activity, followed by submitting the report in writing. The students carried out classroom presentation</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Class B</td>
<td>Current issues in education</td>
<td>brainstorming combined with project-based learning</td>
<td>After opening the class, the lecturer brainstormed with the students and then provided projects to be done by the students. The report in the form of writing was submitted to the lecturer; the presentations were carried out.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Class C</td>
<td>Education and technology</td>
<td>brainstorming combined with project-based learning</td>
<td>The lecturer brainstormed with the students with various questions to browse students’ understanding of the topic, and then projects were given to be presented in the main activity. After students submitted the report, presentation activities were started.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Class D</td>
<td>Online learning development</td>
<td>brainstorming combined with project-based learning</td>
<td>The lecturer intensively brainstormed with the students in the pre-activity stage and then continued with projects. The presentations were carried out after all reports were submitted to the lecturer.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Document studies were conducted to confirm the results of the interviews with the lecturers. The students’ writing achievements were investigated by checking the mean score of the mid-semester and the final-semester tests. The data can be presented as the following.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Class</th>
<th>Pre-Semester Test</th>
<th>Mid Semester Test</th>
<th>Final Semester Test</th>
<th>Differences Between Mid-Semester and Final Semester Tests</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Class A</td>
<td>45</td>
<td>68</td>
<td>82</td>
<td>14</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Class B</td>
<td>40</td>
<td>73</td>
<td>85</td>
<td>12</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Class C</td>
<td>42</td>
<td>67</td>
<td>84</td>
<td>17</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Class D</td>
<td>46</td>
<td>72</td>
<td>88</td>
<td>16</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Grand Mean Score</td>
<td>43.25</td>
<td>70.00</td>
<td>84.75</td>
<td>14.75</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

To collect the supporting data, the researcher also administered a questionnaire at the end of the fourth semester consisting of 120 students. The questionnaire data were used to determine the subjects’ responses to brainstorming combined with project-based learning. The responses to the questionnaire were presented in five choices: Strongly Agree (SA), Agree (A), Undecided (U), Disagree (D), and Strongly Disagree (SD). The data showing the subjects’ total responses can be tabulated in the following table.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Qualification</th>
<th>Respondent</th>
<th>Percentage</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Strongly agree</td>
<td>70</td>
<td>38.33%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Agree</td>
<td>35</td>
<td>29.17%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Undecided</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>8.33%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Disagree</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>4.17%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Strongly disagree</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>TOTAL</td>
<td>120</td>
<td>100%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
The questionnaire results showed that the students enjoyed learning writing skills through brainstorming and project-based learning. The tables above showed significant changes in students’ learning behaviour when learning writing skills through brainstorming combined with project-based learning. The questionnaire also showed that 58.33% of the students strongly agreed, 29.17% agreed, 8.33% were undecided, 4.17% disagreed, and none of the subjects stated firmly disagreed.

B. Discussion

The interview results showed that the student's writing ability was still low compared to the passing grade indicator suggested by the university curriculum. This low ability was caused by a need for students’ motivation to participate in the learning activities. Therefore, innovative learning strategies must be implemented to develop students’ motivation in a writing classroom. The interview indicated that the students had a crucial problem with writing. They could have been higher in content, vocabulary, grammar, and organization. They needed help to develop their ideas about a topic and to express them using appropriate vocabulary and correct grammar. Furthermore, the lecturers using the conventional teaching strategy demotivated students to learn writing. Therefore, it needs to implement innovative learning strategies to develop students’ active participation in learning writing.

Based on the interviews, brainstorming combined with project-based learning could help students learn writing skills because they have to engage in brainstorming activities, participate in several projects, and present their reports in the classroom. The effectiveness of brainstorming combined with project-based learning can also be found based on the result of mid-semester tests and final tests. The mean score of both mid-semester and final tests was sufficiently high compared with the passing grade of writing subjects indicated by the university curriculum. Moreover, the differences between the mean score of the mid-test and final tests were relatively high, indicating that the lecturers' learning activities after the mid-tests effectively improved students’ writing skills.

Based on the results of students’ scores in mid-semester and final semester tests, it found that students’ ability in writing is higher than in the pre-semester test. This finding clearly showed that students’ skills in writing have improved after the implementation of brainstorming combined with project-based learning. The grand mean score showed that the pre-semester test was 43.25, the mid-semester test was 70.00, and the final semester test was 84.75. The grand mean score of all classes vividly indicated a high increase in the students’ writing skills after brainstorming combined with project-based learning was implemented in the writing classes. The findings confirmed that brainstorming combined with project-based learning could be intensively employed in the classroom to develop students’ writing skills.

Furthermore, based on the classroom observation, it was found that all lecturers who taught writing skills in classes A, B, C, and D intensively brainstormed with students in the pre-activity stage, then followed by project-based learning. Students were found to be very active in doing their projects and writing the reports comprehensively because they attained a lot of information and ideas during the brainstorming stage. Students also present their reports with confidence. Meanwhile, the lecturers enjoyed the class because their students were fully engaged in learning.

Moreover, a questionnaire was administered to know the students’ responses concerning the implementation of brainstorming combined project-based learning in the teaching-learning process. The questionnaire also showed that 58.33% of the students strongly agreed, 29.17% of the students agreed, 8.33% were undecided, 4.17% disagreed, and none of the subjects stated firmly disagreed with the implementation of brainstorming combined with project-based learning. The result showed that the students’ responses toward implementing brainstorming combined with project-based learning were positive. The students showed positive responses and were more interested and active in the learning process conducted through the implementation of brainstorming combined with project-based learning. This Questionnaire results showed that students enjoyed learning through the implementation of brainstorming combined with project-based learning in teaching writing.

The effectiveness of brainstorming combined with project-based learning was because all students became active in learning. The combination of brainstorming and project-based learning provided many opportunities for the students to develop their ideas and express their thought independently. In a writing classroom, brainstorming is considered a free-associative thinking activity to categorize, select, and arrange topics for discussion according to the topic, intent, purpose, and interaction context. Moreover, the brainstorming strategy allows students to use their previous knowledge in their writing activities and learn what skills and information they have and what they need to know (Al Masri, 2019).

Brainstorming is a teaching strategy involving students by raising student problems and inviting them to these problems so that students involve their thoughts, ideas, ideas and even their responses (Malkawi & Smadi, 2018). The brainstorming strategy is a learning strategy implemented in the classroom by posing a problem to students that they must answer or respond to so that the problem develops into a new one. This strategy allows students to develop creative thinking so that consideration provides a way for creative initiatives (Listyani, 2020). Students become motivated to devote all the ideas that arise from their minds within a certain period regarding several problems and are not asked to be assessed the brainstorming (Abedianpour & Omidvari, 2018).

Brainstorming is an effective strategy to be implemented in the writing classroom because it is a fast way to solve different problems and generate as many new ideas as possible (Hidayanti et al., 2018). Moreover, brainstorming stimulates the brain to think logically, spontaneously and creatively. Furthermore, brainstorming and project-based learning enable students to practice the stages of writing activities, such as (1) pre-writing, (2) writing, and (3) post-
writing stages (Handayani et al., 2019). In the selection of the pre-writing stage, students select content areas for writing through brainstorming. Furthermore, project-based learning can be intensively implemented to maximize students’ writing practices (Syahrin et al., 2019).

This study found that brainstorming combined with project-based learning can be used to build up students’ writing skills. Students found the strategies very effective and aroused their motivation to learn writing. In all writing activities, students actively participated in the learning activities. Through implementing brainstorming combined with project-based learning, students have many opportunities to develop their writing skills because they are challenged to complete the projects and present the results in good writing. Moreover, the combination of brainstorming and project-based learning enables students to learn together in groups. It also helps students develop their social skills.

IV. CONCLUSION

The implementation of brainstorming combined with project-based learning in the classroom helps students to improve their writing skills. The writing activity can be started by implementing brainstorming by posing problems to the class. Students answer or express opinions or comments so that they may develop into new problems or can be interpreted as a way to get ideas from a group of people in a short period. After students had various ideas about the writing topics, they were assigned to a project based on their ideas, and then the project resulted in the form of writing. Brainstorming combined with project-based learning was effectively implemented in writing classes because students could express and develop their ideas independently. This study suggests that the integration of brainstorming and project-based learning should be carefully considered as a strategy to improve students’ language skills. Furthermore, other researchers are suggested to continually study the effectiveness of brainstorming combined project-based learning for effective teaching strategies to enhance students’ competence in learning.

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REFERENCES

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Gender Dynamics, Social Norms, and Erotic Attitudes in Eighteenth-Century England: A Comparative Study of Anti-Pamela and Fanny Hill

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Abstract—This paper examines two influential novels of the 18th century, Eliza Haywood's Anti-Pamela and John Cleland's Fanny Hill; or, the Memoirs of a Woman of Pleasure, to offer insights into the social norms, gender roles, and erotic attitudes of the time. Through a comparative analysis of the two works, this paper highlights their distinct literary traditions, concerns, and perspectives on the issues of eroticism, virtue, and gender relations. The study finds that while Haywood's Anti-Pamela critiques the excesses of the materialistic and libertine culture of the time, Cleland's Fanny Hill challenges the concept of virtue and decorum by emphasizing the complexities of human erotic desire. The paper argues that the two works offer unique and valuable perspectives on the social and cultural landscape of 18th century England, contributing to the ongoing debates on gender, social inequality, and erotic exploitation. This study provides a better understanding of the literary and cultural history of the 18th century and its relevance to contemporary discussions on the issues of gender and eroticism.

Index Terms—Eliza Haywood, John Cleland, Anti-Pamela, Gender dynamics

I. INTRODUCTION

Pamela; or, Virtue Rewarded was a novel published by Samuel Richardson in 1740, which quickly gained popularity and became a cultural phenomenon in the 18th century. The novel followed the story of a servant girl, Pamela, who was able to maintain her virtue and ultimately win the love and marriage of her master. The book was celebrated for its depiction of the protagonist's moral fortitude, but not everyone was enamored with this portrayal. Henry Fielding was the first to respond to the publication of Pamela by writing a satirical counter-narrative, Shamela, which was published just six months after the original. However, Fielding was not the only one to challenge Richardson's representation of virtue and morality.

Eliza Heywood and John Cleland also contributed to the anti-Pamela movement by presenting their own counter-narratives. Heywood's The Anti-Pamela; or, Feigned Innocence Detected was a direct response to Pamela, and was written from a female perspective. Heywood aimed to subvert the dominant ideologies of the era by exposing the techniques that low-class female servants could use to climb the social ladder by exploiting their master's naivety and gullibility. Her approach was to build a counter-narrative that portrayed the functionality of the sexual gaze as a tool in the hands of the female servant.

Similarly, Cleland's Fanny Hill; or, the Memoirs of a Woman Pleasure challenged the sexual morality of the time by depicting female sexuality in a frank and unapologetic manner. Cleland's novel was groundbreaking in its portrayal of female sexuality and desire, and it subverted the dominant ideologies of the era by presenting a female perspective that was usually marginalized or ignored. Both Heywood and Cleland made a bold statement in their works and paved the way for more daring and provocative literature in the centuries to come. By challenging the representation of Pamela's virtue, they contributed to a broader conversation about the representation of women and the societal norms and values of the time.

II. LITERATURE REVIEW

The rise of the novel as a literary form in the 18th century saw an increased interest in the representation of women and gender roles. A significant debate centered around the works of Samuel Richardson's Pamela and Henry Fielding's Shamela, and their respective anti-versions, Anti-Pamela and Joseph Andrews. This review provides a critical analysis of four articles that examine the representation of female servants in these works and their impact on the larger discussions of gender, virtue, and the gaze in 18th-century literature.

Bowen (1999) in “A Sawce-box and Boldface Indeed”: Refiguring the Female Servant in the Pamela-Anti-Pamela Debate published in Studies in Eighteenth-Century Culture, examines the representation of the female servant in
"Pamela" and "Anti-Pamela" to explore the larger societal concerns regarding the changing status of women and the threat they posed to male power. Bowen argues that the depiction of the servant in these works is used to comment on and subvert traditional notions of gender and class. By conducting a close reading of the text, Bowen reveals the ways in which the female servant is utilized as a literary device to comment on the social and political tensions of the time. Her article provides insight into the role of the servant in eighteenth-century literature and its significance in shaping the representation of gender and class in this period.

"Rethinking Gender and Virtue through Richardson's Domestic Accounting" (Roxburgh, 2012). In her article, Roxburgh presents a unique analysis of Samuel Richardson's novel "Pamela" by examining the representation of domestic accounting in the story. Drawing on contemporary economic and cultural debates, she argues that the novel's emphasis on meticulous record-keeping offers a new perspective on the relationship between gender, virtue, and the economy in 18th-century literature. Roxburgh delves into the ways in which the novel's detailed portrayal of domestic labor and accounting practices provides a means of exploring the value placed on women's work and morality in a changing social landscape. By analyzing the novel's use of domestic accounting as a tool for character development, Roxburgh offers insights into the complex interplay between gender, virtue, and social status in 18th-century England.

Scandal and Privacy: Two Eighteenth-Century Women (Spacks, 2002). Spacks provides a nuanced examination of the themes of scandal and privacy in two 18th-century literary works, "Pamela" and "Anti-Pamela." Through a careful analysis of the narrative techniques employed by the authors, Spacks contends that these works not only offer an insightful critique of societal attitudes towards women's sexuality but also provide a commentary on the complex interplay between gender, class, and public opinion. Drawing on contemporary debates about the value of privacy, Spacks reveals the ways in which these works engage with the cultural anxieties surrounding the desire for privacy in an era of increasing public scrutiny. Furthermore, the author examines the ways in which these literary works serve as a means of exploring the experiences of women who found themselves caught between the contradictory demands of social propriety and personal agency. In doing so, Spacks illuminates the rich cultural and social significance of these works in the 18th-century literary landscape.

Optics, Gender, and the Eighteenth-Century Gaze: Looking at Eliza Haywood's "Anti-Pamela" (Swenson, 2010). In her article, Swenson examines the portrayal of the female gaze in Eliza Haywood's "Anti-Pamela" and its implications for larger societal debates about gender and desire in 18th-century literature. By exploring the narrative strategies employed by Haywood, Swenson sheds light on the ways in which the work challenges traditional notions of gender roles and sexuality, and subverts the dominant male gaze that characterizes much of the literature of the period. Through a close reading of the text, Swenson highlights the ways in which Haywood's representation of the female gaze offers a new perspective on the power dynamic between men and women and the ways in which desire shapes their interactions. Overall, the article provides valuable insights into the ways in which literature can challenge and subvert societal norms and expectations, and offers a fresh perspective on the role of women in 18th-century society.

The literature review above has provided a valuable insight into the various ways in which eighteenth-century literature, particularly the works of Samuel Richardson, Eliza Haywood, and John Cleland, engaged with and subverted societal norms and expectations surrounding gender, class, and sexuality. While scholars have extensively examined Richardson's "Pamela," less attention has been paid to its counter narratives such as Haywood's "Anti-Pamela" and Cleland's "Memoirs of a Woman of Pleasure," which challenge and subvert the dominant themes of Pamela.

By employing a close reading approach, this study aims to fill this gap by exploring the details in Heywood's and Cleland's works that function as tropes and counter narratives to Pamela. Through a detailed analysis of key incidents and literary devices employed in these works, this study seeks to highlight the ways in which they offer alternative perspectives on the themes of gender, class, and sexuality that were prevalent in the literature of the period. In particular, this study will examine the ways in which Haywood's and Cleland's works challenge the traditional gender roles and subvert the dominant male gaze that characterizes much of the literature of the period.

This study is important in its contribution to the wider academic discourse on the representation of gender, class, and sexuality in eighteenth-century literature. By focusing on the counter narratives to "Pamela," this study expands the scope of analysis beyond the widely studied works of Samuel Richardson and offers valuable insights into the diverse range of opinions and perspectives that existed in the literature of the period. Through a close reading approach, this study offers a fresh perspective on the ways in which literature can challenge and subvert societal norms and expectations and highlights the complex interplay between literature, culture, and society.

III. Method

The present study seeks to explore the counter-narratives presented by Eliza Haywood and John Cleland to Samuel Richardson's novel, "Pamela; or, Virtue Rewarded," with a focus on the literary techniques and motifs used by the former authors in their works, "The Anti-Pamela; or Feigned Innocence Detected" and "Fanny Hill: or, the Memoires of a Woman of Pleasure," respectively. The paper aims to investigate the ways in which Heywood and Cleland challenge the representation of Pamela's virtue and the dominant ideologies of their time, as well as the cultural, social, and historical contexts that informed the authors' writing and how these influenced the messages they sought to convey through their works.
To achieve these objectives, this study adopts an analytical approach to explore the literary motifs and techniques employed by Heywood and Cleland that subvert the societal norms and values of the time, with a particular focus on the themes of sexuality, gender, and social class. The paper also seeks to examine the narrative styles and literary devices used by Heywood and Cleland, including characterization, dialogue, and symbolism, and how these shape the messages and themes of their works.

In addition to examining the cultural, social, and historical contexts that informed the authors' writing, this paper also aims to highlight the perspectives from which Heywood and Cleland wrote, and how these perspectives influence the messages and themes of their works. By analyzing the literary techniques and motifs used by both authors, the paper seeks to shed light on their bold statements and the ways in which they paved the way for more daring and provocative literature in the centuries to come.

To achieve this, the paper employs a close reading approach, allowing for a detailed analysis of key incidents and literary devices used in Heywood's and Cleland's works that function as tropes and counter-narratives to Pamela. Through this approach, the study seeks to highlight the ways in which these works offer alternative perspectives on the themes of gender, class, and sexuality that were prevalent in the literature of the period. Specifically, the study aims to examine the ways in which Heywood's and Cleland's works challenge the traditional gender roles and subvert the dominant male gaze that characterizes much of the literature of the period.

The aim of this study is to contribute to the wider academic discourse on the representation of gender, class, and sexuality in eighteenth-century literature. By focusing on the counter-narratives to Pamela, this study expands the scope of analysis beyond the widely studied works of Samuel Richardson and offers valuable insights into the diverse range of opinions and perspectives that existed in the literature of the period. Ultimately, by examining the ways in which literature can challenge and subvert societal norms and expectations, this study highlights the complex interplay between literature, culture, and society.

IV. MATERIALS STUDIED

A. Eliza Haywood's The Anti-Pamela; or Feigned Innocence Detected

Eliza Haywood, a prominent female writer in the 18th century, published a notable body of work that included poetry, plays, and novels. However, her most famous work is The Anti-Pamela; or Feigned Innocence Detected, which was published in 1741. This novel serves as a satirical response to Samuel Richardson's popular novel, "Pamela," which was widely read and discussed during the 18th century. While Richardson's novel portrays a virtuous servant girl who eventually marries her master after resisting his advances, Haywood's novel takes a different approach. She uses her writing to challenge the idea that women must be passive and obedient in order to be virtuous, providing a sharp critique of "Pamela" and its portrayal of female virtue and sexual behavior.

The Anti-Pamela stands out from other contemporary works of literature due to its satirical tone and its bold critique of prevailing ideas about female virtue and sexual behavior. As Swenson notes in her analysis of the title page of Haywood's work, the novel's moralistic claims are exaggerated, and it instead attracts cultural interest in the vulnerable male gaze. Through her writing, Haywood demonstrates her wit, intelligence, and her ability to engage with important social and cultural issues of her time. The enduring relevance of The Anti-Pamela continues to be studied by scholars of 18th-century literature and gender studies, serving as a testament to Haywood's literary prowess and her contribution to the literary canon.

B. John Cleland's Fanny Hill: or, the Memoirs of a Woman of Pleasure

John Cleland was a prominent English author who lived in the late 18th century. His most well-known work, Fanny Hill: or, the Memoirs of a Woman of Pleasure, was published in 1748 and is considered one of the earliest works of erotic fiction in the English language. The novel is a picaresque story that follows the life of a young woman named Fanny Hill, who is forced into a life of prostitution in 18th-century London. Fanny Hill's frank and explicit portrayal of sexuality and desire, as well as its celebration of female sexuality, has made it a landmark work in the history of English literature.

Cleland's Fanny Hill has been widely influential, and its impact can be seen in the works of later writers, such as D.H. Lawrence and Henry Miller. The novel's celebration of female sexuality was particularly groundbreaking, as it challenged the traditional notion of women as passive objects of male desire. In Fanny Hill, Cleland creates a female protagonist who takes control of her own sexuality and desires, subverting the dominant patriarchal ideology of the time. The novel continues to be read and studied by scholars and readers alike, and its enduring popularity is a testament to its groundbreaking status as a work of erotic fiction that celebrates female sexuality.

Despite its popularity, Fanny Hill was highly controversial at the time of its publication. According to the article "Cleland, John" in The Oxford Companion to English Literature, Fanny Hill "caused a furor and he was arrested for obscenity and spent some time in debtor's prison" (Harmon & Holman, 2003). The novel's sexual content was widely condemned, and the authorities attempted to suppress it by banning its sale and distribution. Cleland's arrest and trial drew further attention to the novel and helped to increase its notoriety.

Fanny Hill is known for its explicit portrayal of sexuality, which caused controversy and led to the novel's banning. However, despite attempts to suppress it, the novel remained popular among readers and has been the subject of
academic and literary analysis. According to Harmon and Holman, Cleland's frank depiction of sexual experiences in the novel has been seen as significant and revolutionary in the development of the English novel.

V. ANALYSIS

A. Eliza Haywood’s Anti-Pamela; or Feigned Innocence Detected

This analysis of Eliza Haywood's Anti-Pamela explores how the novel serves as a warning to male readers about the dangers of female deception and the pursuit of social elevation through marriage. The use of the epistolary form delves into the emotional and psychological states of the characters and offers commentary on gender relations and social norms of the eighteenth century. The differentiation between liking and loving is a central theme that runs throughout the novel, and Heywood uses this to guide her female readership in their pursuit of love and marriage, while also cautioning her male readership to be wary of female seductive behavior. The novel encourages women to follow Pamela's manual of virtue to elevate themselves socially and economically. Heywood's critique of lower-class families illustrates her belief that social ascent is possible through the strategic management of one's reputation and image. The novel also highlights the potential dangers of materialism and the pursuit of wealth, warning that those who place too much emphasis on material goods may be morally corrupted. Ultimately, Heywood's novel serves as a cautionary tale for both men and women, providing insights into the complex gender dynamics of the eighteenth century and the various strategies that women of all social classes could employ to navigate their social environments.

(a). Maternal Pedagogy and Social Advancement

Heywood's counter narrative in Anti-Pamela serves as a warning to male readers about the potential dangers of female deception, especially as it pertains to social elevation through marriage. In the novel, the protagonist Syrena seeks to elevate her social status by marrying a man of condition, and her mother plays a crucial role in coaching her on how to navigate the complex social landscape. The story unfolds through a series of letters between Syrena and her mother, in a narrative structure reminiscent of Richardson's Pamela. Like Richardson, Heywood employs the epistolary form to delve into the emotional and psychological states of her characters, and to offer commentary on gender relations and social norms of the time. As Swenson notes, Heywood positions her novel as a “caution to young gentlemen.” Swenson argues that:

- positioning the novel as a warning about female perfidy...The novel interacts with and exploits cultural anxieties about gazing, especially the vulnerability of the male gaze. At the same time, its story about subversive female behavior that is only ambiguously punished, in the end, by Syrena’s removal to a rich Welsh estate contains lessons and warnings for female readers. (Swenson, 2010, p. 33)

Heywood exploits cultural anxieties about the male gaze and male vulnerability to female wiles, and shows how women can use coyness, performativity, and other tactics to manipulate men into marriage. Syrena's encounters with men of condition, such as Mr. Vardine and Mr. D, reveal the various ways in which women of lower social standing can appeal to the male gaze, and how some men are immune to such strategies while others are taken in. Heywood shows that while some men are able to see through Syrena's facade, others are not as discerning, and may fall prey to her charms.

Heywood's novel offers lessons and warnings not only to male readers, but also to female readers. As Swenson notes, the story of “subversive female behavior” in Anti-Pamela is only “ambiguously punished” in the end, as Syrena is removed to a rich Welsh estate. This suggests that women who employ such tactics can achieve their desired outcomes, but may face ambiguous consequences. Heywood's novel thus reveals the complex gender dynamics at play in the eighteenth century, and the various strategies that women of all social classes could employ to navigate their social environments. By telling the story from a female perspective, Heywood offers insights into the ways in which women can use their feminine wiles to achieve their goals, and also how they can be taken advantage of by men who are aware of these tactics. Heywood's novel serves as a cautionary tale for both men and women, and provides a fascinating window into the social norms and gender roles of the eighteenth century.

(b). Likings or Loving: Maternal Instruction and Social Ascent

Heywood utilizes various literary devices to reduce the possibilities of the Pamela discourse in her novel, including the differentiation between liking and loving. This is a central theme that runs throughout the novel and is exemplified in Ann Tricksey's warning to her daughter Syrena to pursue “loving” rather than simply accepting “liking” from suitors. Tricksey advises an “artful Management to bring this Likening [sic] up to Love” and cautions her daughter to keep her suitor from satisfaction until the point of “Marriage or a Settlement equal to it...is gained” (Swenson, 2010, p. 43). Heywood, therefore, uses Tricksey's advice to guide her female readership in their pursuit of love and marriage, advocating for the strategic management of relationships and the practice of restraint.

In doing so, Heywood also warns her male readership to be cautious of their female servant's behavior and their seductive forms and techniques, such as coyness. Through emphasizing the difference between liking and loving, Heywood suggests that men are more likely to “like” their female servants, but they can pursue love through caution and restraint. Heywood's message is important, especially since female servants are more likely to use coyness and other seductive techniques to upgrade their likings to love. As Swenson notes, “the norm is for men to pursue women...
who at least seem to resist advances, and overenthusiasm is discouraged” (Swenson, 2010, p. 43). Therefore, Heywood's warning to exercise caution is crucial for men to avoid being deceived by the coyness of their female servants.

Through her novel, Heywood encourages women to follow Pamela's manual of virtue to elevate themselves socially and economically. Bowen notes that Heywood critiques lower-class families for spending money on haircuts instead of meals and for not allowing their daughters to wash dishes for fear of spoiling their hands (Bowen, 1999, p. 261). This critique illustrates Heywood's belief that social ascent is possible through the strategic management of one's reputation and image. Heywood believes that women can use their beauty and chastity to attract suitors of higher social standing and to secure their position in society.

Heywood's differentiation between liking and loving and her warnings about the seductive behavior of female servants demonstrate the importance of maternal instruction in shaping young women's behavior and prospects for social ascent. Through this instruction, women can learn to navigate the patriarchal society's rules and expectations to secure their social and economic status. Heywood's novel, therefore, serves as a guidebook for women seeking to ascend the social ladder and secure their place in society.

(c). Materialism and the Pursuit of Wealth

In Anti-Pamela, Heywood takes a critical approach to the materialistic ideology and its implications for social and economic mobility. The central focus of Heywood's criticism is the pursuit of economic gains through sexual and romantic labor. Heywood's critique is not just limited to the lower-class mothers who teach their daughters to follow their economic interest over their passion but also to the entire society that puts materialism above all.

Heywood's differentiation between Syrena's economic interest and her passion is significant because it shows the depth of her criticism of the materialistic behavior prevalent in the society of her time. She demonstrates how Syrena's mother, unlike Pamela's parents, teaches her to maintain her value by pursuing economic gains instead of following her passion. Syrena's mother advises her to “bargain hard, and never part with her value for less than it is worth” (Heywood, 2004, p. 66). This type of language of accounting is prevalent throughout the novel, and Heywood uses it to critique the materialistic ideology of her time.

Roxburgh provides an insightful commentary on Heywood's critique of materialistic ideology, where Syrena's management of her accounts is solely to secure a wealthy husband. As Roxburgh notes, Syrena's mother's advice to her is not to lose her value, but instead to maintain her value as a potential wife, indicating the overwhelming emphasis on economic value over moral virtue in low-class families. In this regard, Heywood's narrative highlights the pervasive influence of materialism on the behavior of young women from lower classes. Roxburgh's comment aptly captures the essence of Heywood's critique, as Syrena's economic interests and her mother's values shape her decisions and actions. Through this portrayal of Syrena, Heywood's narrative demonstrates the power of the materialistic ideology in shaping the behavior of women from lower classes.

According to Roxburgh (2012), Syrena's mother, in contrast to Pamela's parents who warn about losing her virtue, advises her daughter not to lose her value, indicating the centrality of accounting language in their lives. Roxburgh further notes that Syrena's preoccupation with managing her accounts is solely to marry a wealthy man, thus underscoring the influence of materialism in shaping the behavior of lower-class women (p. 421). Heywood's narrative highlights how the materialistic ideology permeates the psyche of women from low-class families, and how it shapes their decisions and actions. In this regard, Heywood's critique of materialism is not only a commentary on the behavior of women from low-class families but also a reflection of the broader social and economic values of the eighteenth-century society.

Heywood's critique of the materialistic ideology is not just limited to the low-class families, but it also extends to the upper-class society that values materialism above all. Heywood's narrative shows how the upper-class society's vanity and the lower-class servants' envy towards their masters, who possess the material wealth, contribute to the materialistic behavior. Heywood's critique of the materialistic ideology serves as a didactic lesson to the men of condition to be cautious of what can ruin their social and economic reputation.

Heywood's Anti-Pamela provides a deeper analysis of the materialistic ideology prevalent in the eighteenth-century society. Heywood criticizes the materialistic behavior and the tendency to favor of the materialism over passion. She shows how the materialistic ideology shapes the behavior of low-class virtuous females and how it permeates the entire society. Heywood's material analysis through her narrative can serve as a didactic lesson to the men of condition to be cautious of what can ruin their social and economic reputation.

B. John Cleland's Fanny Hill: or, the Memoirs of a Woman of Pleasure

John Cleland's novel tells the story of Frances Hill, a fifteen-year-old orphan girl who narrates her life in two lengthy letters to an unknown woman. The novel is set in the city of London and follows Fanny's journey as she faces various challenges and hardships in her pursuit of love and success. After the death of both her parents, Fanny's friend convinces her to move to the city but abandons her upon arrival, leaving her alone and lost. Fanny manages to secure a job as a maid in the house of a wealthy lady, but she eventually becomes the property of Mrs. Brown, a notorious pimp who aims to turn Fanny into a prostitute. Mrs. Brown introduces Fanny to several men, one of whom tries to rape her, but Fanny is saved by one of Mrs. Brown's maids. The novel explores themes of sexual exploitation, gender relations,
and social inequality as Fanny navigates her way through the city's streets, grappling with her own desires and those of the men around her.

Fanny eventually meets Charles, a nineteen-year-old nobleman with whom she falls in love and lives with. They engage in sexual intercourse multiple times, and Fanny becomes pregnant. However, Charles disappears for years, leaving Fanny alone and desperate. She roams the country, living in a brothel and working as a street prostitute, experiencing many sexual encounters along the way. Ultimately, Fanny meets Charles again and confesses her past sins and sexual experiences to him. Charles forgives her, and they marry, living happily ever after.

The novel makes several allusions and critiques of Richardson's *Pamela*. Both novels share a similar pattern of a young girl trying to navigate her way through the city, but they render virtue in different ways. While *Pamela* emphasizes the importance of maintaining moral virtue in the face of sexual temptation, *Fanny Hill* portrays a more libertine view of sexuality and erotic desire. The novel also explores the female sensibility of the 18th century and how it is portrayed differently in the two narratives. Furthermore, Cleland’s novel expands on the themes of fetishism and deferred desire, offering a more nuanced perspective on the complexities of human sexuality and desire.

The following analysis examines the similarities and differences between Samuel Richardson’s *Pamela* and John Cleland’s *Fanny Hill* in their portrayal of virtue and desire. While both novels tell the story of a young country girl who moves to the city and marries a man of status, they differ in how they depict the virtue of their characters. In *Pamela*, the titular character’s virtue is tied to her willingness to die before dishonor, while in *Fanny Hill*, virtue is depicted as being honest and genuine. The analysis further explores how Cleland challenges the idea of virtue as a one-dimensional concept and provides an alternative way of achieving social status. Cleland’s portrayal of Fanny Hill presents a different form of virtue, where being truthful and open is as essential as denying one’s desires. The analysis also delves into the theme of fetishism and deferred desire, which is more evident in *Fanny Hill* than *Pamela*, as seen in Fanny’s highly eroticized descriptions of her sexual experiences, and how this theme represents the sexual tastes of the 18th century. Ultimately, this analysis provides a comprehensive view of the two novels and how they comment on the social and cultural norms of the 18th century.

**a. Truthfulness and Chastity**

The works of Samuel Richardson’s and John Cleland’s share similarities in that they both tell the story of a young country girl who moves to the city and eventually marries a man of status. As noted by Spack, “Fanny Hill tells the story of a young woman from the country who successfully makes her way in London. The account belongs in a sense to the same fictional subgenre as Samuel Richardson’s *Pamela*: poor girl makes good and rises in the world” (Spack, 2005, p. 77). However, the two novels differ in their portrayal of virtue and expression of desire.

In *Pamela*, the titular character’s virtue is tied to her willingness to die before dishonor, and she refuses to engage in any sexual relationship outside of marriage. On the other hand, in *Fanny Hill*, virtue is depicted as being honest and genuine. Fanny is truthful about her experiences, including her sexual encounters. Fanny’s virtue is in her character, which is transparent and unpretentious, a stark contrast to Pamela’s character, which is rooted in propriety and decorum. This contrast highlights the differences in how the two novels depict and define virtue, as well as how they express the desires of their characters.

Cleland writes, “virtues and our vices depend too much on our circumstances” (Cleland, 1749, p. 186). This insight is reflected in the experiences of Fanny Hill whose journey from poverty to pleasure is shaped by the contingencies of her environment. Fanny’s honest and genuine character, which is the hallmark of her virtue, is also a product of her circumstances. For Fanny, being truthful about her experiences, including her sexual encounters, is a way of navigating a world that is hostile to women’s agency and desire. Thus, in *Memoirs of a Woman of Pleasure*, virtue is not an abstract ideal, but a dynamic and contingent quality that emerges from the interplay of individual character and social context.

**b. Fetishism, Virtue, and Sensibility**

Cleland’s narrative in *Memoirs of a Woman of Pleasure* takes the fetishism present in Richardson’s *Pamela* to a new level. Richardson’s work has been critiqued for its fetishistic and sexually appealing narrative, with his technique of deferring the sexual experience as a means to titillate readers. Terri Nickel in his article “Pamela as Fetish” argues that “Pamela seems to provoke in its readers some recognition of their participation in fetishizing the work” (Cleland, 1749, p. 38). Cleland seems to take this critique and play with it, as seen in the extensive use of descriptive language during sexual relationships and multiple pornographic moments in his narrative. In contrast to Pamela, the intercourse moment is never deferred in *Fanny Hill* and is instead presented to the reader in a way that satisfies their desires. Fanny experiences a range of sexual encounters, including rape, masturbation, voyeurism, homosexuality, sadomasochism, and an orgy, which sets her apart from Pamela as an opposing model. Nonetheless, both characters end up marrying noblemen. This suggests that the portrayal of virtue in *Pamela* is flawed, given that both novels take place in the same setting. Cleland’s portrayal of Fanny Hill presents a different form of virtue, where being truthful and open is as essential as denying one’s desires to attain a higher social status.

Cleland’s work can be seen as a response to Richardson’s *Pamela*, offering a contrasting view of virtue and sensibility. Through the portrayal of Fanny Hill’s experiences, Cleland challenges the idea of virtue as a one-dimensional concept and presents an alternative way of achieving social status. While the two novels share a similar narrative structure, their differing portrayals of virtue and sensibility lead to different interpretations of their respective protagonists and different
modes of rewarding within their respective narratives. Through these differences, Cleland provides a subversive commentary on the idea of virtue in 18th century society.

Cleland's provides an intricate exploration of the theme of fetishism and deferred desire, which is not present in Richardson's "Pamela." Fanny's experiences in the novel are highly eroticized, and the novel is often viewed as a representation of the fetishization of sex during the 18th century. Cleland's work is an illustration of the sexual tastes of the period, which were marked by a focus on sensory pleasures and the celebration of the erotic. Fanny Hill's story of sexual awakening represents an exploration of this phenomenon, which is visible throughout the novel.

The theme of fetishism is evident in Fanny's relationship with Charles, where their desire for each other is repeatedly deferred until they finally consummate their love. Fanny's descriptions of Charles reveal a fascination with his body and his sexual prowess, which are emphasized through her use of sensual and detailed language. The depiction of Charles as an object of desire for Fanny is an illustration of fetishism, a practice in which an individual's sexual desire is focused on a particular object or body part.

The novel's eroticism is exemplified in a passage where Fanny describes the encounter with a young man. In the quote,

The transported youth devour'd everything with his eyes, and try'd, with his fingers, to lay more open to his sight the secrets of that dark and delicious deep: he opens the folding lips, the softness of which, yielding entry to anything of a hard body, close round it, and oppose the sight: and feeling further, meets with, and wonders at, a soft fleshy excrescence, which, limber and relaxed after the late enjoyment, now grew, under the touch and examination of his fiery fingers, more and more stiff and considerable, till the titillating ardours of that so sensible part made me sigh, as if he had hurt me; on which he withdrew his curious probing fingers, asking me pardon, as it were, in a kiss that rather increased the flame there". (Cleland, 1749, p. 58)

Fanny describes a sexual encounter in which the young man's touch arouses her and leads to the growth of a "soft fleshy excrescence" under his probing fingers.

The language used in the passage emphasizes the sensory and tactile nature of Fanny's sexual experience. The young man's curiosity and exploration of her body are detailed in explicit terms, emphasizing the physicality of the encounter. The description of the "soft fleshy excrescence" and its growth under the young man's touch is an illustration of fetishism, as Fanny's sexual desire is focused on this particular body part. The young man's actions are also an illustration of the theme of deferred desire, as his attempts to explore Fanny's body are repeatedly thwarted until the point where she experiences pleasure and arousal.

Cleland's Fanny Hill is an intricate exploration of the theme of fetishism and deferred desire, which is not present in Richardson's Pamela. The novel's eroticism is characterized by a focus on sensory pleasures and the fetishization of sexual desire. Fanny's relationship with Charles and her sexual encounters throughout the novel illustrate these themes, providing a complex portrayal of female sexuality and desire during the 18th century.

Cleland's critique of Richardson's portrayal of sensibility is obvious in Fanny Hill. As Spack notes, "in the eighteenth century, [sensibility] meant extraordinary sensitivity to emotional stimuli, expressed through such physical manifestations as weeping, blushing, and fainting” (Spack, 1995, p. 75). In Pamela, Richardson utilizes this physical manifestation of female sensibility in the scene where Pamela faints in response to Mr. B's advances. In contrast, Fanny is portrayed as having a different attitude towards sexual stimuli, being open and receptive to a variety of sexual experiences without the same physical manifestations of sensibility as Pamela. This leads to a different mode of rewarding, with Fanny being rewarded for her honesty and openness with Charles rather than her chastity.

The differences in the portrayal of virtue and sensibility in these novels reflect the changing attitudes towards women's sexuality and agency during the eighteenth century. Pamela's strict adherence to moral codes and emphasis on chastity reflect the social norms of the time, which placed a high value on female purity and modesty. In contrast, Fanny Hill's sexual openness and honesty subvert these norms, presenting a more complex and nuanced portrayal of female desire and agency. These differences in portrayal and interpretation highlight the evolution of gender roles and sexuality in eighteenth-century English literature.

VI. CONCLUSION

In conclusion, Eliza Haywood's Anti-Pamela and John Cleland's Fanny Hill: or, the Memoirs of a Woman of Pleasure offer unique and distinct perspectives on the gender dynamics, social norms, and sexual attitudes of eighteenth-century England. Heywood's novel serves as a cautionary tale for both men and women, highlighting the potential dangers of female deception and the pursuit of material possessions over virtue and morality. Through the story of Syrena and her mother's coaching, Heywood explores the importance of maternal instruction in shaping young women's behavior and prospects for social ascent, providing valuable insights into the patriarchal society's rules and expectations of the time.

On the other hand, Cleland's novel challenges the concept of virtue and decorum by emphasizing the complexities of human sexuality and desire. It portrays a different approach to the Pamela/anti-Pamela controversy of the time, expanding on themes of fetishism and deferred desire, while critiquing Pamela's character as being too restrained and chaste. The novel's honest and transparent portrayal of Fanny's experiences highlights the changing attitudes towards
sexuality and desire, contributing to the 18th-century literary tradition of representing female characters and their experiences in different ways.

Together, these two novels offer a fascinating window into the social norms and gender roles of eighteenth-century England, highlighting the distinct literary traditions and concerns of the time. They serve as a reminder of the importance of understanding the past to better understand the present and future, inspiring ongoing debates on the nature of gender, social inequality, and sexual exploitation.

On the other hand, John Cleland’s *Fanny Hill: or, the Memoirs of a Woman of Pleasure*, offers a contrasting perspective to Samuel Richardson’s *Pamela* and the anti-Pamela works that followed it. While *Pamela* emphasizes the importance of maintaining moral virtue and decorum in the face of sexual temptation, “Fanny Hill” presents a more libertine view of sexuality and desire. The novel tells the story of Frances Hill, a young orphan girl who navigates her way through the city of London, facing various hardships and sexual encounters along the way. Fanny’s virtue is depicted as being honest and genuine, rather than rooted in propriety and decorum like Pamela’s.

Additionally, Cleland’s novel expands on the themes of fetishism and deferred desire, offering a more nuanced perspective on the complexities of human sexuality and desire. *Fanny Hill* takes the fetishism present in *Pamela* to a new level, as seen in the extensive use of descriptive language during sexual encounters and multiple pornographic moments in the narrative.

The novel also explores the female sensibility of the 18th century and how it is portrayed differently in the two narratives. Cleland’s work challenges the social norms of his time, exploring the themes of sexual exploitation, gender relations, and social inequality as Fanny navigates her way through the city’s streets, grappling with her own desires and those of the men around her. *Fanny Hill* is a significant work of literature that challenges the conventions of its time and offers a unique perspective on the themes of sexuality, desire, and virtue. Cleland's work is an important contribution to the literary canon and continues to be widely read and studied today.

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Students’ and Lecturers’ Perspectives on the Qualities of an Effective English Language Teacher at Al-Balqa Applied University in Jordan: A Comparative Study

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Abstract—The study aimed to compare the perspectives of English Foreign Language (EFL) students and English instructors in Jordan on the characteristics of effective English instructors. The researcher selected (250) students and 25 English instructors randomly from different English departments at Al-Balqa Applied University. The researcher designed a questionnaire of 57 questions according to the Likert Scale and distributed it to the participants of the study to know their responses. The data were analyzed to determine differences between the students’ and the teachers’ responses toward the characteristics of a good teacher. In general, the results of the study indicated that the students and teachers placed a high level of importance on four categories of the questionnaire included in the survey. The students gave the highest ranking to ethics and personality, class management and discipline followed by academic quality and English proficiency, and pedagogical knowledge and planning. This contrasted with the teachers, who ranked academic quality, English proficiency, class management and discipline the highest followed by pedagogical knowledge and planning and ethics and personality. There were significant differences between the responses of teacher participants and student participants on many items of the survey. The study provided several implications for future research for example adopting the qualities of effective EFL teachers mentioned in the study in the process of teaching and learning English and other languages.

Index Terms—teacher qualities, EFL, student perspective, lecturer perspective

I. INTRODUCTION

The definition of “effective teacher” is verified from one researcher to another. Stronge (2002) claimed that a good teacher produces a class of high-achievers or receives positive evaluations from his administrators. On the other hand, a good teacher could be defined as a person who motivates his students’ learning (Benson et al., 2001) or a person who can share information with the students (Stephens & Crawley, 1994). To conclude, several definitions were found based on different qualities that teachers are associated with.

Qualified teachers play a significant role in the educational system. They have a fundamental role in learning and improving students’ achievement (Markley, 2004; Rockoff, 2004). They shorten the gap between the students and the teachers inside the classroom in many countries. For example, The English language learning process happens mainly inside the formal classroom settings in Jordan. Thus, it is essential to focus on applying learner-centered classes and students’ beliefs about language learning and teaching. Studying the features of a good teacher from the students’ point of view is beneficial to help teachers improve their qualities to meet the students’ needs and interests.

Many studies have been conducted on identifying the characteristics of an effective teacher in general, for example Witcher et al. (2001) and Koutsoulis (2003) and English teachers in particular, for example (Schulz, 2000; Vélez-Rendón, 2002) in the field of foreign language teaching (FLT). The characteristics of a good English teacher are classified into several categories; most of them include subject matter knowledge, pedagogical knowledge, socio-effective skills, and personality such as Badawood (2015), DINÇER et al. (2013) and Arikan et al. (2008). Some studies classified the characteristics of an effective English teacher depending on new categories. Haung (2015), Khaing (2020), Sandari (2016), Wichadee (2010) and Al-Mahrooqi et al. (2015) classified them into achieving quality, accountability, feedback roles, competencies, organization and communication skills, knowledge about the students, and teacher professional development.

The present study investigated the features of English foreign language teachers (EFLT) at the university level; some features are common, but others are related to the field of English like language competencies quality. The researcher who is one of the English instructors at Al-Balqa Applied University studied the perceptions of the English students to know the effective characteristics from their views because he believes in applying learner-centered class. Besides, it would be beneficial to promote an effective teaching-learning process. To the knowledge of the researcher, no studies

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have been conducted on the features of an effective English instructor at the university level in Jordan neither from the student’s point of view nor that of the teachers’. Therefore, the main aim of the present study was to explore the differences between the perspectives of the students and the teachers.

A. The Purpose and the Questions of the Study

The study aimed at outlining the qualities of an effective English language instructor at Al-Balqa Applied University in Jordan in terms of four domains: academic quality and English proficiency, pedagogical knowledge and planning, ethics and personality, and class management and discipline. Also, the study compared the qualities of English language instructors according to teachers’ and students’ perspectives. To achieve both purposes, the following research questions were addressed:

1. What are the qualities of an effective EFL instructor perceived by Jordanian English language students?
2. What are the qualities of an effective EFL instructor perceived by Jordanian English language instructors?
3. What are the differences and similarities between the qualities of English language instructors perceived by Jordanian English language instructors and learners?

B. Importance of the Study

To investigate the qualities of English language instructors as perceived by the instructors and learners is beneficial to teachers, learners, and researchers. For teachers, they can develop themselves depending on the student’s needs and interests. Besides, learners can be much close to their teachers and understand them. Also, the study urges other researchers to conduct other studies to develop the qualities of a good English teacher and to study other new qualities.

C. Limitations of the Study

The study may not represent English teachers in the world. It is limited to English instructors in Jordan who taught English at departments of English at Al-Balqa Applied University. Furthermore, the study is limited to the instrument which was a survey that may not reflect the different aspects of EFL teachers’ qualities.

II. THE LITERATURE REVIEW

Many studies have been conducted about the characteristics of English instructors at universities or English teachers at schools worldwide. The current study organized the related studies into four sections: the first section presented a literature review about the characteristics of a good English teacher. The second section described the characteristics of effective English teachers according to the perceptions of the students. The third section studied the characteristics of effective English teachers from the perspectives of English teachers. Finally, the fourth section compares the teachers’ and students’ perceptions on the qualities of a good EFL teacher. In the present study, the four sections were organized chronologically as follows:

English language teachers contribute to the success of teaching English if they have special qualities related to English language teaching. DINÇER et al. (2013) reviewed over (30) studies about the characteristics of effective English language teachers. They presented a literature review about the characteristics of good English language teachers to improve their roles in English language classrooms. The researchers in the study classified the characteristics of effective English language teachers into socio-affective skills, pedagogical knowledge, subject-matter knowledge, and personal skills. The findings of the study found that English language teachers should have the four types of the mentioned qualities and have a balanced combination among them. Another study conducted by AL-SEGhayer (2017) aimed at delineating five characteristics of good EFL teachers: Cognitive knowledge, content knowledge, English language proficiencies, personality traits, and key related variables. The study was very important because it may help English teachers to improve the knowledge of the qualities of a good English language teacher.

The previous were studies conducted on the qualities of an effective English teacher in general. Compared with them, more studies have been conducted to show the qualities of effective FL teachers from the perspectives of English language students. Ghasemi and Hashemi (2011) studied the characteristics of an effective English teacher from the views of (200) students at Islamic Azad University. The researchers used a questionnaire of (50) items given to male and female students to find their perceptions of the characteristics of effective English teachers. The findings of the study concluded that students had similar views towards some characteristics such as syllabus, administrative rules, regulation, teaching techniques, and personality. Besides, the students reported that female teachers can pronounce English better than male teachers.

Another study done by Khaing (2020) focused on examining the competencies of a good EFL teacher. The study adopted a questionnaire from Mardoch to identify perceptions of the characteristics of an effective English teacher at Mandalay University. Data were analyzed by showing the percentages of the students’ responses on the qualities of an effective English teacher. The findings of the study revealed that students have positive attitudes toward the competencies of English teachers and they are very important from their views. Besides, in a descriptive study conducted by Sandari (2016), sixty three EFL students from the University of Jakarta showed positive attitudes towards some characteristics, such as content knowledge, pedagogical knowledge, communication, and socio-effective skill. Furthermore, another study was applied in Turkey by Arikan et al. (2008) aimed to know the views of EFL students on
the characteristics of a good English teacher. The results of the study indicated that Turkish teachers should be native speakers of Turkish to make the students more comfortable. Also, the study showed that effective English teachers should be friendly, young, and creative.

Few literature reviews studied the characteristics of effective English teachers from the perspectives of English teachers. Al-Issa (2017) and Ogretmen et al. (2010) investigated two studies to find out the characteristics of the effective English language from teachers’ views. In the first study, Al-Issa (2017) studied the views of English language teachers regarding the characteristics of effective English language teachers. He selected a sample of (63) English language teachers from (23) countries in different ELT conferences to study their views regarding the characteristics of effective English language teachers. He found out that English language teachers had positive views on the English language and teaching methods. The second study which was conducted by Ogretmen et al. (2010) concluded that the qualities of a good English teacher play a fundamental role in teaching languages such as training and updated curriculum.

Many related studies studied both the teachers’ and students’ views at the same time on the qualities of a good EFL teacher. A study conducted by Badawood (2015) aimed at exploring three characteristics of an effective teacher (proficiency, pedagogy, and socio-effective) as viewed by (7) English language teachers and (17) secondary students. For the proficiency category, the study showed that reading, writing, and comprehension were the most important. For the pedagogical category, it was found that using aids and lesson plans were also significant. Finally, for the socio-affective category, it was concluded that teachers should listen to the students and they should deal with them fairly. In another study investigated by Huang (2015), other qualities of effective translation teachers such as personality, roles, and feedback were handled. Although the number of participants in the study was not large enough (94 students and 22 teachers) and it was limited to translation teachers, it is useful for future research. After analyzing a questionnaire survey, the results of the study showed that some items rated high response percentages from the teachers’ and students’ views like using methods and personality.

Al-Mahroopi et al. (2015) compared teachers’ and students’ perspectives on the characteristics of a good translation teacher. To achieve the purpose of the study, the researchers selected a large number (171 Omani students and 233 English teachers). Both participants agree with each other about all of the characteristics in particular those related to proficiency, knowledge of western culture, and use of technology.

Liando (2010) discussed the views of (126) and (28) teachers from the State University of Manado on English teacher characteristics. After employing descriptive statistics and using a questionnaire as an instrument of the study, it was found that both personal and academic qualities were the most important. Another study conducted by Wichadee (2010) shows the characteristics of effective English language teachers from the views of Bangkok University students and teachers. The students showed that categories of communication skills, personality, and socio-effective skills were the most important.

Finally, Shishavan and Sedaghi (2009) investigated a study to explore the characteristics of a good English language teacher from Iranian English language teachers’ and learners’ points of view. To achieve the purpose of the study, the researchers used a questionnaire to be answered by (59) English language teachers and (215) EFL learners. The findings of the study showed a significant difference between teachers’ and learners’ views on some characteristics. The differences related to the characteristics of assigning homework, using grouping activities, preparing the lesson well, using lesson plans, assessing students, good personality, and having knowledge of pedagogy. On the other hand, the students agreed more than teachers that using the first language of the learners was the most important and the teacher should have a good personality.

III. Method

A. Study Participants

The sample of the study was divided into two groups of EFL instructors and learners. The instructors’ group consisted of 25 university instructors teaching English language and Literature and working in different colleges at Al-Balqa Applied University (Ajloun University College and Irbid University College). The students’ group included also 250 EFL students who were selected randomly in the second semester of the 2020-2021 academic year from the English departments at Al-Balqa Applied University. They were asked to complete a questionnaire about the characteristics of a qualified English teacher.

B. The Instrument of the Study

The instrument used in this study was an electronic questionnaire designed by the researcher. It was divided into four categories: academic quality & English proficiency, pedagogical knowledge and planning, ethics and personality, and class management and discipline. It included 57 items of close-ended statements based on the Likert Scale with five alternative points from strongly disagree to strongly agree. The items represent students’ and instructors’ views on the characteristics of a qualified English teacher.

The instrument was revised three times with the help of colleagues and professors from Jordanian universities. The researcher added and dropped some items depending on the reviewers’ comments. Thus, the final version included 57 items about the characteristics of a qualified English teacher. For the questionnaire reliability, the study used
Cronbach’s Alpha to calculate the internal consistency to be 0.90. So, Cronbach’s Alpha indicated that the categories reported a good alpha level.

C. Data Collection and Analysis

A qualitative approach was used to collect and analyze data. The participants were asked a group of open-ended questions to elicit their answers about the characteristics of a qualified English teacher. The following values were assigned to responses based on Likert Scale items: 1 denoted ‘Strongly Disagree’, 2 for ‘Disagree’, 3 for ‘No Idea’, 4 for ‘Agree’, and 5 for ‘Strongly Agree’. The collected data were analyzed descriptively by using means, standard deviations, percentages, and t-test. Then, the differences between instructors’ and students’ perspectives on the characteristics of a qualified English teacher were found.

IV. RESULTS

The results of the study are presented for each of its questions respectively in the following tables:

A. Students’ Results

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Category</th>
<th>M</th>
<th>SD</th>
<th>Degree of Agreement</th>
<th>Rank</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Ethics and personality</td>
<td>4.45333</td>
<td>0.596637</td>
<td>Strongly Agree</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Class management and discipline</td>
<td>4.39</td>
<td>0.704946</td>
<td>Strongly Agree</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Academic quality and English proficiency</td>
<td>4.18625</td>
<td>0.542903</td>
<td>Agree</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Pedagogical Knowledge and planning</td>
<td>4.075588</td>
<td>0.67454</td>
<td>Agree</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>4.283816</td>
<td>0.39646</td>
<td>Strongly Agree</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 1 shows the overall mean score of students’ perspectives on the qualities of effective English language teachers for the four categories which was at a high level (M=4.283816). Each of them received a mean between (4.075588) and (4.453333). The mean scores could be arranged in order of agreement as follows: ethics and personality (4.453333), class management and discipline (4.39), academic quality and English proficiency (4.18625), and pedagogical knowledge and planning (4.075588). The two categories that received the highest means scores were “Ethics and personality” (M=4.453333) and “Class management and discipline” (M=4.39). “Academic quality and English proficiency” (M=4.18625) and “Pedagogical knowledge and planning” (4.075588) received the lowest means.

All questionnaire categories explored are discussed in detail below:

The most important category for student participants was “Ethics and personality” (M=4.453333). Of “21” items, (19) items recorded means above “84.1”. Although most of the students showed the importance of their English teachers to improve their personality and ethics, they considered only two items less important. Both items were “Be faithful and disciplined” (M=3.585) and “Have loyalty and desire to teaching” (M=3.565).

The second highest questionnaire category was “Class management and discipline” (M=4.39). Seven items related to this category received means above (89.1). The two items that received the lowest means from this category were “Book the excellent students and failures” (M=3.4975) and “Clarify the instructions of the activities inside the class such as the opening and closing the book, making the exercises, or using the instructional aids” (M=3.755).

The category with the third-highest overall mean was “Academic quality and English proficiency” (M=4.18625). Of the ten items related to this category, eight items received means above (4.2975), which means that the students believed that these qualities are important for their English teachers. The next less important item was “Prepare the lesson in a good way” (M=3.655) and the item that recorded the lowest means was “Have new knowledge about the content” (M=2.75).

The category with the lowest overall mean from all categories was “Pedagogical knowledge and planning” (4.075588). Of (17) items, eleven from this category recorded means above (85.85) followed by four items that recorded means from (M=3.33) to (M=3.8). Two items were recorded as the lowest means. They related to the way that the teachers use to encourage students to answer questions and the skills they have in preparing their plans. These were “Encourage students to answer questions even if they don’t like to talk” (M=2.5525) and “Have the skills of preparing different plans (daily, semester, and annual)” (M=2.7925).
B. Teachers’ Results

Table 2 shows the overall mean score of Teachers’ perspectives on the qualities of effective English language teachers for the four categories which was at a high level (M=4.05731). Each of them received a mean from (M=3.942857) to (M=4.316667). The mean scores could be arranged in order of agreement as follows: academic quality and English proficiency (4.316667), class management and discipline (4.144444), pedagogical knowledge and planning (4.00), and ethics and personality (3.942857). As seen from the given mean, all categories received the highest means scores above (M=4) except the category related to “Ethics and personality” (3.942857) received the lowest mean.

All questionnaire categories explored are discussed in detail below:

The category that was considered the highest overall mean was “Academic quality and English proficiency” (4.316667). All of the ten items related to this category received means above (4.133333333), which means that the teachers believed that these qualities are important for English teachers.

The second highest questionnaire category was “Class management and discipline” (M=4.144444). Although seven of nine items related to this category received means above (4.133333333), two items received low means. “Use the most modern technology in teaching.” (M=2.9) was the lowest mean which means that teachers believe in interrupting students while discussing.

The third highest overall mean was “Pedagogical knowledge and planning” (4.00). Of (17) items related to this category, (15) items received means above (4.1), which means that the teachers believed that these qualities are important for English teachers. Only two items that recorded very low means were “Raise the questions to all students without interruption while answering.” (M= 2.566666667) and “Use the most modern technology in teaching.” (M= 2.9).

The category that recorded the lowest overall mean from all categories was “Ethics and personality” (3.942857). The means scores of this category which contains “21” items distributed as follows: (16) items recorded high means above “M=4”, (4) items recorded average means between “M=3” and “M= 3.666666667”. The lowest item that recorded very low means was “Understand the financial conditions of the students.” (M= 2.366666667) which means that the teacher participants showed a negative response towards item no. 21 in the questionnaire. Thus, they did not believe that English teachers should understand the financial conditions of the students.

C. Comparison of Student and Teacher Results

To answer the third question of the study, the researcher used Table 3. It contains students’ and teachers’ means for each questionnaire category and the total means for all items of the questionnaire. Then, he used (Table 4 and Table 5) to compare the highest and lowest means for teachers and students as follows:

Table 3 shows that the overall mean score of the students’ perspectives on the qualities of an effective English teacher was higher than the overall mean score of teachers’ (4.283816>4.05731). When considering the four categories, the students rated the four categories in order from most to least important as follows: ethics and personality, class management and discipline, academic quality and English proficiency, and pedagogical knowledge and planning. However, the teachers rated the four categories in order from most to least important as follows: quality and English proficiency, class management and discipline, pedagogical knowledge and planning, and ethics and personality. As shown in Table 3, the category of ethics and personality” (M=4.453333) was rated the most important category for the students. However, it was rated the least important from the teachers’ point of view (M=3.942857). In contrast, the teachers reported, “Academic quality and English proficiency” (M=4.316667) as the most important category. Besides, the second most important category for both was class management and discipline (4.39, 4.144444). The students gave “pedagogical knowledge and planning” the lowest ranking (M=4.075588) but this category is considered as the third important category from teachers' point of view (M=4.00).
To show the differences between the teacher and student perspectives on the qualities of an effective English teacher in more detail, the researcher used two tables (Table 4 and Table 5). Table 4 includes (10) high items that rated the qualities of an effective English teacher by students and teachers. Table 5 includes (7) the lowest items that rated the qualities of an effective English teacher by students and teachers.

**Table 4**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Item no.</th>
<th>Students' Means</th>
<th>Students' t-value</th>
<th>Item no.</th>
<th>Teachers' Means</th>
<th>Teachers' t-value</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Item 51: Not interrupting students’ discussion.</td>
<td>4.8625</td>
<td>220.393</td>
<td>Item 22: Encourage students to answer questions even if they don’t like to talk.</td>
<td>4.6</td>
<td>9.348235</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Item 29: Understand the financial conditions of the students.</td>
<td>4.8075</td>
<td>175.5207</td>
<td>Item 14: Take into account the individual differences.</td>
<td>4.566667</td>
<td>9.097734</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Item 50: Avoid verbal punishment.</td>
<td>4.74</td>
<td>109.3667</td>
<td>Item 56: Book the excellent students and failures.</td>
<td>4.533333</td>
<td>8.871748</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Item 37: Be helpful to the students outside the classroom.</td>
<td>4.6875</td>
<td>114.1812</td>
<td>Item 57: Clarify the instructions for the activities inside the class such as opening and closing the book, making the exercises, or using the instructional aids.</td>
<td>4.533333</td>
<td>8.269593</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Item 46: Listen to the students.</td>
<td>4.6875</td>
<td>87.47868</td>
<td>Item 50: Avoid verbal punishment.</td>
<td>4.5</td>
<td>8.668364</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Item 11: Verify the methods and the activities.</td>
<td>4.685</td>
<td>113.6531</td>
<td>Item 10: Be able to communicate well in English</td>
<td>4.466667</td>
<td>8.486019</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Item 36: Be aware of the social and cultural background of the learner.</td>
<td>4.67</td>
<td>110.6493</td>
<td>Item 1: Have new knowledge about the content.</td>
<td>4.466666667</td>
<td>7.910045249</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 4 shows that all of the seven items that received the highest means from students and teachers were different. Four of the seven items, student participants believed to be among the most important related to the teacher’s personality. These items were: “Item 29: Understand the financial conditions of the students”, “Item 37: Be helpful to the students outside the classroom”, “Item 46: Listen to the students” and “Item 36: Be aware of the social and cultural background of the learner”. The students also focused on two of these items “Item 51: Not interrupting student’s discussion” and “Item 50: Avoid verbal punishment” which relate to class management and discipline. Moreover, there was an item that they believed to be among the most important related to the methods and teaching.

On the other hand, teachers recorded the highest items associated with academic quality and English proficiency, pedagogical knowledge, and class management as follows: three items related to class management that were “Item 56: Book the excellent students and failures”, “Item 57: Clarify the instructions of the activities inside the class such as the opening and closing the book, making the exercises, or using the instructional aids” and ”Item 50: Avoid verbal punishment”. Two items related to academic quality and English proficiency were “Item 10: Be able to communicate well in English” and ”Item 1: Have new knowledge about the content” Besides, two items belonged to the category of pedagogical knowledge and discipline that were ”Item 22: Encourage students to answer questions even if they don’t like to talk” and ”Item14: Take into account the individual differences”.

**Table 5**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Item no.</th>
<th>Students’ Means</th>
<th>Students’ t-value</th>
<th>Item no.</th>
<th>Teachers’ Means</th>
<th>Teachers’ t-value</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Item 22: Encourage students to answer questions even if they don’t like to talk.</td>
<td>2.5525</td>
<td>-32.7928</td>
<td>Item 29: Understand the financial conditions of the students.</td>
<td>2.36</td>
<td>-5.93218</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Item 1: Have new knowledge about the content.</td>
<td>2.75</td>
<td>-10.5556</td>
<td>Item 20: Raise the questions to all students without interruption while answering.</td>
<td>2.56</td>
<td>-3.96537</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Item 26: Have the skills of preparing different plans (daily, semester, and annual).</td>
<td>2.7925</td>
<td>-13.3776</td>
<td>Item 25: Use appropriate extra materials.</td>
<td>2.9</td>
<td>-1.25134</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Item 23: Know how to evaluate the students.</td>
<td>3.33</td>
<td>4.415197</td>
<td>Item 21: Use the most modern technology in teaching</td>
<td>2.9</td>
<td>-1.25134</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Item 56: Book the excellent students and failures.</td>
<td>3.4975</td>
<td>6.089057</td>
<td>Item 51: Not interrupting student’s discussion.</td>
<td>2.9</td>
<td>-0.6434</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Item 31: Have loyalty and desire to teach.</td>
<td>3.565</td>
<td>7.245103</td>
<td>Item 37: Be helpful to the students outside the classroom.</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Item 30: Be faithful and disciplined.</td>
<td>3.585</td>
<td>6.715915</td>
<td>Item 35: Accept the criticism.</td>
<td>3.06</td>
<td>0.764038</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Table 5 shows that all of the seven items that received the lowest means from students and teachers were different as follows:

For student participants, they believed that three of the seven items were less important and related to pedagogical knowledge and discipline. These items were: “Item 22: Encourage students to answer questions even if they don’t like to talk”, “Item 26: Have the skills of preparing different plans”, and “Item 23: Know how to evaluate the students”. Two of these low items belonged to the personality of the English teachers. These items were “Item 31: Have loyalty and desire to teaching” and “Item 30: Be faithful and disciplined”. Moreover, one item related to class management was “Item 56: Book the excellent students and failures” and another one related to the academic category was “Item 1: Have new knowledge about the content”.

For teacher participants, three items related to pedagogical knowledge and discipline. These items were “Item 20: Raise the questions to all students without interruption while answering”, “Item 25: Use appropriate extra materials” and “Item 21: Use the most modern technology in teaching”. Besides, three items were ethics and personality of English teachers that were “Item 29: Understand the financial conditions of the students”, “Item 37: Be helpful to the students outside the classroom” and “Item 35: Accept the criticism”. The last item belonged to the category of class management which was “Item 51: Not interrupting students’ discussion”.

As seen in Table 4 and Table 5, there were differences between the responses of teachers and students on six same items. Three of them were rated by teachers as being among the most important qualities of English teachers and received high means. They were rated by student participants as being less important qualities of English teacher and received low means. These items were “Item 22: Encourage students to answer questions even if they don’t like to talk”, “Item 1: Have new knowledge about the content.” and “Item 56: Book the excellent students and failures”.

On the other hand, three items were rated by students as being among the most important qualities of English teachers and received high means. However, they were rated by teacher participants as being less important qualities of English teacher and received low means. These items were “Item 29: Understand the financial conditions of the students.”, “Item 51: Not interrupt student’ discussion” and “Item 37: Be helpful to the students outside the classroom”.

V. DISCUSSION

A. Discussion of the First Question

The current study explored students’ and teachers’ perspectives on the qualities of English teachers. To fulfill this, the first question of the study examined was “What are the qualities of an effective EFL instructor perceived by Jordanian English language students?” From the findings of the first question of the study, it is noted that students considered all four questionnaire categories to be important. Only (3) of the 57 questionnaire items received means below (3.00).

It can be summarised that students decided that effective English language teachers were those with pleasant personalities, good morals, and good management. The category of personality and ethics was rated the most important followed by class management and discipline. The students may consider the category of personality and ethics as the most important category because of many reasons: first, students believe that if their English teachers have good personalities and morals such as understanding the financial conditions of the students, being helpful to the students outside the classroom and being aware of the social and cultural background of the learners, and being available for the students, they can learn English in a suitable learning atmosphere. Second, the favorable personality of EFL instructors may influence the students’ effective learning psychologically because teachers who have good relations with their students give them a positive impression of learning. Lastly, students responded to the category of personality and ethics positively and gave it a high ranking because it facilitates communication with their teachers.

The result was following (Arikan et al., 2008; Ghasemi & Hashemi, 2011; Khaing, 2020; and Sandari, 2016) showed that the perspectives of teachers towards characteristics of effective EFL teachers were positive. In particular, categories of personality, competencies of English teachers, the content of pedagogical knowledge, and ethics were rated as the highest rankings among several categories.

B. Discussion of the Second Question

The second question of the study examined was "What are the qualities of an effective EFL instructor perceived by Jordanian English language instructors?" From the teachers' point of view, the category of Academic quality & English proficiency is the most important for teaching English followed by class management and discipline. They might be because of the nature of learning a foreign language. English instructors at Al-Balqa Applied University believe that having English proficiency enables them to teach their students well so they should communicate with their students well in English. For academic quality, they should have new knowledge about the content and prepare the lesson in a good way. Thus, Teachers believe that using the target language in the classroom creates learning opportunities for FL learners.

This finding is in the light of Al-Issa (2017) and Orgetman et al. (2010) who found that English language teachers had a positive view towards teaching methods, training, and updated curriculum.

C. Discussion of the Third Question
The third question of the study examined “What are the differences and similarities between the qualities of English language instructor perceived by Jordanian English language instructors and learners?” In general, both groups believed all four questionnaire categories represented important qualities of an effective English teacher. Anyway, it is noticed that students assigned significantly higher means to each of these categories than teachers’ means. Both of them believe that English teachers should be good at class management because of its positive effect on the teaching and learning process.

The qualities of effective English teachers were defined differently by students and teachers. The students perceived the category of personality and ethics as the most important quality, while the teachers perceived the category of academic and proficiency quality as the most important quality.

To contrast students’ and teachers’ perspectives towards the effective qualities of English teachers in detail, the (7) highest and lowest-rated questionnaire items for teachers and students were compared as shown in Table 4 and Table 5. Table 4 showed that all of the seven items that received the highest means from students were related to the categories of teacher’s personality, class management, and methods and teaching. The students may consider the quality of the teacher’s personality the most important category because it allows relations to make good relations with their teachers. On the other hand, teachers recorded the highest items associated with academic quality and English proficiency, pedagogical knowledge, and class management. The teachers believed that language competency offers rules to improve instruction that improves students’ performance. Besides, they need language proficiency to teach the target language efficiently. Also, instructors in the universities do not like to depend on the textbook so they prefer to have reached the target language.

The finding agreed with Al-Mahrooqi et al. (2015), Badawood (2015), Huang (2015), Liando (2010) and Wichadee (2010) who found that there were similarities between students’ and teachers’ perspectives towards effective EFL teachers’ qualities. Moreover, some studies showed significant differences between students’ and teachers’ views on the qualities of effective EFL teachers. Shishavan and Sadeghi (2009) found out that there were significant differences between teachers’ and students’ perspectives on some qualities of effective EFL teachers such as assigning homework, preparing a lesson plan, and knowledge of pedagogy.

D. Recommendation

The present study recommends EFL instructors apply the qualities of effective EFL teachers mentioned in the study in the process of teaching and learning English and other languages. Also, universities should conduct courses and workshops about the importance of those qualities in improving the teaching and learning process. Besides, further research can be conducted to collect more data from different and more participants about their points of view on the qualities of effective EFL teachers at different levels i.e. school level. Finally, the reasons for different perspectives regarding effective English teachers held by student and teacher participants should be investigated so the study encourages other researchers to carry out other studies in the future.

VI. CONCLUSION

The study aims at identifying the qualities of effective EFL instructors from the perspectives of English students and teachers. As the results of the study suggest, both students and teachers at Al-Balqa Applied University perceive teachers as effective, if the EFL instructors apply the most of qualities mentioned in the survey of study in the classroom. In general, the results showed that the students advocated ethics and personality, class management and discipline, academic quality, and English proficiency, and pedagogical knowledge and planning in order of importance. The teachers advocated academic quality and English proficiency, class management and discipline, pedagogical knowledge and planning and, ethics and personality. However, student participants do not prefer teachers who encourage students to answer questions even if they don't like to talk or who have new knowledge about the content and skills of preparing different plans, or who have loyalty and desire to teach. Moreover, student participants do not like those teachers who know how to evaluate the students, book the excellent students and failures, and are disciplined. Besides, EFL instructors who participated in this study found some traits as “ineffective”. They perceive foreign language teachers who understand the financial conditions of the students, raise questions to all students without interruption while answering, and use appropriate extra materials as ineffective teachers. Furthermore, the teacher participants do not prefer teachers who use the most modern technology in teaching and accept criticism. Moreover, they like to be helpful to the students outside the classroom and they like to interrupt students’ discussions.

APPENDIX. A QUESTIONNAIRE FOR SURVEYING THE CHARACTERISTICS OF A GOOD ENGLISH LANGUAGE INSTRUCTOR AS PERCEIVED BY AL-BALQA APPLIED UNIVERSITY (EFL) LEARNERS AND ENGLISH INSTRUCTORS (THE INSTRUCTOR’S AND STUDENT’S VERSION)

This questionnaire aimed at exploring the perspectives of English Jordanian students and instructors on the qualities of effective language instructors.

The researcher is grateful to you for your participation. He assures you of the confidentiality of your responses.

Please answer the following questions:
Section I: Background information
Name (Optional) _________________________________________
Gender _________________________________________
The name of the university ______________________________
The level you study/ teach ______________________________

Section II: indicate how important these qualities are by responding to the degree of the agreement so please encircle the relevant number on a scale of 1 to 5:
1. Strongly Agree
2. Agree
3. No Idea
4. Disagree
5. Strongly Disagree

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>The first domain: Academic quality &amp; English proficiency</th>
<th>Strongly Agree (1)</th>
<th>Agree (2)</th>
<th>No Idea (3)</th>
<th>Disagree (4)</th>
<th>Strongly Disagree (5)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>have new knowledge about the content.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>prepare the lesson in a good way.</td>
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<tr>
<td>control the content.</td>
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<tr>
<td>be a good learner.</td>
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<tr>
<td>speak and pronounce English well.</td>
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<td>read English well.</td>
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<tr>
<td>write English well.</td>
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<tr>
<td>have a large amount of English vocabulary.</td>
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<tr>
<td>use English grammar in communication.</td>
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<tr>
<td>be able to communicate well in English</td>
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</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>The second domain: Pedagogical knowledge &amp; planning</th>
<th>Strongly Agree (1)</th>
<th>Agree (2)</th>
<th>No Idea (3)</th>
<th>Disagree (4)</th>
<th>Strongly Disagree (5)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>verify the methods and the activities.</td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>know the motivators that affect students' learning.</td>
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<tr>
<td>use different types of reinforcements.</td>
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<tr>
<td>Take into account individual differences.</td>
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<tr>
<td>know how to set objectives.</td>
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<td>introduce the lesson.</td>
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<td>make the lessons interesting.</td>
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<td>be skillful in producing and using instructional</td>
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<td>materials.</td>
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<tr>
<td>give chances for students to be relaxed.</td>
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<tr>
<td>raise the questions to all students without</td>
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<tr>
<td>interruption while answering.</td>
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<tr>
<td>use the most modern technology in teaching</td>
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<tr>
<td>encourage students to answer questions even if they</td>
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<tr>
<td>don’t like to talk.</td>
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<td>know how to evaluate the students.</td>
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<tr>
<td>be enthusiastic and creative in teaching.</td>
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<td>use appropriate extra materials.</td>
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<td>have the skills of preparing different plans (daily,</td>
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<tr>
<td>semester, and annual).</td>
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<tr>
<td>improve students’ thinking skills.</td>
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</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>The third domain: Ethics and personality</th>
<th>Strongly Agree (1)</th>
<th>Agree (2)</th>
<th>No Idea (3)</th>
<th>Disagree (4)</th>
<th>Strongly Disagree (5)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>be patient.</td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>understand the financial conditions of the students.</td>
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<td>be faithful and disciplined.</td>
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<tr>
<td>have loyalty and a desire to teach.</td>
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<td>care of his appearance.</td>
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<tr>
<td>be humble and optimistic.</td>
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<tr>
<td>be afraid of Allah (God).</td>
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<tr>
<td>accept the criticism.</td>
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<tr>
<td>be aware of the social and cultural background of</td>
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<tr>
<td>the learners.</td>
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<tr>
<td>be helpful to the students outside the classroom.</td>
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<tr>
<td>have democratic attitudes.</td>
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<tr>
<td>be a human.</td>
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<tr>
<td>encourage teamwork.</td>
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<tr>
<td>have the characteristics of a successful leader.</td>
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<tr>
<td>be the forgiver and flexible.</td>
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</tbody>
</table>
change student failure into success
have a strong personality.
be available for the students
listen to the students.
be fair while treating students.
be friendly.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>The fourth domain: class management and discipline</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>The language teacher should:</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>warn students by using gestures.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>avoid verbal punishment.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>not interrupting students' discussion.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>use a notebook to book the students' behaviors.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>use several educational methods to discipline the class.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>be a good manager of time.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>be a good listener.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>book the excellent students and failures.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>clarify the instructions for the activities inside the class such as opening and closing the book, making the exercises, or using instructional aids.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

REFERENCES


Mohammad Akram Alzu’bi was born in Jordan on the 1st of September 1978. He has the following educational background listed below:


He has the following work experiences as follows:

2. King Saud University: Lecturer in Al-Majma’a Community College - English Department (2005-2008).
3. Albalqa Applied University:
   - Assistant professor in Al-Balqa Applied University- Ajloun University College - English Department (2009-2014).
   - Associate professor in Al-Balqa Applied University- Ajloun University College - English Department (2014-2020).
   - Professor in Al-Balqa Applied University- Ajloun University College - English Department (2021-till now).
   - Head of English Department: (2018-2022)

He participated in several conferences and conducted many projects. Besides, he published more than 40 previous publications in specialized journals indexed in the international database, for example:


His current and previous research interests are to achieve studies and projects in the field of Applied Linguistics, CALL (Computer Assisted Language Learning), designing English curricula, and language evaluation.

Prof. Alzu’bi has memberships in several academic journals and professional societies. Finally, he is awarded a prize by Al-Balqa Applied University because he is one of the best researchers at the university.
One Novel and Multiple Voices: Tackling Euphemism in Five Arabic Translations of \textit{Animal Farm}

Mohammed A. Albarakati  
King Abdulaziz University, Jeddah, Saudi Arabia

Esraa A. Fattah  
Independent Researcher, Jeddah, Saudi Arabia

Sameh S. Youssef  
Helwan University, Cairo, Egypt

Abstract—This study investigates the processes used by George Orwell in the formation of euphemism in \textit{Animal Farm} and examines how far five Arabic translations of the novel succeed in conveying the euphemistic purposes of the Source text, and the euphemism formation procedures used in these translations. There are plenty of studies on euphemism and on the novel, but not a single study on translating euphemism in \textit{Animal Farm}, hence this study. Twenty euphemistic expressions are classified based on Warren’s 1992 model and their five Arabic translations are analyzed. The study finds that 95% of the expressions are rendered literally and succeed in rendering the intended meaning, maintaining the same device. The study also finds that Orwell uses a device that is not categorized in Warren’s 1992 classification of euphemism innovation model and therefore it is defined and labelled as “Overstatement Paraphrasing”.

Index Terms—Animal Farm, Arabic, Euphemism, Orwell, translation

I. INTRODUCTION

This study investigates how euphemism is translated from English into Arabic in five Arabic translations of George Orwell’s \textit{Animal Farm} in light of the classification of Warren (1992) for euphemism creation. Chief among rhetorical devices to avoid loss of face or upgrade the denotatum, euphemism is an effective politeness strategy used pervasively in many aspects of life. According to Holder (2008), euphemism is a polite word or expression used instead of a more direct one when someone is talking about something unpleasant or embarrassing, adding that euphemisms are considered ‘the language of evasion, hypocrisy, prudery and deceit’ as they manipulate the meaning of words or phrases to make them sound more pleasant, which is a view shared also by Allan and Burridge (1991). According to Radulović (2012), there are two types of euphemisms: positive and negative euphemism; the former is used to make the euphemized items sound more impressive, more acceptable, or more important than they really are, such as using ‘senior citizens’ instead of ‘old people’, while the latter decreases negative connotations that are associated with negative phenomena such as war, crime, and poverty. This type of euphemism is more commonly used than positive euphemism. Despite the differences among various cultures in terms of the extent, context, and frequency of euphemism use, this study assumes that euphemism is a universal phenomenon that is used by all humans. This variation is noted among different social entities that have different tolerant positions towards taboo and hurtful expressions or behaviors, which could be attributed to several factors, including religious, cultural and political ones.

This study is intended for translation studies researchers, professional translators, language students, researchers in literature, and those interested in comparative/contrastive studies. Moreover, proving that literally translated structures can still hold euphemisms, machine translation researchers and programmers can also benefit from this study in the making of their algorithms designed for the rendering of euphemistic expressions, particularly between the language pair (English-Arabic).

II. REVIEW OF THE LITERATURE

There are plenty of researches on the Arabic translation of \textit{Animal Farm}. Due to the significance of the novel, it is translated into scores of languages. In Arabic alone, there are at least 16 translations that have been published since the original novel’s publication in 1945. In general, \textit{Animal Farm} is vastly studied from a literary perspective and as an icon of allegory fiction, with plenty of political allusions and insinuations. There is also considerable research on the linguistic aspects of the novel. However, due to limitation of space, this section sheds light on samples of the previous
studies on Animal Farm and on euphemism in Arabic translation to highlight the general research approaches on both the novel and euphemism in general.

Abdel Gafour (2021) investigates manipulation in translation theory applied to two translations of Orwell’s Animal Farm, interpreting the findings in light of the view that translation is a rewriting of dominant ideology. The study concludes that each target text shows one dominant type of manipulation based on several factors, including the dominant ideology. Yahya and Ibrahim (2020) probe the Arabic translation of motion verbs in two translations of the novel, investigating the different techniques used by the translators. Al-Jurani and Ibrahim (2020) assess metaphor translation in four translations of Animal Farm, hypothesizing that a translators’ backgrounds and ideologies shape their translations; this view is also shared by Bani Abdo (2020) in his study on translating metaphor in the novel in two different Arabic translations.

There is also extensive research on translating euphemism. For example, Farghal (1995) probes the main devices used by Arabic speakers when they tend to euphemize, employing the pragmatic theories and models developed by Grice and Leech, opening the door for analyzing euphemism using pragmatic tools. Al-Shawi (2013) posits the use of theories of pragmatics, such as the Relevance Theory, to better understand the techniques used in translating euphemism into Arabic, suggesting several strategies for a better translation for euphemistic expressions. Al-Adwan (2015, p. 19) examines the use of euphemism as a linguistic politeness strategy in the Arabic subtitle version of ‘Friends’, arguing that “euphemism as a politeness strategy plays a vital role in establishing and promoting a smoother and friction-free form of interaction in the Arabic subtitles of Friends”. Anber and Swear (2016) explore how sociocultural expressions affect translating euphemisms in the Arabic translation of “A Grain of Wheat”, adopting a qualitative approach. Furthermore, Almijrab (2020) investigates using euphemism techniques to address the English-Arabic translation of taboos, with a focus on cultural untranslatability. In addition, there are plenty of studies on euphemisms in the Holy Quran. For example, Al-Hamad and Salman (2013) investigate the issue of translating Qur’anic euphemisms into English and conclude that euphemism translation is problematic for its cultural and linguistic diversity. Nonetheless, Olimat (2019, p. 16) finds that “Sex and death are the most common euphemistic topics in the Qur’an, while feelings, divorce and pregnancy are the least frequent euphemistic topics”.

Despite the extensive research on Animal Farm and euphemism, no research is conducted on euphemism in the novel, to the best knowledge of the researchers, and hence the significance of this study. Therefore, this study seeks to answer the following two research questions:

1- What are the processes used by George Orwell for the formation of euphemisms in Animal Farm in light of Warren’s (1992) classification for euphemism innovation?

2- How far did the five Arabic translators succeed in conveying the euphemistic purposes of the ST, and what are the euphemism formation procedures used in their translations?

III. DATA SOURCES

Written during World War II, Animal Farm is a satirical political beast fable. Based on the events of Russia's Bolshevik revolution, this allegorical novel tells the story of a group of farm animals trying to live in peace after they revolted against their exploitative human masters to establish a new egalitarian society where all animals can be equal and free. The main idea of this novel is to present the example of how socialism began to take root to become a dictatorial communism.

This study selects five Arabic translations of Animal Farm. The criteria for selecting these translations include acceptability and cultural background diversity of the translators. As the researchers have no preferences of one translation over the others, table 1 below shows the codes given to the translations, noting that they are ordered chronologically based on the date of publication of the copies used in this study:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Code</th>
<th>Translation</th>
<th>Date</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>T1</td>
<td>Alifadhil</td>
<td>1997</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>T2</td>
<td>Abudlah</td>
<td>2009</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>T3</td>
<td>Al-Eraim</td>
<td>2011</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>T4</td>
<td>Abdul Ghani</td>
<td>2014</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>T5</td>
<td>International Publishing House</td>
<td>2016</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

IV. METHODOLOGY

Warren (1992) proposes two main categories for euphemism formation: formal and semantic innovations. Formal innovation includes “word formation devices” such as compounding of two words together, blending parts of two words to coin a new word, or imitating the sound of the action to coin a new word. New innovations may involve “phonemic modifications” of already existing words by letter reversal or making word rhyming. Semantic innovation involves eight categories which are: particularization, implication, metonymy, metaphor, reversal, understatement, overstatement, and paraphrasing.
Because *Animal Farm* is revolutionary in nature, only twenty (20) euphemistic expressions can be found in the novel. They are classified, according to the device used in the euphemistic expression, into 7 categories, as illustrated in Table 2 below, which answers the first research question, arranged by number of occurrences:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Sr.</th>
<th>Device</th>
<th>Number of Occurrences</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>Understatement</td>
<td>7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>Overstatement</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>Metonymy</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4</td>
<td>Implication</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5</td>
<td>Paraphrasing</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6</td>
<td>Reversal</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7</td>
<td>New Device</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Total</td>
<td>20</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The Arabic counterparts of the expressions from the five translations are collected, and the devices used in the translation are identified, and therefore the data are ready to be analyzed and mapped with the formal and semantic innovations used for euphemism formation, as modelled by Warren (1992).

All the excerpts of each device are analyzed, either individually or collectively, to examine how euphemisms are employed in the novel, and how far do the five Arabic translations succeed in conveying the euphemistic effect. The analysis starts with the English euphemistic expression, as a brief description of the context is given, coupled with an analysis of the euphemism based on Warren’s framework. This part is followed by a table with the five Arabic translations and the devices used, followed by a commentary on the devices used.

V. Analysis

A. Understatement

In understatement, the euphemism is used to downplay the referent euphemized for such as ‘drug habit’ as a euphemism for ‘drug addiction’.

**Excerpt 1**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>English Euphemism</th>
<th>Device</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>To that horror we all must come — cows, pigs, hens, sheep, everyone. P. 8</td>
<td>Understatement</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

In this excerpt, Old Major, a clever and persuasive pig, spurs the rebellion with his rhetorical skills and ability to persuade other animals to share his displeasure, employing the euphemistic expression "horror" instead of "murder/killing". Although the word ‘horror’ may still sound dysphemistic, this excerpt shows that context is a key factor in deciding where expressions are located on the euphemism or dysphemism scale. The following table illustrates the Arabic translations and the devices used:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>T1</th>
<th>T2</th>
<th>T3</th>
<th>T4</th>
<th>T5</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>كنتي فقها وأتى على مثل هذا الرعب الآثار الخنازير، والدجاج، والأغنام، وكلام بكل بلا استثناء.</td>
<td>هذا هو الممصري الغريب الذي يهدئكم جميعا من آثار الخنازير وتجاربهم، وضعف، وعموما.</td>
<td>من كل مصري أو خانزيرا، يجب أن تجد آثاره، وتجاربه، وتجاربهم، وتجاربهم، وتجاربهم.</td>
<td>لا بد أن نصل جميعا إلى هذه النهاية المهينة للخنازير، الناس الآثار الخنازير، والدجاج، ولا أحد معفي من ذلك.</td>
<td>لن تجد جميعا إلى هذه النهاية المهينة للخنازير، الناس الآثار الخنازير، والدجاج، ولا أحد معفي من ذلك.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Number of Occurrences</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>19</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Understatement Understatement Understatement Understatement Understatement

In all the five translations, understatement is used, employing derivations of the word “horror” (الرعب - المصري)، except T4, who uses the word (brutality/القاطعة)، which is still an understatement for killing.

**Excerpt 2**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>English Euphemism</th>
<th>Device</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Even the horses and the dogs have no better fate. P. 8</td>
<td>Understatement</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

This quote is a part of Old Major’s powerful speech to the animals, in which he euphemistically explains to them that even horses and dogs would be eventually slaughtered. He employs understatement using the word “fate” to mean death. The following table illustrates the Arabic translations and the devices used:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>T1</th>
<th>T2</th>
<th>T3</th>
<th>T4</th>
<th>T5</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>حتى الخيول والكلاب لا يكون مصيرها أفضل.</td>
<td>حتى الخيول والكلاب في ليست أسعد مما جدا.</td>
<td>وحتى الخيول والكلاب أن تكون أسرع مما جدا.</td>
<td>وحتى الخيول والكلاب ليس لها مصير/أشرفة تحددها.</td>
<td>وحتى الخيول والكلاب لا تكون مصيراً أفضل من ذلك.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Number of Occurrences</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>19</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Understatement Understatement Understatement Understatement Understatement
In Excerpt 2, T2 and T3 use the word (luck/ حظ) to render the word “fate”, whereas the other translations render the word literally using (fate/ مصر). Either way, euphemism is conveyed and the same device of understatement found in the ST is maintained in the translation.

When the pigs start acting better than the other animals, despite the farm’s ideas of equality, they start to take more and give less as the story unfolds. Nonetheless, to keep the animals from becoming rebelling, Squealer employs euphemism to persuade them that they were not receiving less food than they had under human rule. Squealer always refers to the decrease in food portions as “adjustments,” but never as “reductions”, employing the device of “understatement”. The following table illustrates the Arabic translations and the devices used:

**EXCERPT 3**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>English Euphemism</th>
<th>Device</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>For the time being, certainly, it had been found necessary to make a readjustment of rations (Squealer always spoke of it as “a readjustment,” never as “a reduction”). P. 84</td>
<td>Understatement</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

In Excerpt 3, all the translators maintain the euphemism, employing the same device of understatement. However, it is noted that T1, T2 and T4 follow the steps of the author and translate the word “reduction” that is meant to be euphemized in this excerpt in a literal way (تخفيف - تخفيض), while T3 and T5 ignore translating the word, employing the translation technique known as translation by omission.

**EXCERPT 4**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>English Euphemism</th>
<th>Device</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>What they should do if their Leader were taken away from them? P. 81</td>
<td>Understatement</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

After Mr. Frederick and a group of armed men attack the farm and blow up the entire windmill, the animals hear whispers that Napoleon is dying, but he recovers few hours later. Instead of using the word (die or death), the author uses the euphemism “taken away” as an understatement of death, augmenting his argument with the use of the impossible conditional. The following table illustrates the Arabic translations and the devices used:

**EXCERPT 5 AND 6**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>English Euphemism</th>
<th>Device</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>(...) superannuated animals. P. 83</td>
<td>Understatement</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(...) superannuated animals. P. 95</td>
<td>Understatement</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

A “superannuated” animal means the one that is getting old. The novel says that these animals are promised a pasture that is specifically walled off for them and a set daily amount of food. The euphemistic word “superannuated” appears twice in the novel to signify that animals were not assigned work when they age; nevertheless, they are sold for a good price.
All the translators have rendered the SL euphemism “superannuated” with euphemized Arabic equivalents in different variants of the used words such as (الكبيرة في السن – المسنين – المعاش – التقاعد), using the same device of understatement. It is noted that T3 and T5 are consistent, repeating the exact word, while the other three translators use different words. Aging is a taboo, and therefore euphemism is always used when talking about it; for example, certain seats in public transportation are reserved for ‘Senior Citizens’, which is a softer term than ‘Old People’. It is also noted that the term is translated in T2 as (المعاش - التقاعد), which are synonyms and can be used interchangeably to denote retirement; however, they are not used with the same degree in all the Arabic speaking countries, and therefore consistency in this matter is preferable.

EXCERPT 7

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>English Euphemism</th>
<th>Device</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>(... ) during Boxer’s last hours. P. 92</td>
<td>Understatement</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

When Boxer becomes too ill as a result of the hard and rigorous labor he conducts without question, the pigs abandon him, sending him away to be slaughtered. Nonetheless, the writer uses the euphemistic expression "last hours" instead of "death/dying" perhaps to play on emotions. The Arabic translations and the used devices are illustrated in the following table:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>T1</th>
<th>T2</th>
<th>T3</th>
<th>T4</th>
<th>T5</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>ساعات بوكسر الأخيرة</td>
<td>194</td>
<td>104</td>
<td>59</td>
<td>127</td>
<td>200</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

All the five translators use the same understatement device for euphemism, following the footsteps of the author. Although a literal translation approach is adopted in the translation of this excerpt, the translators use two different words to express the euphemized death, namely (hour/ساعة and moments/لحظات).

B. Overstatement

On the contrary of understatement, overstatement upgrades the referent, such as the euphemism ‘housekeeper/servant’ for ‘house maid’.

EXCERPT 8

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>English Euphemism</th>
<th>Device</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>“Loyalty and obedience are more important”. P. 43</td>
<td>Overstatement</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

In Excerpt 8, the persona of Squealer is used to spread information and misinformation to the farm’s non-pig animals. When he becomes Napoleon’s right-hand after taking control, Squealer gives speeches to promote Napoleon’s ambitions and lies. Squealer is constantly manipulating words and employing euphemisms to persuade animals and evoke positive sentiments from them. He utilizes the words "loyalty and obedience” while the underlying objective of these words is servitude. The used device can be classified as an overstatement, which is similar to using empty slogans in political campaigns. The following table illustrates the five Arabic translations and the devices used in each of them:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>T1</th>
<th>T2</th>
<th>T3</th>
<th>T4</th>
<th>T5</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>الإخلاص والطاعة هي أكثر أهمية</td>
<td>99</td>
<td>99</td>
<td>99</td>
<td>99</td>
<td>99</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

All the translators tended to translate this excerpt literally, adopting the same device used by the writer.

EXCERPT 9

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>English Euphemism</th>
<th>Device</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>(...) the hoof and horn signified the future Republic of the Animals which would arise when the human race had been finally overthrown. P. 24</td>
<td>Overstatement</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Snowball claims that the Republic of the Animals is the inevitable future government to be established after defeating humans. Pigs use euphemism to regulate and explain their actions to other animals, calling the farm "Republic" to maintain power and authority over all the other animals. This type of euphemism utilizes ‘overstatement’ to cover the pigs’ true goals and justify their acts. The following table illustrates the five Arabic translations and the devices used in each of them:
Although all the five translators employ overstatement as a euphemizing device, four of them adopt a literal translation approach and render “Republic of the Animals” as "الجمهورية القادمة" except T4, who adopts here a functional approach, rendering it as “The Coming Republic/الجمهورية القادمة" while omitting the word (animal) to augment the euphemism structure.

**Excerpt 10**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>English Euphemism</th>
<th>Device</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Wild Comrades' Re-education Committee P. 25</td>
<td>Overstatement</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

When Snowball starts forming Animal Committees, one of the committees he establishes is the “Wild Comrades' Re-education Committee” to tame the rats and rabbits. The paradox is that "taming" is commonly used with animals, but "education" is not. To euphemize the name of the committee and soften the word “taming”, the author uses overstatement. The Arabic translations and the used devices are illustrated in the following table:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>English Euphemism</th>
<th>Device</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>(…) appreciates the sacrifice. P. 43</td>
<td>Overstatement</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The context of this utterance is that Napoleon barres Snowball from the farm because he desires to rule over everyone, and so Napoleon commands the violent dogs to attack Snowball. When Squealer offers this explanation to all the animals, he uses his manipulative diction along with his usage of euphemism to justify Napoleon’s action, giving all the animals the impression that Napoleon is a respectable, meritorious, and positive individual. Hiding the truth beneath a deceitful lie, Squealer uses negative manipulation through euphemism to acquire possession by force and fear. The Arabic translations and the used devices are illustrated in the following table:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>English Euphemism</th>
<th>Device</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>But no animal escapes the cruel knife. P. 8</td>
<td>Metonymy</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
euphemistic purposes as a cruel knife would only “cause” the “effect” of slaughter. The following table illustrates the five Arabic translations and the devices used in each of them:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>T1</th>
<th>T2</th>
<th>T3</th>
<th>T4</th>
<th>T5</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>لكن ما من حيوان ينجو من السكين القاسي في نهاية المطاف</td>
<td>إلا أنه فيما يقلع لذهلاً قد من حيوان سكين في نهاية المطاف</td>
<td>أن الحيوان الذي لا يقتل أي حيوان من السكين الكريء</td>
<td>ولكن لم ينج حيوان طف من حصل السكين القاسي في نهاية المطاف</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Metonymy</td>
<td>Metonymy</td>
<td>Metonymy</td>
<td>Metonymy</td>
<td>Metonymy</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

All the five translations follow the same device of metonymy, walking on the footsteps of the author.

**Excerpts 13, 14 and 15**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>English Euphemism</th>
<th>Device</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>&quot;Four legs good, two legs bad.&quot; P. 27</td>
<td>Metonymy</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>&quot;Four legs good, two legs BETTER!&quot; P. 100</td>
<td>Metonymy</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

In Excerpt 13, Napoleon, Snowball, and Squealer, decide to develop a formal school of thought based on Old Major's speech. They call the concept Animalism and develop the Seven Commandments, which outline the principles of Animalism. The euphemisms are found in the first and second commandments ‘Whatever goes upon two legs is an enemy. Whatever goes upon four legs, or has wings, is a friend’. These two metonymy euphemisms create the notion of Animalism. The euphemism ‘goes upon two legs’ to indicate humans and ‘goes upon four legs or has wings’ to refer to animals and birds. Excerpt 14 portrays a slogan that sheep always repeat: “Four legs good, two legs bad”. Orwell demonstrates that the sheep are prompted to interrupt Snowball’s speeches at key points to indicate that euphemistic slogans are effective tools employed by the intellectually superior to influence the inferior. This euphemism adopts the same metonymic image already mentioned in Excerpt 13. However, the paradox comes when Napoleon is seen walking on two legs, rather than four. Then, the Seven Commandments are altered. In excerpt 15, the sheep started singing the new slogan: ‘Four legs good, two legs BETTER!’ In this slogan, “two legs” is a euphemism to indicate pigs after they started to walk like humans. The following table illustrates the five Arabic translations of the three excerpts and the devices used in each of them:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>T1</th>
<th>T2</th>
<th>T3</th>
<th>T4</th>
<th>T5</th>
</tr>
</thead>
</table>
| كل من يسير على قدمين هو عدو | كل من يسير على قدمين النتين | الحيوان هو كل من يمشي على أربعة أقدام أو يطير | أي كان يسير على قدمين هو عدو، كأن رأى كل من يمشي على أربعة أقدام أو يطير!
| Metonymy | Metonymy | Metonymy | Metonymy | Metonymy |

The five translations of the three excerpts reflect strict adherence to literal translation, as all the translators use metonymy as the euphemism device in all the three excerpts.

**D. Implication**

Implication is a device used when there is a relationship between the euphemism and the word or expression euphemized for, such as ‘going to the toilet’ as a euphemism and ‘urinating’ as an action euphemized for.

**Excerpt 16**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>English Euphemism</th>
<th>Device</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>(…) not of first-rate intelligence. P. 5</td>
<td>Implication</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Representing the Russian working class, Boxer is powerful, hardworking and loyal, but he is not particularly intelligent and relies on the pigs to think for him. Orwell describes his folly by euphemism through negating his intelligence, implying his weak mental skills. The following table portrays the five Arabic translations of the excerpt and the devices used in each of them:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>T1</th>
<th>T2</th>
<th>T3</th>
<th>T4</th>
<th>T5</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>لم يكن نكا من النكا الأولى</td>
<td>سطحي التفكير</td>
<td>كاكا الموضع</td>
<td>لم يكن نكا من النكا الأولى</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Implication</td>
<td>Non-euphemistic</td>
<td>Non-euphemistic</td>
<td>Implication</td>
<td>Implication</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Three translators use the same euphemism device of implicature and the same structure of negation. The other two, namely T2 and T3, ignore the negated structure and produced non-euphemistic translations that clearly describe Boxer as someone with a shallow mind and humble intelligence. Meanwhile, all other translators employ the same device of implication, using the same structure of negation.

**EXCEPT 17**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>English Euphemism</th>
<th>Device</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Boxer, the very day that those great muscles of yours lose their power</td>
<td>Implication</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Old Major persuades Boxer that once he gets weak, Mr. Jones will kill him. He uses this euphemistic language to tug on the animals' heartstrings. The euphemism 'your big muscles lose their power' denotes 'weakness'. The following table portrays the five Arabic translations of the excerpt and the devices used in each of them:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>T1</th>
<th>T2</th>
<th>T3</th>
<th>T4</th>
<th>T5</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>تأثرت يا بوكسر، حين يأتي اليوم أن تفقد عضلاتك من رومة الذي تعدك النجاح في عضلاتك.</td>
<td>تأثرت يا بوكسر، حين يأتي اليوم أن تفقد عضلاتك من رومة الذي تعدك النجاح في عضلاتك.</td>
<td>Not translated</td>
<td>تأثرت يا بوكسر، حين يأتي اليوم أن تفقد عضلاتك من رومة الذي تعدك النجاح في عضلاتك.</td>
<td>تأثرت يا بوكسر، حين يأتي اليوم أن تفقد عضلاتك من رومة الذي تعدك النجاح في عضلاتك.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ص 20</td>
<td>ص 12</td>
<td>ص 6</td>
<td>ص 19</td>
<td>ص 16</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Only one translator, namely T3, ignores translating this utterance entirely, while all the other translators adopt the same device of implication.

E. Paraphrasing

The device used when the euphemistic meaning is expressed in a circumlocutionary manner by way of explanation or giving definition with more neutral words is known as paraphrasing.

**EXCEPT 18**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>English Euphemism</th>
<th>Device</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Clover was a stout motherly mare approaching middle life, who had never quite got her figure back after her fourth foal</td>
<td>Overstatement/Paraphrasing</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Clover is a mare, and instead of describing her as fat, Orwell uses two euphemism devices: overstatement and paraphrasing. The word "stout" is an overstatement device, as it describes a heavily built person who is strong and healthy, and therefore it has a positive connotation and it can be used also as a compliment. The second device is paraphrasing as evident in the utterance 'who had never quite got her figure back after her fourth foal', which is a euphemism for being fat. The following table portrays the five Arabic translations of the excerpt and the devices used in each of them:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>T1</th>
<th>T2</th>
<th>T3</th>
<th>T4</th>
<th>T5</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>كانت كلوفر فرساً متوسطة العمر أمهما تمر بتصرف من منتصف العمر وتستجيب إمانتها في حالة منارتها ببناء عضلاتها.</td>
<td>كانت كلوفر فرساً متوسطة العمر أمهما تمر بتصرف من منتصف العمر وتستجيب إمانتها في حالة منارتها ببناء عضلاتها.</td>
<td>كانت كلوفر فرساً متوسطة العمر أمهما تمر بتصرف من منتصف العمر وتستجيب إمانتها في حالة منارتها ببناء عضلاتها.</td>
<td>كانت كلوفر فرساً متوسطة العمر أمهما تمر بتصرف من منتصف العمر وتستجيب إمانتها في حالة منارتها ببناء عضلاتها.</td>
<td>كانت كلوفر فرساً متوسطة العمر أمهما تمر بتصرف من منتصف العمر وتستجيب إمانتها في حالة منارتها ببناء عضلاتها.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ص 13</td>
<td>ص 8</td>
<td>ص 4</td>
<td>ص 14</td>
<td>ص 8</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The Arabic translators reacted differently to the first euphemism device of overstatement, as T2 translates the overstatement literally and maintains the same euphemism device, whereas T1 and T5 removed the euphemism entirely and translated the word "stout" as (ً) (بنية - معنى: "منتصف العمر" (الكادحة). Meanwhile, as T3 and T4 eliminate the word entirely, T4 replaces it with the word (marvelous/ رائعة) that strengthens the euphemism function in the utterance. When it comes to the second euphemism device of paraphrasing, the five translators adopt a literal translation approach, maintaining the device of paraphrasing in all the Arabic translations.

F. Reversal

As a euphemism device, reversal occurs when a fairly negative word is given a more positive meaning reversing its sense as in 'genius' for 'stupid' and 'crazy' for 'creative'.

**EXCEPT 19**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>English Euphemism</th>
<th>Device</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>(°) strictly voluntary, P. 47</td>
<td>Reversal</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Napoleon forces the animals to work like slaves by restricting their free time, telling them that extra work is voluntary but if one fails to participate, his ratios would be reduced to half. Napoleon gives the animals the impression that they have a "choice", claiming that their labor is entirely "voluntary", but in reality, they are forced to work. The writer uses "strictly voluntary" as a euphemism to indicate forced labor because those who would refuse to work would...
have their rations cut in half. The following table portrays the five Arabic translations of the excerpt and the devices used in each of them:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Device</th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>T1</td>
<td>reversal</td>
<td>reversal</td>
<td>reversal</td>
<td>reversal</td>
<td>reversal</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>T2</td>
<td>reversal</td>
<td>reversal</td>
<td>reversal</td>
<td>reversal</td>
<td>reversal</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>T3</td>
<td>reversal</td>
<td>reversal</td>
<td>reversal</td>
<td>reversal</td>
<td>reversal</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>T4</td>
<td>reversal</td>
<td>reversal</td>
<td>reversal</td>
<td>reversal</td>
<td>reversal</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>T5</td>
<td>reversal</td>
<td>reversal</td>
<td>reversal</td>
<td>reversal</td>
<td>reversal</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

All the Arabic translators use the same euphemistic device of ‘reversal’. Although all of the translators use different variations of the word (مظهرة, T2 adds (By free choice/، مظهرة الخريزة الخير) while T1 and T5 add ( Completely volunteer work/، مظهرة الخريزة تمامًا) to augment the euphemism construction.

G. New Device

Using Warren’s terms, the device in the following excerpt is a new device that is not included in the 1992 model. It employs more of a circumlocutory style to increase the euphemistic effect. In other words, if the number of words is increased not to mitigate the negative senses but rather to express the meaning in a more euphemistic way, then it can be called ‘Overstatement Paraphrasing’.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Device</th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Overstatement Paraphrasing</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

This text occurs at the outset of novel when Old Major gathers the farm animals in the barn to share his strange dream with them. The writer describes him as overweight and obese, then softened this by adding the euphemistic expression: "(...) but was still a majestic-looking pig, with a wise and benevolent appearance”.

The following table illustrates the five Arabic translations and the devices used in each of them:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Device</th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>T1</td>
<td>Overstatement</td>
<td>Paraphrasing</td>
<td>Overstatement</td>
<td>Paraphrasing</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>T2</td>
<td>Paraphrasing</td>
<td>Paraphrasing</td>
<td>Overstatement</td>
<td>Paraphrasing</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>T3</td>
<td>Paraphrasing</td>
<td>Overstatement</td>
<td>Overstatement</td>
<td>Paraphrasing</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>T4</td>
<td>Paraphrasing</td>
<td>Overstatement</td>
<td>Paraphrasing</td>
<td>Overstatement</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>T5</td>
<td>Paraphrasing</td>
<td>Overstatement</td>
<td>Paraphrasing</td>
<td>Overstatement</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Checking the five Arabic translations, it is found that all the translators follow the same technique used by the writer, which is equally euphemistic: redirecting the reader’s mind towards the positive attributes of Old Major. In real life, this technique is very similar to ‘a slap followed by a kiss’. However, it is worth mentioning that the word “pig” in Arabic has a more negative connotation, compared to its negative sense in English. In this regard, Ilyas (2013) maintains that in the translation of literary texts, prominence should be given to connotation, especially in connotative-charged texts. Although all the Arabic translators mitigated the negative connotative-charged senses by adding several positive words into the text, the Arabic word "خنزير " in the text violates the primary goal of an overstatement.

VI. DISCUSSION

This section has two folds: the first is statistical and the second is dedicated to interpreting the findings of the analysis to answer the two research questions. Statistically, the analysis shows that “Understatement” as a euphemism device occurs seven times representing 35% of the occurrences of euphemism in the novel, while the five translators maintain the same euphemism device all the time. Furthermore, “Overstatement” occurs four times in the novel, representing a percentage of 20% of all euphemisms. The five translators rendered overstatement 18 times using overstatement in Arabic, while overstatement is translated in a different way only two times, T2 omits the utterance once and T4 renders the utterance using the paraphrasing device. The euphemism device "Metonymy" is employed four times, accounting for 20 % of the devices used in the ST. It has been rendered with metonymy in the Arabic translations, indicating that it is a shared property by both languages for the innovation of euphemism. Nonetheless, the device of "Implication" is used twice accounting for 10% of the ST devices. In the Arabic translations, it is noted that while T3 omits the device entirely, ignoring the utterances, T2 renders the device once as an equivalent TL implication and omits the utterance in the second occurrence. All the other translators render implication in SL as implication in TL. In addition, “Paraphrasing” occurs once as a euphemism device, accounting for 5% of all the occurrences in the ST. All the translators render this device as paraphrasing in the TT. The same applies also to the device of “Reversal”, which occurs once representing 5% of the occurrences in the ST. Reversal is also translated into Arabic using the reversal device, without any exception. “Overstatement Paraphrasing” is a new device that occurs only once, accounting for 5% of the occurrences in the ST. It is also translated into Arabic by all the translators using the same device in the TL.

Table 3 below shows the euphemism devices, number of occurrences in the ST, and how they are translated into Arabic:

Table 3 below shows the euphemism devices, number of occurrences in the ST, and how they are translated into Arabic:
Although there are 20 cases of euphemism in the ST, the analysis shows that the percentage of literal translations of these cases is 95% in the five translations, which means that literal translation is adopted in 95 cases, omission in 4 and changing the device from overstatement to paraphrasing only once. Table 4 below portrays the number and percentage of the occurrences of the euphemism devices in the ST and the percentage of literal translation for each device.

Table 3: Euphemism Devices in ST and TT

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>DEVICE</th>
<th>ST</th>
<th>T1</th>
<th>T2</th>
<th>T3</th>
<th>T4</th>
<th>T5</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Understatement</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Overstatement</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>3 + Omission</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>3 + Paraphrasing</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Metonymy</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Implication</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>1 + Omission</td>
<td>2 Omissions</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Paraphrasing</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Reversal</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Overstatement</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Paraphrasing</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 2 answers the first research question of this study. The second research question is: How far did the five Arabic translators succeed in conveying the euphemistic purposes of the ST, and what are the euphemism formation procedures used in their translations? After the analysis of the excerpts, the answer to this question rings a bell as summarized in the following points:

1- The translators tend to adopt a literal translation approach in most of the cases (95%), which highlights the universality of the phenomenon of euphemism, despite the cultural and linguistic differences between English and Arabic. While English and Arabic share the most common features of euphemism, according to Galal (2014), the two languages also differ in terms of emphasis and details. This difference can be barely felt in the Arabic translations, which rings a bell on the level of freedom a translator enjoys when translating a literary work.

2- The literal translation approach adopted by the five translators may be due to the effect of the English text on the translators. Zauberga (2005) argues that when cultures interact, translators tend to favor the major culture; this claim is augmented by the fact that the Arabic translators are working on a text written by a prominent novelist like Orwell. This rings another bell on the level of freedom the translator may have when tackling a prominent literary work.

3- Connotation is paramount in meaning, as euphemism entails terms that have different connotations in different languages, and this also rings another bell. For example, when Orwell selects pigs to be the leaders of the animals, the connotation of 'pig' in English and Arabic is different, although both languages use the word pig as an insult. In this regard, Mateo and Yus (2013) state that insults evolve through a connotative layer, i.e., a 'pig' denotes an animal but connotes being dirty and untidy, and meanwhile it is used metaphorically to refer to dirty manners. In Arabic, a pig is an animal that is prohibited to eat, from an Islamic perspective, and the Arabic name “خنزير”/خنازير/خنزيرات is used as an insult, with sexual and filthy connotations. Looking at the selection of pigs as the leaders in his allegorical satire, Orwell ridicules the three leaders of communism (animalism in the novel) and portrays them as stupid and greedy. On the other hand, in most Arabic-speaking countries, farms do not have pigs, but they have all the other animals mentioned in the novel. Instead, farms in the Arab world have donkeys, which have a connotation of stupidity in Arabic. Therefore, a suggested euphemism for 'pig' in Animal Farm can be 'donkey', as an adaptation technique, which may serve the same allegorical goals of the novel. In literature, the sky is the limit; by proxy, literary translation should have a wide margin of creativity, providing that the translated text remains faithful to the original idea.

4- In Excerpts 13 to 15, it is noted that all the translations ignore the nature of the language of the slogans, as they are written to be chanted. While the slogans are connected and evolve as the story develops, consistency of the wordings should be observed. The following table portrays suggested translations:

Table 4: Euphemism Devices: Occurrences and Literal Translation

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Sr.</th>
<th>Device</th>
<th># of Occurrences in ST</th>
<th>% of Occurrences in ST</th>
<th>% of Literal Translation</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>Understatement</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>35%</td>
<td>100%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>Overstatement</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>20%</td>
<td>90%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>Metonymy</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>20%</td>
<td>100%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4</td>
<td>Implication</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>10%</td>
<td>70%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5</td>
<td>Paraphrasing</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>5%</td>
<td>100%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6</td>
<td>Reversal</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>5%</td>
<td>100%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7</td>
<td>Overstatement</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>5%</td>
<td>100%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Paraphrasing</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td></td>
<td>20</td>
<td>100%</td>
<td>95%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
5- In Excerpt 18 that combines 2 euphemism devices, namely overstatement and paraphrasing, it is noted that the five translators render the device of paraphrasing literally, while they render overstatement in different ways, ranging from maintaining the overstatement device to omission. Unfortunately, there is no other example of using more than one device in the same utterance to verify that having more than one euphemistic device may free the translators from the literal approach.

6- In his 1992 model, Warren defines 8 categories of semantic innovation, namely: particularization, implication, metonymy, metaphor, reversal, understatement, overstatement, and paraphrasing. In the novel, there is no use of particularization and metaphor as euphemism devices, while the other 6 categories are used. In addition, there is one case of a device that is not classified as one of the eight devices, and therefore the researchers define it and call it “Overstatement Paraphrasing”, which is a new category.

VII. CONCLUSION

This study investigates the processes used by George Orwell in the formation of euphemism in Animal Farm and examines how far five Arabic translators who have different nationalities with noticeable differences in their styles succeed in conveying the euphemistic purposes of the ST, and the euphemism formation procedures used in their translations. Because of its revolutionary nature that is more likely to use blunt language instead of evasive language, we could only trace twenty expressions of euphemism, and classified them based on Warren’s 1992 model. The data confirm that euphemistic or dysphemistic meanings are relative classifications that can only be considered euphemistic, neutral or dysphemistic based on their contexts. Moreover, in spite of the common belief that literary translation tends to be mostly free, literal translation at this micro level of the text proved to accurately express the intended meanings of the euphemistic expressions. This conclusion may partially be generalized to recommend literal translation to be tested as a strategy for the rendering of other figurative expressions. Literally translated euphemisms, if accepted by users and widely used in the media and published translations, they are likely to become calques over time and find their way into the lexical corpus of the target language. Moreover, English and Arabic are found to employ exactly the same devices ranging from maintaining the overstatement device to omission. Unfortunately, there is no other example of using more than one device in the same utterance to verify that having more than one euphemistic device may free the translators from the literal approach.

The researchers recommend conducting similar studies on several language pairs, including English-Arabic, to verify the findings of this study regarding the literal translation of euphemism, and to concur the hypothesis of the universality of euphemism.

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REFERENCES


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Time Allocation Effect on Test Scores for Academic Writing of Indonesian English Learners

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Abstract—It is widely known that test takers with a more extended time allotment in IELTS can perform better in the writing portion than those with a lower time allotment. The most compelling argument for test providers to limit test administration time, particularly for academic writing activities, is practicality. This article assesses how the time allotted differently of 30 or 50 minutes affects the writing skills of English learners and that the time allotted for the IELTS test is confirmed as the most efficient. The test takers’ writing was evaluated using a variety of measures in this study. An interview was also conducted to unveil their experiences related to the time allotment. The findings reveal improved writing skills in terms of fluency when a lengthier (30-minute) time limit was given. Complexity is also enhanced, and the learners are difficult to conclude. The learners’ results could vary due to the two-timing conditions; they believe in performing better under the extended time allotment.

Index Terms—argumentative academic essay, time allocation, writing skill, discourse measure

I. INTRODUCTION

It is acceptable that students' competency and performance in educational settings are generally measured by a test of at least two items. A competence test reveals learners' ability to work out a task correctly (Arafah et al., 2020; Kaharuddin et al., 2020). It assesses the ability or skills of learners in choosing the correct response from a set of possible reactions. This kind of test includes multiple-choice, true-false, and matching items. A performance test is about the learners' capacity to achieve something by utilizing their knowledge (Arafah & Hasyim, 2019; Anggrawan et al., 2019; Fadillah et al., 2022). It assesses the ability of learners to construct their responses, such as a test in an essay or short answer items. Many standardized examinations use the second type of test, particularly essay tests (Lovett et al., 2010; Hasjim et al., 2020), which is more commonly utilized rather than multiple-choice. However, it is limited by time (Powers, 2005; Purwaningsih et al., 2020; Mutmainnah et al., 2022), which considerably may affect the learners’ opportunity to finish their essays with more sentences. The number of inputs that can be written through the test taker's interpretation contains relevant local cultural messages associated with the society in which he/she lives (Arafah & Hasyim, 2023a; Arafah et al., 2023; Suhadi et al., 2022). It could be an attempt to express local values in writing. It should be noted that it can be poured into various sectors, including written text (Arifin et al., 2022). In this case, the language used becomes meaningful and informative for learners to improve their skills in writing (Kuswanty et al., 2023). This fact may also impact the learners' scores due to the amount of text submitted, which is substantially connected with the length and quality of their essays (Hopkins, 1998; Powers, 2005; Gregg et al., 2007; Lovett et al., 2010). Learners nowadays have become more active through the internet, and they can also improve their academic or vocational skills using digital media by reading, understanding, and evaluating various information and then trying to...
write what they have learnt (Arafah & Hasyim, 2023b). The rapid expansion of technology is responsible for the ease of use of the internet by learners to seek knowledge online (Hasyim & Arafah, 2023a).

An essay is expected to be intellectual. Language style, figurative language, symbols, and signs are not required, mainly when the text contains many uncertain terms that must be interpreted further using semiotics, such as metaphors (Asriyanti et al., 2022; Baa et al., 2023; Hasyim & Arafah, 2023b). When the text is literary, the language style is part of the aesthetic component (Manugeren et al., 2023; Yudith et al., 2023). In this writing, words and symbols are frequently interpreted into explicit and implicit meanings (Iksoa et al., 2022; Siwi et al., 2022). Sometimes, some words are difficult to understand as they can cause multi-interpretations depending on the readers (Asri et al., 2023). Cultural features and meaningful signs and symbols of objects, events, and others can be found in many works of literature (Takwa et al., 2022; Takwa et al., 2022). Because an author's imagination performs literary labour, it is classified as a fictional text in which reality is false (Sunyoto et al., 2022). However, writing an essay is part of an educational system that must be completed with much care in the hope that the text examiner understands and offers the best test score.

Standardized essay assessments have a relatively low time limit, usually about 10 or 15 minutes (Lovett et al., 2010; Hasyim et al., 2020; Yuliandi et al., 2022). Reduced time allotment will allow the testees to administrate and evaluate the exam more practically. Writing solutions should be used to address the issue that test takers encounter when writing with limited time (Arnawa & Arafah, 2023). They are eager to complete the test by practising writing (Mokoginta & Arafah, 2022). Furthermore, educators must adapt to the optimal time allocation adjustment that test takers require (Arafah et al., 2023). However, it has been questioned whether lower time allotments provide the testees ample time and the chance to perform their aptitude of writing naturally. Surprisingly, a more in-depth study has yet to be undertaken to explicitly assess the time allocation effect on the writing skill of the testees. Some academics tend to determine how much test scores result from working rapidly (Lovett et al., 2010). This study is conducted to investigate quantitatively the effect of the 30- and 50-minute timing condition on the testees’ accomplishment revealed by the scores they got on a test of argumentative academic writing and to describe the viewpoint of the testees related to the two conditions of time allotted. Therefore, two problems are considered. The first relates to whether or not the learners’ scores in writing alter between the two conditions, and the second relates to their perception of the two-timing conditions.

II. REVIEW OF LITERATURE

Biola (1982) conducted one of the first researches that evaluated the students’ competence in working out argumentative writing tasks in the allotted time. The research in the form of an argumentative writing task was carried out on 96 university students with time allotted 45 to 120 minutes. The findings were that the students given more time performed significantly better than those with less time. The topics assigned to the students were controlled. A conclusion was drawn that the restriction of two-hour time allowed all students equally to perform well in writing.

Powers and Fowless (1996) conducted the same research topic by assigning a writing task of two essays to 304 students. The time was limited to 30 minutes and 60 minutes. The finding was that giving extra time to students enabled them to produce better writing output. Meanwhile, the examinees preferred to be given extra time over the allotted time. A more recent study by Lu (2011) demonstrated that testees could create more sophisticated argumentative essays with no time allotment rather than time allotment. A corpus-based analysis examined 3,678 essays written by undergraduate students from nine institutions.

Elder et al. (2009) found that learners showed high mean scores on the test of the argumentative essay when the time was allotted 55 minutes (long) and 30 minutes (short) for doing the test in which the fluency, content, and form of the writings were items to be measured. There were differences but not statistically significant, leading the authors to conclude that decreasing the time allotment has no significant effect on the learners’ academic competence in writing argumentative essays.

Kroll (1990) evaluated 100 essays writing produced by 25 students. He discovered that the essays written at home for 10-14 days were higher overall mean scores in syntactic and global-level holistic than those written in class for 60 minutes. However, both scores differed in minimal or no statistically significant that the two temporal circumstances significantly affect students' competence in writing essays. Caudery (1990) found no significant variations in the writing performance of 24 adolescent pupils who wrote argumentative essays with time restricted and unrestricted related to the language and organization metrics and total scores.

Knoch and Elder (2009) recently explored the effect of the time allotment of 30 and 55 minutes on students’ writing of argumentative essays. They demonstrated that students performed better in writing fluency, substance, scores of forms, and the overall score if more time was given. However, the reported differences were statistically insignificant. When the discourse was thoroughly analyzed, the students were revealed to produce more words in a more prolonged time, showing that students need more time to produce more fluent writing. The other variables, accuracy, complexity, and cohesiveness, gave the students less time allowance and an advantage. Knoch and Elder also investigated the examinee's views and discovered that the students need more time to plan and revise on writing.

III. RESEARCH METHOD

Participant
Four participants, two males and two females aged 22 to 28 years old, handed over eight writings. Three of them, learners 1, 2 and 4, had completed Bachelor's degrees. They took the official test of IELTS and received scores of 5.5, 5.5 and 6.5, respectively. Learner 2 took the IELTS test twice, and she got a score of 6.5 on the first test. Another learner, learner 3, was still in the last semester and had to take the official test. He had already taken a practical test as part of the IELTS course and got an overall band score of 5.5 with a writing section band score of 6.0. (Table 1 shows the specific details for each participant).

**TABLE 1**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Participant</th>
<th>Sex</th>
<th>Age</th>
<th>IELTS Writing Score</th>
<th>IELTS Overall Score</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Learner 1</td>
<td>Female</td>
<td>25</td>
<td>5.5</td>
<td>6.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Learner 2</td>
<td>Female</td>
<td>22</td>
<td>5.5/6.5</td>
<td>6.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Learner 3</td>
<td>Male</td>
<td>22</td>
<td>6.0</td>
<td>5.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Learner 4</td>
<td>Male</td>
<td>28</td>
<td>6.5</td>
<td>6.0</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Instruments**

Two writing tasks were used: argumentative essays about technology to ensure the two variables, topic and genre, were controlled. An argumentative essay is a type of writing in which students must discuss a topic while establishing their point of view (Ismail et al., 2020; Arafah & Hasyim, 2022; Kaharuddin et al., 2022). The time limit for Assignment 1 was 30 minutes, and Assignment 2's was 50 minutes. Students were instructed to write an essay with at least 200 words for each. An example of a writing task is presented below:

**TASK 1**

You should spend 30 minutes on this task.

Some people are concerned that technology improvements, such as cell phones, would cause people to become less socially engaged.

How much do you agree or disagree?

To assist you in answering the questions, you should clarify your rationale and offer relevant examples from your expertise or experience.

Please write a minimum of 200 words.

**Interview:** After completing the two tasks, each participant was given a semi-structured telephone interview. The semi-structured interview gathers data by asking open-ended questions within a predetermined topic framework (Sunardi et al., 2018; Abidin & Kaharuddin, 2021; Arafah et al., 2021). Participants were polled on whether they thought of having enough time to finish the tasks. They were also instructed to plan and revise the difficulty or differences in the task or topic and perception related to the two-time constraints. The interview in Indonesia was intended to ensure that the participants provided complete responses. The questions proposed in the interview are as follows:

1. How can you explain the differences between the two topics?
2. (How do you balance the two tasks given the time difference?)
3. How do you manage your time to visit two different locations on time? (Do you have enough time to do both tasks?)
4. What steps do you use to plan/brainstorm before beginning a task?
5. (Do you make a plan for both activities before you begin writing?)
6. How do you intend to revisit your thesis?
7. (Do you revise/proofread/edit after completing the task?)
8. What makes top Kenya the same or different?
9. (Regarding the topic, how did you find both tasks?)

**IV. DATA ANALYSIS**

**Measures based on discourse analysis:** All essays were coded for various quantitative linguistic metrics, including T-units and clause-based accuracy, fluency, and grammatical complexity (Arafah & Kaharuddin, 2019; Arafah et al., 2020; Afiah et al., 2022). The coding scheme by Cummings et al. (2005) was used in terms of T-units and phrases. The T-unit with the dependent clause(s) is an independent clause in this context. The clause includes independent and dependent clauses (adverbial, relative, and nominal).

The number of words (W) and T-units (T) were used as fluency measures (Knoch et al., 2015). The error-free T-units (EFT/T) and error-free clauses (EFC/ C) were used to assess accuracy. Grammatical complexity was gauged by the number of words used in one T-unit (W) and the number of clauses used in one T-unit (C/T).

In terms of correctness, the morphological, syntactical, and lexical faults were counted. The faults in morphology are
related to subject-verb agreement, articles, and tenses. The faults in syntax are about the missing parts of a sentence and the word order. The fault in lexis is word choice. Meanwhile, spelling and punctuation errors were not considered in this counting.

**Criteria for IELTS evaluation:** IELTS Task 2 for writing band descriptors (public version) and discourse-analytic metrics were applied to assess the students' essays. The aspects in the essay to measure were task achievement, coherence and cohesion, lexical resource, and grammatical range and accuracy.

**The interview was semi-structured:** The results were summarized by examining the emerging themes. Students' perceptions about whether the time was appropriately allotted to finish the tasks and how the variables affected their planning and revising were carefully separated into categories.

### V. RESULTS

**Students' scores in writing tasks with 50 minutes and 30-minute time allotment**

Before this research result presentation is to affirm the first research question to be answered: "Do students' writing task scores differ between the 50 and the 30-minute times' allotment?" In this regard, the student's scores in writing tasks with the 50- and 30-minute time allotment were revealed by employing discourse measures to compare the participants' results in the two-time settings. The descriptive findings for the examination of fluency at 30 and 50 minutes are shown in Table 2. The data stated that the number of words on average and the T-units increased somewhat under the protracted condition. As a result, students can write longer essays in the allotted 50 minutes.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Measure</th>
<th>Time allotted</th>
<th>Student 1</th>
<th>Student 2</th>
<th>Student 3</th>
<th>Student 4</th>
<th>Overall mean</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Total words (W)</strong></td>
<td>50 mins</td>
<td>358</td>
<td>165</td>
<td>165</td>
<td>222</td>
<td>227.25</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>T-units (T) Count</strong></td>
<td>50 mins</td>
<td>337</td>
<td>198</td>
<td>222</td>
<td>261.5</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Words per T</strong></td>
<td>30 mins</td>
<td>271</td>
<td>308</td>
<td>165</td>
<td>165</td>
<td>17.76</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 3 displays the students' accuracy and overall mean scores across the two-time allotments. The comparison of the mean score revealed a decrease in the percentage of error-free T-units and clauses. As a result, despite the longer time limit, the students still needed improvement in the accuracy of their essays.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Measure</th>
<th>Time allotted</th>
<th>Student 1</th>
<th>Student 2</th>
<th>Student 3</th>
<th>Student 4</th>
<th>Overall mean</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>T-unit ratio with no errors (EFT/T)</strong></td>
<td>50 mins</td>
<td>31%</td>
<td>29%</td>
<td>22%</td>
<td>33%</td>
<td>29%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Error-free clause ratio (EFC/C)</strong></td>
<td>50 mins</td>
<td>41%</td>
<td>64%</td>
<td>43%</td>
<td>65%</td>
<td>53%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 4 shows how the complexity metrics produced a different picture. The table demonstrates that, in general, the average of both measurements, words per T-units and clauses for the T-unit ratio, has increased slightly.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Measure</th>
<th>Time Allotted</th>
<th>Student 1</th>
<th>Student 2</th>
<th>Student 3</th>
<th>Student 4</th>
<th>Overall mean</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Words per T-units (W/T)</strong></td>
<td>50 mins</td>
<td>20.85</td>
<td>18.12</td>
<td>18.33</td>
<td>13.75</td>
<td>17.76</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Clauses per T-unit ratio (C/T)</strong></td>
<td>50 mins</td>
<td>17</td>
<td>17.74</td>
<td>22</td>
<td>15.86</td>
<td>18.15</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

So far, the findings reveal that each student used more words under the time allotment of 50 minutes, and the composition was grammatically more sophisticated. However, there was a modest drop in the accuracy as measured by the error-free T-units and phrases, as shown in Table 3.
The analytic rating scale of IELTS for writing task 2 (public version) was applied to assess the students’ band scores in task achievement, coherence and cohesion, lexical resource, grammatical range and accuracy, and the average writing scores the students could get in completing the writing task 2 with long and short-time allotment. Table 5 denoted that the student's overall scores in task achievement were half a band higher for the 50-minute time allotment. However, the coherence, cohesion, grammatical range, and accuracy scores were half a band lower for the more extended time allotment. The lexical resource band scores were steady. The overall score in the average writing scores confirms no variations in the participants' overall band scores under the allotment of the two-time conditions.

Alloting 50 minutes to students to work out their writing task of essay enables them to produce more grammatically - albeit marginally - complicated essays. In addition, they could satisfy the task achievement criteria. However, along with the increasing time allotment, the student's essays needed more consistency, coherence, cohesion, and lexical resource. Research indicated no variations in the total band scores of participants revealed by the IELTS scale in overall mean under the two-time allotted. In this case, the time allotment of 30 and 50 minutes shows no significant differences.

Students’ perception of the two-time allotment

The second research question was, "How do the students perceive the differences between the two-times allotment?" This problem would be answered by asking whether the students have enough time to finish the writing task, including their planning, revising, task or topic difficulty or differences, and perception of the two times allotment.

Time-limited: The students were given limited time to complete writing an essay with at least 200 words. One student (student 2) could finish the task after 30 minutes and used 308 words above the instructed word amount. The student stated that she must be made aware of using such words in her essay. Therefore, the students could finish writing an essay within the time allotted and the word amount required.

Planning: Students stated that they made plans for each activity but reported various preparation methods due to different times allotted. Student 1 stated she thought Task 1 differed from Task 2. She could only prepare the critical subjects in a short time frame, whereas in a lengthy time frame, she could prepare the primary concepts and supporting elements. Similarly, student 3 acknowledged spending more time thinking of more precise ideas within the more extended time limit.

Student 2 indicated that she needed less time to plan for Task 2 than Students 1 and 3 because the topics were comparable. Student 4 also mentioned that the two different time conditions should have influenced his plan. His preparation for both job circumstances was the same. As a result, the results demonstrate that students' planning altered due to different times allotted.

Revising: Students 1 and 2 required more extra time to make revisions. They assumed the time was allotted shorter. Student 4, on the other hand, stated that he could do each job in under 30 minutes, providing him enough time for revision. Student 3, on the other hand, needed more time to revise; nonetheless. He stated that the time to revise his writing in Task 1 was shorter since it was longer to revise Task 2.

Overall opinion. Two students reported performing substantially better in writing essays under the 50-minute condition. Student 2 claimed she wrote better over the extended period because she needed 30 minutes to complete her writing essay. Similarly, student three was convinced he could produce a better writing essay over an extended period because he had more time to plan and revise.

Surprisingly, student 1 found Task 2 more difficult due to the topic difference; for her, the time limitation was not a problem, but it was the topic she believed could affect her writing essays. Finally, student 4 indicated that the different time constraints did not substantially affect the quality of his writing essay because he could complete both tasks in under 30 minutes.

VI. DISCUSSION

Whether or not the different time allotment of 30 minutes and 50 minutes for completing a task of writing academic argumentative essays affects students' writing performance, the study reveals that the overall IELTS writing scores the students have do not show any significant difference in their scores. It means that the time allotments do not significantly affect the students’ writing performance. It is congruent with research findings by Caudery (1990), Elder et al. (2009), Knoch and Elder (2009), and Kroll (1990), who found marginal score variations in essay assignments under different time allotments. Therefore, the research findings contradicted those of Biola (1982), Lu (2011), and Powers and Fowlless (1996).

However, after examining the more specific data of the IELTS rating scale and the discourse measures, the students with the longer time allowance were discovered to appear to improve task accomplishment ratings by half a band. Student's fluency (as judged by multiple words and T-units) and complexity (as measured by words per T-units and sentences per T-unit ratio) also improved.

For the improved fluency performance, the current findings correspond to the study of Knoch and Elder (2009), who found that participants' scores under the more prolonged time (55 minutes) were statistically significantly better than those under the shorter time (30 minutes). However, to account for the somewhat higher grammatical complexity scores, this study had to be compatible with Knoch and Elder (2009), who demonstrated the lower score of participants under the more prolonged time condition. Thus, the current study on complexity may confirm the findings of Lu (2001), who found that students scored higher on complexity under untimed test conditions.
Consistent with earlier research (e.g., Knoch & Elder, 2009; Powers & Fowlless, 1996), the study also demonstrated that students preferred more time allotted for writing essays since it provided more opportunities to make plans and modification opportunities. Although research has revealed that examinees prefer a more time allotment, no studies have proven that such perceptions alter their performance outcomes.

VII. CONCLUSION

In academic writing competence, the students perform similarly under the time setting of 50 minutes and 30 minutes based on the discourse metrics and rating scale of IELTS. However, the students’ scores in fluency improved under the condition of a more prolonged time. Complexity rises but is marginal, making it difficult to make conclusions. In addition to the minor variations in their results, the participants were sure and believed in having created high-quality essays when extra time was given.

REFERENCES


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The Interplay Between L2 Motivation and Proficiency in Predicting EFL Learners’ Pragmatic Engagement

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Abstract—Drawing on self-determination theory and L2 pragmatics, this study scrutinizes how two motivational dimensions (autonomous and controlled) can affect EFL learners’ behavioral engagement in learning pragmatics across various English proficiency levels. One hundred ninety-eight Saudi EFL learners were surveyed for their English proficiency level, L2 motivation, and pragmatic engagement. The findings revealed an overall significant positive correlation between EFL learners’ L2 motivation and pragmatic engagement. Autonomous and controlled motivations were significantly and positively correlated with pragmatic engagement among all the English proficiency groups. Learners with advanced proficiency exhibited significantly higher correlations than their counterparts, indicating that L2 motivation mediated by proficiency predicted pragmatic engagement. Learners with higher levels of English proficiency were more sensitive to the pragmatic aspects of the language and, therefore, more motivated toward active engagement in pragmatically oriented contexts than intermediate and upper-intermediate learners.

Index Terms—autonomous motivation, controlled motivation, L2 motivation, pragmatic engagement, self-determination theory

I. INTRODUCTION

There is a consensus among L2 pragmatics researchers that foreign language (FL) learners do not acquire pragmatic competence in an identical manner. This variability can be attributed to documented evidence wherein researchers have examined the interrelationship between learners’ variables, contextual factors, and the development of pragmatic abilities (Taguchi et al., 2022). Factors such as gender and cognitive abilities (e.g., Malmir & Derakhshan, 2020), motivation, (e.g., Zhang & Papi, 2021), personality (e.g., Taguchi, 2019), proficiency (e.g., Sağdıç, 2021), and aptitude (e.g., Derakhshan & Malmir, 2021) play a significant role, particularly among “participants within the same physical context, [or] over the same period” (Taguchi & Roever, 2017, p. 209), in providing fundamental insights into how pragmatic aspects are observed and acquired within EFL contexts.

A substantial body of research on individual factors affecting L2 pragmatics has predominantly focused on the impact of proficiency on second language learning. However, research investigating other factors, such as motivation, is limited (Khansir & Pakdel, 2021; Takahashi, 2015; Takahashi, 2019; Taguchi, 2019). These studies generally indicate that L2 learners who are intrinsically motivated and have a stronger communication-oriented motivation are more likely to achieve superior pragmatic competence. Despite these studies suggesting a role for motivation in L2 pragmatic competence, the influence of autonomous and controlled motivations on learners’ pragmatic competence remains underexplored. In fact, motivation has often been utilized as a post hoc explanation for inconsistencies and mixed findings in the levels of L2 pragmatics literature among learners (Zhang & Papi, 2021), rather than being acknowledged as a crucial factor in learners’ development of L2 competence. Another key factor in predicting interlanguage pragmatic (ILP) development is engagement. However, research on this factor is relatively scarce, both in the broader context of Second Language Acquisition (SLA) (Henry & Thorsen, 2020; Mercer, 2019) and specifically in the area of interlanguage pragmatics (Sanjaya et al., 2022). How various individual factors might interact to predict L2 pragmatic learning is also under-studied (Taguchi & Roever, 2017). This underscores the need for further exploration of these factors to better understand their role in language learning and pragmatic development.

Consequently, this study aims to address the research gap by examining the interplay among three learner-related factors—proficiency, motivation, and engagement—in the process of pragmatic learning among EFL learners. Specifically, this research investigates the extent to which L2 motivation, as mediated by different proficiency groups, may influence L2 pragmatic engagement. It also explores whether autonomous and controlled motivations serve as indicators of pragmatic engagement in EFL environments. By doing so, the study enriches the L2 pragmatic literature, providing evidence-based insights into how proficiency and motivational regulations (both autonomous and controlled) correlate and interact as indicators of behavioral engagement in L2 pragmatic learning.
II. LITERATURE REVIEW

The SLA literature indicates that learner-related factors and individual differences are among the most significant factors affecting students’ L2 performance, including L2 pragmatics. Proficiency has long been documented as a determinant in the acquisition and development of L2 pragmatics. Proficiency refers to an individual's overall competence in the target language (in this study, English), encompassing both organizational and pragmatic knowledge. The former involves the knowledge required to organize utterances or sentences and texts (i.e., lexical and grammatical knowledge), whereas the latter pertains to the knowledge required to utilize sentences and texts appropriately in a given situation (Bachman & Palmer, 1996). Language proficiency is typically assessed using standardized tests, course or grade levels, length of formal instruction, and period of residence in the target language community ( Sağdıç, 2021). For reliability purposes, standardized tests (e.g., TOEFL, IELTS) and course or grade levels are deemed more reliable indicators of proficiency than other means of language assessment. This is because these tests provide a basis for comparison among test takers, and course/grade levels are often based on a systematic evaluation within a course or program (Ren et al., 2022). The current study uses standardized tests to determine EFL learners' proficiency levels.

The focus on proficiency originates from the assumption that general proficiency is a prerequisite for pragmatic competence (see Taguchi et al., 2022). That is, learning L2 pragmatics requires learners to attain a certain level of proficiency. This implies a positive proficiency effect on L2 pragmatic performance, a finding supported by several empirical studies across proficiency levels (e.g., Sağdıç, 2021). Notably, however, previous research comparing L2 learners across proficiency levels with native speakers has demonstrated that higher proficiency does not necessarily result in native-like pragmatic performance (e.g., Kang et al., 2019). For a more comprehensive understanding of how proficiency influences L2 pragmatics, this study examines whether proficiency affects the quality of L2 motivation and, therefore, fosters pragmatic engagement among varying proficiency groups.

Motivation has also been featured as one of the factors affecting SLA, including the development of L2 pragmatics (Zarrinabadi et al., 2022). However, there have been studies examining the interplay between motivation and L2 pragmatic learning (Taguchi & Roever, 2017), focusing primarily on its effect on pragmalinguistic awareness (Takahashi, 2012, 2015; Tagashira et al., 2011) and pragmatic production (Khansir & Pakdel, 2021). For instance, pioneering work on motivation in ILP by Takahashi (2012, 2015) reported a strong correlation between pragmatic awareness and learners' motivation, particularly intrinsic motivation, but not between pragmatic awareness and proficiency. Tateyama (2001) further confirmed that highly motivated Japanese FL learners demonstrated better performance in pragmatic role-plays by producing the Japanese routine formula “sumimasen”. Arabmofrad et al. (2019) investigated the interplay between Iranian EFL learners' specific and general ILP motivation and meta-pragmatic awareness. They found a significantly positive relationship between meta-pragmatic awareness and sub-constructs of pragmatic motivation. Drawing on self-determination theory (SDT) (Ryan & Deci, 2017, 2020) in ILP research, Tagashira, Yamato, and Isoda (2011) systematically examined L2 learners' motivation, focusing on various intrinsic and extrinsic motivations. They found that EFL learners' motivational profiles affected their pragmatic awareness and that those with higher self-regulation were more likely to recognize pragmatic errors.

Student engagement is a critical aspect in understanding how students respond to the teaching-learning process. It plays a pivotal role in shaping their academic experience. To investigate the connection between student engagement and second language (L2) motivation, especially in the context of pragmatic learning, the present study employs the SDT as an overarching framework. According to SDT, three fundamental psychological needs drive human behavior: competence, relatedness, and autonomy. The degree to which these needs are fulfilled or impeded influences the type of motivational regulation people exhibit, consequently shaping their level of engagement in L2 learning. Motivational regulations fall on a continuum of self-determination, including intrinsic, integrated, identified, introjected, external regulation, and amotivation (Ryan & Deci, 2017, 2020). Empirical investigations in second language acquisition (SLA) have classified these five motivational regulations into two major categories: autonomous motivation (including intrinsic, integrated, and identified regulations) and controlled motivation (encompassing introjected and external regulations) (Alamer, 2021). Autonomous motivation is driven by states of interest where the primary “reward” is the immediate feelings of accomplishment and pleasure associated with a behavior. In contrast, controlled motivation is driven by “externally imposed rewards” (Ryan & Deci, 2017, p. 14) or penalties. Ample research in general education has shown that autonomous and controlled motivations significantly contribute to academic success (Bureau et al., 2022; Mouratidis et al., 2021). However, there is a paucity of research on the impact of these motivational regulations on SLA, particularly L2 pragmatics. By examining these factors, this study aims to provide valuable insights into the dynamics of L2 motivation and engagement in pragmatic learning settings.

Similar to motivation, the concept of engagement as an individual factor is becoming increasingly prevalent in SLA research due to its potential to deepen our understanding of language learning (Henry & Thorsen, 2020). It also has a well-documented impact on student achievement (Brutt-Griffler & Jang, 2022; Skinner, 2016) and is notably malleable, making it conducive to pedagogical interventions and instructional practices (Fredricks et al., 2019; Skinner, 2016). Moreover, engagement is a meta-construct that encompasses cognitive, behavioral, social, and emotional involvement by learners in meaningful L2 learning activities. These activities occur in either formal or informal settings and are directed at mastering a second language over an extended period (Hiver et al., 2021). Ideally, learners should maintain control over their learning process, devote their energy and attention to the L2 material, and stay emotionally and
socially committed to achieving L2 competence (Ren et al., 2022). This study focuses particularly on behavioral engagement as it pertains to L2 pragmatic learning in EFL contexts.

Student engagement, characterized by active participation in the learning environment, is a complex construct influenced by a myriad of factors spanning both educational settings and individual student characteristics. These factors include, but are not limited to, motivation, proficiency, gender, and learning style. Consequently, the outcome and degree of learners’ engagement may exhibit considerable variation across different classroom contexts (Fredricks et al., 2019). This underscores the importance of understanding the interplay between these determinants to foster a more inclusive and effective educational experience for all students. Motivation has been identified as one of the critical factors affecting engagement due to their close relation (Oga-Baldwin, 2019). According to Martin et al. (2017), motivation and engagement are two independent variables, with the former predicting the latter. Similarly, Henry (2021) viewed engagement as the behavioral outcome of motivation; thus, high levels of engagement presuppose high levels of motivation (Skinner, 2016). This perspective aligns with findings by Noels et al. (2000), who found that students who perceived language learning as personally meaningful and enjoyable were more likely to be engaged in the learning process. Moreover, Saeed and Zyngier (2012) demonstrated that learners exhibiting intrinsic or integrated regulated motivation displayed higher rates of spontaneous engagement in their academic tasks than those motivated extrinsically.

Reeve (2012) described the interplay between motivation and engagement as follows: “Motivation is a private, unobservable, psychological, neural, and biological process that serves as an antecedent cause to the publicly observable behavior, that is engagement” (p. 151). However, this interrelationship is not necessarily linear, as high levels of motivation do not always translate into high levels of engagement (Henry, 2021; Oga-Baldwin, 2019). Learners must transform this “willingness into sustained active engagement” (Mercer, 2019, p. 645) to achieve L2 learning, including L2 pragmatics. This necessitates further research on diverse educational contexts, focusing on how a variety of learner-related factors interact to predict language learning outcomes (Taguchi, 2019). Compared to motivation, there is a relative lack of research on L2 engagement, an area that remains largely unexplored, especially in relation to L2 pragmatics. Moreover, many questions regarding how various individual factors relate to each other remain unanswered.

This study aims to explore this under-researched area by investigating the extent to which the motivational dimensions (autonomous and controlled) of intermediate, upper-intermediate, and advanced EFL learners can predict behavioral engagement in L2 pragmatic learning. Therefore, it seeks to enrich the L2 pragmatic literature with evidence-based insights into the correlation between motivation and pragmatic engagement across different proficiency groups by attempting to answer the following research questions:

1. Do EFL learners at different proficiency levels exhibit variations in their L2 motivation and pragmatic engagement?
2. To what extent does EFL learners’ L2 motivation at different proficiency levels contribute to pragmatic engagement?
3. Are there significant correlations between the autonomous and controlled dimensions of L2 motivation and pragmatic engagement across different proficiency groups?

III. METHODS

A. Participants

One hundred ninety-eight Saudi female EFL students, aged between 22 and 28 years (M = 25.46), were recruited for the study. Based on their scores on the Standardized Test of English Proficiency (STEP), as presented in Table 1, the participants were divided into three proficiency groups: intermediate (n = 75), upper-intermediate (n = 75), and advanced (n = 48). They had studied English for at least nine years during their formal education before enrolling in the four-year English undergraduate program. All participants were post-graduates of Prince Sattam bin Abdelaziz University and had, therefore, studied English as a foreign language for a total of at least 14 years during their formal education. None of them reported studying in an English-speaking country.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>STEP score range</th>
<th>Proficiency level</th>
<th>No.</th>
<th>Mean</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>60–67</td>
<td>Intermediate</td>
<td>75</td>
<td>62.08</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>75–85</td>
<td>Upper-intermediate</td>
<td>75</td>
<td>80.48</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>86–97</td>
<td>Advanced</td>
<td>48</td>
<td>93.52</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

B. Instruments

Two research instruments were deployed in this study. First, a demographic survey was used to gather participants’ characteristics, including their major, gender, and age. Second, the Standardized Test of English Proficiency (STEP), a validated test structured in accordance with the Common European Framework of Reference for Languages, was used to measure English proficiency. This test is typically used for those applying for positions in education, higher education, admissions, scholarships, or other professional endeavors. The STEP consists of 100 questions that cover
reading comprehension, sentence structure, listening comprehension, and composition analysis. An online questionnaire, adopted from Sanjaya et al. (2022), was also utilized to gather data related to L2 motivation and pragmatic engagement. This questionnaire consists of 34 items, 28 of which reflect the participants' multidimensional motivations (autonomous vs. controlled) based on the SDT framework, and six items to track their level of engagement. Participants were asked to report their level of motivation and engagement on a six-point Likert scale, ranging from 1 (strongly disagree) to 6 (strongly agree). Autonomous motivation was assessed using 15 items (intrinsic motivation, \( k = 6 \); identified motivation, \( k = 9 \)), while controlled motivation was checked using 13 items (introjected motivation, \( k = 7 \); external motivation, \( k = 6 \)).

The pragmatic engagement test was designed to compare appropriateness with accuracy, focusing primarily on behavioral engagement, characterized by active participation in learning through practical behaviors such as effort, commitment, concentration, attention, and asking questions in class (Fredricks et al., 2019, p. 62). Respondents were asked to indicate, on the six-point Likert scale, the extent to which they would pay attention to the pragmatic aspects of English during any learning experience, as opposed to the grammatical aspects, in multiple contexts, either in or outside the classroom.

Cronbach's alpha was used to calculate the coefficients of internal consistency for the four components of the motivation scale. The coefficients were .85 for intrinsic motivation, .91 for identified motivation, .84 for introjected motivation, and .83 for external motivation. The internal consistency of the engagement scale was .90 (Sanjaya et al., 2022). These reliability estimates exceeded the minimum acceptable reliability coefficient of .70, demonstrating the internal consistency of the overall scales. After modifications, a pilot study was conducted using the test, and the reliability indexes were re-tested with 25 respondents from the same population. The results indicated equivalent reliability levels exceeding .80.

C. Procedure

This study employed a quantitative correlational design to investigate the potential influence of pragmatic motivation on pragmatic engagement among EFL learners at varying proficiency levels. Data collection occurred in three stages. First, an email invitation was sent to postgraduate English majors at Prince Sattam bin Abdelaziz University including a brief description of the study and a request for voluntary and confidential participation. Second, upon receiving consent, participants were scheduled for the Standardized Test of English Proficiency (STEP) and asked to answer open-ended questionnaires. In total, 135 minutes were allocated for the proficiency test and demographic survey. A pragmatic motivation and engagement questionnaire was also distributed online to 25 respondents from the same population via Google Forms as a part of a pilot study. These respondents were asked to evaluate the clarity and comprehension of the items. No issues regarding difficulty or ambiguity were reported. In the third stage, the demographic survey and the 34-item online questionnaire were distributed to all participants via Google Forms. The items and instructions were provided in English, and the researcher was available on WhatsApp for any inquiries. The questionnaire required approximately 10–15 minutes to complete.

Following an initial screening of the data, 198 respondents were selected for the study. Based on their test scores, they were divided into three proficiency groups: intermediate (\( n = 75 \)), upper-intermediate (\( n = 75 \)), and advanced (\( n = 48 \)). The study excluded participants with elementary English proficiency, as it was considered inadequate for the purpose of the study.

D. Data Analysis

Data analyses were conducted using the Statistical Package for the Social Sciences (SPSS, version 25). Descriptive statistics, including means and standard deviations, were computed to describe the respondents' demographic information, proficiency levels, and responses to the 34 items on the questionnaire. The questionnaire items were coded on a six-point Likert scale, as follows: 1 = strongly disagree; 2 = disagree; 3 = slightly disagree; 4 = slightly agree; 5 = agree; 6 = strongly agree. Descriptive statistics were also calculated to report the level of motivation and degree of pragmatic engagement of EFL learners for each participant group. ANOVA tests were used to identify significant differences between groups at different proficiency levels regarding motivational dimensions and pragmatic engagement. Lastly, Pearson correlations were conducted to examine the relationship between the variables (pragmatic motivation and pragmatic engagement) across different proficiency groups. This allowed for the assessment of the predictive power of the two dimensions of motivation on pragmatic engagement.

IV. RESULTS

A. L2 Motivation and Pragmatic Engagement Across Proficiency Levels

Descriptive statistics were computed across all groups to address the first research question on whether different proficiency levels exhibit variations in their L2 motivation and pragmatic engagement. Table 2 presents several noteworthy aspects of the pragmatic motivation test. Participants with advanced proficiency demonstrated a relatively stronger sense of both autonomous and controlled motivations, scoring on average 77.5 and 52.70, respectively, compared to those in other proficiency levels. This means the average response to each item in the autonomous and controlled measures was 5.1 and 4.0, respectively (i.e., falling between 'agree' and 'slightly agree' on the coding scale).
This indicates that autonomous motivation was more prevalent than controlled motivation. In other words, when learning to use English politely and adequately within various contexts, learners are more motivated by internal rewards, such as interest and enjoyment, or fear of appearing incompetent, than by external rewards like career advancement and high grades.

In the intermediate proficiency group, the means for autonomous and controlled motivations were relatively similar (35.18 and 30.18, respectively), indicating low motivation with no significant difference between the two dimensions. A similar trend was noted in the upper-intermediate proficiency group, which exhibited low levels of autonomous and controlled motivations (42.20 and 29.11, respectively), with a slight discrepancy between the two categories. By using the average score for each participant on the autonomous and controlled item measures, it was observed that most respondents scored less than 2.8 (i.e., between ‘disagree’ and ‘strongly disagree’ on the coding scale). Consequently, it can be inferred that intermediate and upper-intermediate EFL learners lacked the motivation to learn the pragmatic aspects of the target language, as reflected in their usage of English.

B. Pragmatic Engagement Across Proficiency Levels

The descriptive statistics for the pragmatic engagement test, as depicted in Table 3, reveal several noteworthy patterns among participants across the different proficiency groups. Users with advanced English proficiency demonstrated a relatively high level of pragmatic engagement, with an overall mean of 31.27, surpassing that of the other proficiency groups. On average, most respondents scored a value of 5.2 (i.e., between ‘agree’ and ‘strongly agree’ on the coding scale), which was marginally higher than the average value for the motivational dimensions. This suggests that these participants were frequently engaged in learning experiences that focused on using English politely.

In contrast, the level of pragmatic engagement among the intermediate and upper-intermediate users was relatively low. On average, intermediate users scored 2.6 (M = 15.90), and upper-intermediate users scored 3 (M = 18.10), which falls between ‘disagree’ and ‘slightly agree’ on the coding scale. This average score is slightly lower than the mean value for the motivational dimension, which was 2.8. It can be argued that the intermediate and upper-intermediate proficiency groups demonstrated little interest in or willingness to participate in learning tasks involving appropriate language use. Therefore, learning how to use English politely did not seem personally enriching or significant to these groups.

C. Differences Across Groups

To address the second research question, an ANOVA was conducted to identify potential differences among EFL learners across various proficiency groups in terms of pragmatic motivation quality and degree of pragmatic engagement. The calculations in Table 4 reveal notable differences between the three proficiency groups concerning their motivation to engage in learning experiences related to appropriate language use. Significant differences were detected among the groups in terms of their autonomous (F = 268.23, p < .000) and controlled motivation (F = 864.10, p < .000), as well as their willingness to engage in pragmatic learning activities (F = 429.98, p < .000). It can be argued, therefore, that the participants’ English proficiency levels had a positive influence on their motivation and pragmatic engagement.
This implies that high levels of English proficiency positively impact learners' motivation to participate in L2 pragmatic engagement. This study also found that the positive influence of motivation on pragmatic engagement was mediated by motivational dimensions (autonomous and controlled), which in turn predicted behavioral engagement in pragmatic learning. These conclusions align with those of Sanjaya et al. (2022), who investigated the quality of L2 motivational dimensions associated with different English proficiency groups, demonstrating significant differences between groups. Subsequently, it utilized correlation analysis to determine the extent to which EFL learners’ pragmatic engagement compared to controlled motivation. Due to proficiency and motivation, the advanced learners reported investing more time, effort, and energy on pragmatic learning in and outside the classroom. Correspondingly, the lower the learners’ proficiency, the less likely they were to engage in pragmatic learning experiences involving appropriate language use. This conclusion argues that these two motivational regulations represent distinct motivational characteristics; therefore, the items included in each measure reflect two distinct motivational dimensions.

### D. Correlation Between L2 Motivation and Pragmatic Engagement Across Proficiency Groups

A correlation analysis was conducted to determine potential associations between the L2 motivational dimensions and pragmatic engagement among EFL learners across varying proficiency groups. Overall, as depicted in Table 4, L2 motivation was significantly and positively correlated with pragmatic engagement, p < .01. Among the advanced learners, the correlation between autonomous motivation and engagement (r = .96) was substantially higher than that between controlled motivation and engagement (r = .87). The correlation between autonomous motivation and engagement (r = .67 and .80, respectively) among intermediate and upper-intermediate groups was considerably greater than that between controlled motivation and engagement (r = .36 and .56, respectively). These findings suggest that proficiency-mediated autonomous motivation can more effectively influence EFL learners’ pragmatic engagement compared to controlled motivation. Due to proficiency and motivation, the advanced learners reported investing more time, effort, and energy on pragmatic learning in and outside the classroom. Correspondingly, the lower the learners’ proficiency, the less likely they were to engage in pragmatic learning experiences involving appropriate language use. This conclusion arguably indicates that these two motivational regulations represent distinct motivational characteristics; therefore, the items included in each measure reflect two distinct motivational dimensions.

### Table 4

<table>
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<th>Sub-scale</th>
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<th>df</th>
<th>MS</th>
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<td>268.23972</td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Within groups</td>
<td>19517.1733</td>
<td>195</td>
<td>1000881</td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Total</td>
<td>73212.3636</td>
<td>197</td>
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<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>Controlled Motivation</td>
<td>Between groups</td>
<td>17604.8494</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>8802.4247</td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Within groups</td>
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<td>195</td>
<td>10.1868</td>
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<tr>
<td>Pragmatic Engagement</td>
<td>Between groups</td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Within groups</td>
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<td>195</td>
<td>9.3219</td>
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### Table 5

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<td>Pragmatic Engagement</td>
<td>Autonomous motivation</td>
<td>0.679**</td>
<td>0.808**</td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Controlled motivation</td>
<td>0.36**</td>
<td>0.56**</td>
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</table>

** p < .01

### V. DISCUSSION

This study aimed to enrich the interlanguage pragmatics literature with evidence-based information on L2 motivation and pragmatic engagement across different proficiency levels. Initially, it investigated the quality of L2 motivational dimensions (autonomous and controlled) and the degree of pragmatic engagement among intermediate, upper-intermediate, and advanced EFL learners, demonstrating significant differences between groups. Subsequently, it utilized correlation analysis to determine the extent to which EFL learners’ L2 motivation across different proficiency levels could predict their behavioral engagement in pragmatic learning. Lastly, it sought to emphasize the influence of proficiency on L2 motivation and pragmatic engagement in EFL contexts, and to understand how these factors interact as indicators of pragmatic engagement.

The major findings of this study confirmed that the L2 motivational dimensions associated with different English proficiency groups can significantly contribute to varying degrees of pragmatic engagement. This, as hypothesized, facilitates the pragmatic development of EFL learners. These conclusions align with those of Sanjaya et al. (2022), where a standard multiple linear regression demonstrated that both autonomous and controlled motivations significantly contributed to the variance in pragmatic engagement. The current study expands upon this previous work by providing empirical evidence of the interaction between proficiency and L2 motivation in pragmatic engagement. Compared to intermediate and upper-intermediate EFL learners, advanced learners exhibited greater L2 motivation across both motivational dimensions (autonomous and controlled), which in turn predicted behavioral engagement in pragmatic learning. This study also found that the positive influence of motivation on pragmatic engagement was mediated by individual factors such as proficiency level, enhancing their capacity to engage in pragmatics-related learning activities. This implies that high levels of English proficiency positively impact learners' motivation to participate in L2 pragmatic tasks involving appropriate language use. As proficiency and motivation increased, advanced EFL learners reported investing more time, effort, and energy in pragmatic learning both inside and outside the classroom.

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Conversely, the intermediate and upper-intermediate EFL learners demonstrated a lack of motivation to learn the pragmatic aspects of the target language, specifically how to use English appropriately and politely. This negatively impacted their level of pragmatic engagement. Several factors might explain this. First, pragmatic competence is often undervalued in EFL contexts due to the status of English in foreign language environments (Ren et al., 2022). In the Saudi context, real-life communicative opportunities to use English outside the classroom are limited. Further, Saudi formal education often prioritizes the formal aspects (e.g., grammar) of English over the functional (i.e., pragmatics) aspects (Alrabai, 2016). Such experiences may lead to the perception that learning to use English properly is not worthwhile, as it is not required for everyday communication. As a result, motivation to learn English for functional purposes may decrease. Second, these findings support the common assumption that general proficiency is a prerequisite for L2 pragmatic competence, a notion documented across proficiency levels in various studies (e.g., Sağdıç, 2021; Ren et al., 2022). Thus, lower proficiency can inhibit EFL learners’ ability to recognize the pragmatic aspects of the language in different contexts (for reviews, see Ren et al., 2022). Third, the prevalent belief that grammatical correctness is the primary indicator of proficiency in a second language may render pragmatics less appealing, especially for low-proficiency learners. According to Ren et al. (2022), low-proficiency groups often perceive pragmatic infelicities as less severe than grammatical errors compared to high-proficiency learners.

The study also disclosed that the intensity of engagement in pragmatic learning activities was associated with the quality of learners’ motivation to learn English pragmatics. Statistically, a significant positive correlation emerged between both autonomous and controlled motivations and pragmatic engagement. This finding provides empirical support for the SDT framework, which asserts that motivational dimensions serve to “frame the quality of the learning experience and can differentially predict the intensity of engagement” (Noels et al., 2000, p. 823; Ryan & Deci, 2017).

A key finding was that autonomous motivation had a more significant positive effect on pragmatic engagement than controlled motivation among all proficiency groups. Specifically, high-proficiency learners showed a stronger correlation between autonomous motivation and pragmatic engagement than controlled motivation, suggesting that autonomous motivation had a greater impact on pragmatic engagement. Given the study’s aims, this result implies that EFL learners with autonomous motivational regulations are more likely to engage actively in learning experiences focused on using English appropriately in diverse contexts compared to those guided by controlled motivational regulations. This supports the ideas of Chen and Kraklow (2015).

Therefore, EFL learners who find learning pragmatics enjoyable, entertaining, or personally meaningful may be more inclined to engage vigorously in learning activities than those who perceive it as primarily advantageous for economic purposes. EFL learners’ perceptions of learning pragmatics influence L2 motivation and engagement, which could be due to pragmatics’ reduced significance in foreign language contexts where English is not a daily means of communication and is limited to formal classroom settings. This result is especially significant because, to the best of the researcher’s knowledge, it provides empirical evidence of how two motivational dimensions influence varying levels of behavioral engagement in L2 pragmatics across different proficiency groups and contextual settings. This finding aligns with Chen and Kraklow’s (2015) report that controlled motivational regulations did not actively motivate EFL students to engage in English learning tasks.

VI. CONCLUSION

This study aimed to explore the relationship between L2 motivational dimensions (autonomous and controlled) and pragmatic engagement across different proficiency groups. It revealed significant differences in L2 motivation and pragmatic engagement across all proficiency groups. Additionally, all groups demonstrated a significant positive correlation between L2 motivation and pragmatic engagement, with both motivational dimensions making a significant contribution to pragmatic engagement. Compared to intermediate and upper-intermediate users, advanced proficiency EFL learners showed higher levels of motivation and engagement. In summary, motivation, as mediated by proficiency, played a crucial role in determining the extent of active engagement in pragmatic learning among EFL learners.

The study acknowledges several limitations, presenting potential areas for future research. Expanding the sample to encompass different nationalities, EFL learners, and educational contexts could yield varied results. The study was limited to female learners due to the researcher’s residence in a gender-segregated society. Subsequent studies might examine the role of gender disparities in influencing various outcomes. There may be scope to examine EFL teachers’ L2 motivation to engage in L2 pragmatic learning experiences, potentially providing critical insights into EFL teachers’ professional development practices. Future inquiries could investigate the impact of L2 motivation on pragmatic engagement related to different target pragmatic features, offering insights into how various aspects of pragmatics are influenced by L2 motivation mediated by proficiency. Data from these studies could also highlight differences related to age and gender. Further research could explore the relationship between pragmatic engagement and learner-related factors such as gender, cognitive abilities, personality, identity, and attitude toward the target culture. This could clarify the factors that might mediate the effect of motivation on L2 pragmatic engagement. Investigations in this domain will also enhance our understanding of which parameters most significantly shape pragmatic performance.

In conclusion, this research contributes to the field of L2 pragmatics by enriching our understanding of this under-explored area, specifically how the two dimensions of motivation (autonomous and controlled), mediated by varying proficiency levels, interact as predictors of behavioral engagement in pragmatic learning. As a result, L2 pedagogy
should prioritize fostering EFL learners' autonomous and controlled motivational regulations to enhance their ability to engage in pragmatic learning experiences, particularly in contexts where English is not the medium of communication.

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REFERENCES


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A Multimodal Approach to Zhuang-English Translation of the Baeu Rodo Scriptures

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Abstract—The Beu Rodo scriptures are texts sung by boumo, a Zhuang ritual priest at rites. They reflect the primitive belief of the ancient forebears of the Zhuang group in China. As a scriptural heritage of the Zhuang minority nationality, the scriptures have become a significant cultural carrier in the English world through translations. Based on the published English translations, this paper analyzes the combined use of verbal and visual modes in translating the Baeu Rodo scriptures into English. David Holm’s Recalling Lost Souls is under examination as a case study. Theories of multimodal discourse analysis and intersemiotic translation give guidance for examination and discussion. First, the authors bring under examination how verbal and visual modes interacted to produce Recalling Lost Souls, an example of multimodal translation; then they move on to discuss how the translator managed to realize the representational, interactive, and compositional meanings in a multimodal whole. It is concluded that linguistic and non-linguistic modes can work together to produce a multimodal translation, a workable approach to Z-E translation of the Baeu Rodo scriptures leading to higher readability of their translated works in the English world.

Index Terms—multimodal approach, Zhuang-English translation, Baeu Rodo scriptures

I. INTRODUCTION

The term “Baeu Rodo Scriptures” is used to refer to any scriptures that are recited or sung, depending on the context, by “boumo” (an indigenous ritual specialist, also called a Zhuang vernacular priest) for the important life-circle ceremonies of betrothal, marriage, birth, and death, or for cases of dealing with quarrels, summoning lost souls, and driving away devils. The scriptures center around an ancient figure called Baeu Rodo in the Zhuang (one of the fifty-six ethnic groups in China, second largest in population) areas. They recorded and praised the great achievements of Baeu Rodo, who was considered to be the ancestor of the Zhuang people. It is said that he was an all-knowing creator, starting all things under the sky, making rules for the world, and giving advice to people to solve all kinds of problems in reality. They deal with a wide variety of subjects with profound thoughts, full of the original ecological culture of the Zhuang group (Jiang, 2008, pp. 97-100).

The scriptures started to draw the attention of scholars from the circle of translation at the very beginning of the 21st century. A foreign scholar, David Holm, published his first selected translation of the Baeu Rodo scriptures in 2003, and some more works later. A Chinese translator, Han Jiaquan, headed his team to produce a Zhuang-Han-English version in 2012, a condensed one. These books have sparked a heated discussion of the translation studies of the Baeu Rodo scriptures. Topics cover translation principles and strategies at lexical and syntactical levels, perspectives of ethnographic translation, and eco-translatology. However, very few studies have been conducted about the analyses of the visual elements in the translation of Baeu Rodo scriptures.

It is a fact that the Baeu Rodo scriptures have been passed down from generation to generation through the Zhuang religious practitioners who are traditional owners of the Baeu Rodo texts. Such scriptures are recited by boumo at rites. The scriptures are used in the context of a ritual ceremony, in which boumo and audiences communicate naturally. It is a multimodal communication where many elements such as participants, actions, dances, and others contribute to meaning-making. The concept of intersemiotic translation proposed by Jakobson (1959) and the theories of multimodal discourse analysis (Kress & van Leeuwen, 1996, 2006; O’Toole, 1994; Painter et al., 2013) bring new light to the translation studies of the Baeu Rodo scriptures. In this paper, the authors are to examine how linguistic and non-linguistic modes are combined to produce a translation as a multimodal whole for higher readability.

II. LITERATURE REVIEW

A. Source Texts of the Baeu Rodo Scriptures

The Baeu Rodo Scriptures was included in the first national intangible cultural heritage list in China in 2006. Zhang, an expert on Zhuang culture and a high official in the government office of Guangxi, argued that the Baeu Rodo Scriptures are the “creation epic” of the Zhuang ethnic group and the “religious literature” of Zhuang folk ballads (1991,
p. 35). Originally, the Baeu Rodo scriptures were kept in the hands of boumo, scattered in villages of the Zhuang region. The late 1970s and early 1980s saw the discovery of ritual manuscripts written in the Zhuang character script in the highlands of northwest Guangxi by Zhuang scholars working in isolated areas. These manuscripts appeared to be dedicated to the worship of BaeuRodo. Folklore historians had long documented legends and songs about his exploits and inventions. Those songs had been passed down orally for a very long time and were known as “old songs”. The discovery of a written tradition with all the hallmarks of ancient antiquity was novel and fascinating. The texts were written in largely five-syllable verse, which had long since given way to seven-syllable forms in some of the manuscripts, some of which were centuries old. The academics in Guangxi chose to edit the Baeu Rodo scriptures as one of the first and most important projects for Guangxi when the Central Government in Beijing announced in 1984 that it would invest in a large-scale program to edit and publish important pre-modern documents in the languages of China’s minority peoples.

With the joint efforts of officials and scholars, many manuscripts had been collected for publication. Therefore, some works were produced, among which the most influential ones are: The Baeu Rodo Scriptures: An Annotated Translation (Zhang, 1991), containing 22 manuscripts from Guangxi Zhuang Autonomous Region in the south of China; The Zhuang Scriptures: An Annotated Translation (He, 2004), which consists of 3 kinds of manuscripts from Yunnan province in the southwest of China; Annotated Facsimile Edition of the Baeu Rodo Zhuang Boumo Scriptures (8 volumes) (Zhang, 2004), in which 29 kinds of manuscripts from Guangxi were collected and translated into Chinese; A New Annotated Facsimile Edition of the Baeu Rodo Zhuang Boumo Scriptures (3 volumes) (Huang, 2016), which collected and translated 13 manuscripts provided by the Nongs in a remote village in a county named Tianyang in Guangxi. These works are of great significance for scholars in the circles of linguistics, translation, and others. The publication of these works has sparked waves of deeper research and more studies of the Baeu Rodo scriptures from different perspectives.

B. Translation Studies of the Baeu Rodo Scriptures

In recent years, ethnic classics have drawn much interest from scholars, experts, and translators thanks to China’s policies for nationalities. Numerous classics of minority ethnic groups have been translated and introduced to overseas readers. It was at the start of the 21st century that the English translation works of the Baeu Rodo scriptures were produced, thus drawing more and more attention from scholars in and out of China. David Holm, an American scholar, chose some texts of the Baeu Rodo Scriptures and translated them into English based on his fieldwork and meticulous way of cultural interpretation. His English versions of the Baeu Rodo Scriptures are: Killing a Buffalo for the Ancestors: a Zhuang Cosmological Text from Southwest China (2003); Recalling Lost Souls: The Baeu Rodo Scriptures, Tai Cosmogonic Texts from Guangxi in Southern China (2004) (henceforth Recalling Lost Souls); Hanvueng: The Goose King and the Ancestral King (2015). Han Jiaquan, a Chinese scholar, had his translated book The Epic of Baeu Rodo (2012) published. Han’s version is a condensed one, presenting the readers with the most important content of the Baeu Rodo scriptures in a single version, while Holm’s works are selected ones according to different subject matters.

Since the publication of David Holm’s and Han Jiaquan’s translations, more systematic approaches from many perspectives have begun to mark out an academic investigation in the translation studies of the Baeu Rodo Scriptures. Data from CNKI (China National Knowledge Infrastructure) show that a large number of research articles about how to translate the Baeu Rodo Scriptures into English have been published. The first one appeared in 2004, and the number of relevant articles has increased year by year since 2011. The publication reached its peak in 2017, 2019, and 2020. Much focus has been on translation principles by Lu (2010, pp. 23-26), translation strategies by Huang et al. (2008, pp. 169-173), Lu (2011, pp. 111-115) and Lu (2019, pp. 25-32), dealing with actual translation activities in terms of culture and others in lexical and syntactic levels. Many attempts have been made to improve the readability of the English translation of the Baeu Rodo Scriptures from perspectives of cultural translation, thick translation, and ethnographic translation. Only two scholars have mentioned about the translation of Baeu Rodo Scriptures in a multimodal approach (Huang, 2019, pp. 49-53; Chen & Huang, 2019, pp. 96-102, 119). There is still a great deal of room for translation studies of Baeu Rodo Scriptures in the framework of multimodality.

III. TRANSLATING THE BAEU RODO SCRIPTURES: A MULTIMODAL WAY

The Internet and the integration of multimedia have significantly altered peoples' lifestyles, particularly in terms of communication. Writing, visuals, gestures, and music are all forms of communication that take place simultaneously in the modern world, creating multimodal communicative situations. Translating, as intercultural communication, should consider multimodal resources. The process of turning Baeu Rodo scriptures into English may involve shifting meanings from one mode to another, transposing a Zhuang text to an English multimodal entirety in chronological, social, and cultural context.

A. Multimodal Translation

Around ten years ago, the concept of “multimodality” first appeared in translation studies. Theo van Leeuwen defined multimodality as the fusion of various semiotic modes, such as language and music, in a communicative artifact or event (2005, p. 281). From a multimodal approach, Jewitt claimed that language was only ever one mode nested
within a multimodal ensemble of modes (2009, p. 15). Roman Jakobson's (1959) concept of “intersemiotic translation” serves as the foundation for the consideration of how linguistic and non-linguistic modes interact. Intersemiotic translation would occur if a written text were translated into a different mode, such as music, film, or painting (Munday, 2010, p. 5). Like many other kinds of human communication, translation takes place in not only linguistic mode but also other modes such as images, sounds, colors, voices, and music. According to Kress, meaning is transferred during the translating process. It is “moved across”, or “transported”, from one modal ensemble to another (2010, p. 124).

Today, translation is seen as a communication act encompassing mode, media, and culture rather than a language shift action. A multimodal text, where verbal cues and visual cues work together to transfer meaning, is created when written words and non-linguistic signs interplay. To write this paper, both Zhuang and English versions of Baeu Rodo Scriptures were used for reference. Among them, the translated version of Recalling Lost Souls by David Holm was chosen as a case study. The reason why this book was selected from those was the fact that it has much more illustrations than any other among the published works so the authors could achieve the expected purpose of this research. As a combination of linguistic and non-linguistic modes, Recalling Lost Souls can be analyzed in a multimodal framework.

B. The Use of Language

As a tool of communication, language no doubt plays a vital role in the Z-E translation of the Baeu Rodo scriptures. In Recalling Lost Souls, David Holm took full advantage of various forms of language to express meaning. In addition to the translation texts themselves, the core part of the book, the translator provides readers with an abundance of relevant information, including a list of illustrations, a preface, a note on Transcription and Transliteration, abbreviations, and a companion CD. Furthermore, a long introduction of 50 pages is presented, covering the Zhuang, the locality, the religious life of the Northern Zhuang, two important figures Baeu Rodo and Mo Loekgyap, the bumbo and their rituals, poetics, and versification in the scriptures, the language of the scriptures, the Old Zhuang Script, their discovery and decipherment, the conventions used in Recalling Lost Souls.

Notes take up much space in the book. They are original notes, ethnographic notes, and textual notes. The original notes and ethnographic notes are presented after each scripture's English translation. The original notes, which were written by the Chinese experts in charge of each text, are taken from The Baeu Rodo Scriptures: an Annotated Translation (1991), a Chinese edition of the Baeu Rodo Scriptures. Released in 1991 in Nanning, the provincial capital of Guangxi, it is an extensive collection of scriptures including 27 texts and more than 1,230 pages, with interlinear glosses and transcriptions, textual and anthropological annotations, and images of the original manuscript pages. The original notes contain a lot of materials that are essential to comprehend the texts. However, the translator found that those notes are sometimes inaccurate, and he had to add more to them frequently for the benefit of global reading. Thus, he has included a lot of information about the religious and cultural backdrop in his collection of ethnographic notes. The textual notes, which may be found on the companion CD, go into additional detail about certain textual and philological concerns. Additionally, readers will find that a discussion of dubious readings and other issues is important for a fuller understanding of the texts. Notes will clarify, define, instruct, or support the core text, as well as any background information or the pertinent viewpoints and attitudes of the translator.

Apart from pure language, typographic alteration also contributes greatly to constituting meanings. In most cases, verbal signs appear in regular forms. In general, they work as verbal signifiers through lexicogrammar and syntax. However, such elements as paper size, margins, type size and typefaces, alignment, paragraph indentation, and spacing are of significance. For instance, words in bold, italic, or capital may be employed to depict the author's intention to emphasize something. In Recalling Lost Souls, David Holm made good use of typographic transformation of font and page layout for some purposes. The typographic alterations can aid to serve as a kind of supplementary or extratextual information. Any writing in the non-regular form will help linguistic signs look more visually apparent.

C. The Use of Illustration

Five crucial variables go into translation and transmission: who, what, to whom, through what channel, and with what effect. “With what effect” serves as the focal point and goal of all translation endeavors (Hu & Wu, p. 34). For English translations of the Baeu Rodo scriptures, the target readers are mostly English natives to whom Zhuang culture might be unfamiliar or even alien because they live in totally different physical surroundings with unlike historical settings, writing systems, and thinking ways. One of the challenges facing a translator is how to make his/her translated texts understood by English speakers. Characterized by the thinking mode, philosophy, living habits, and social rules of the Zhuang people, the Baeu Rodo scriptures are rich in numerous culture-loaded terms which are a headache for translators. Sometimes, language alone fails to describe some terms because they are too abstract to get across to potential readers. In such cases, non-linguistic modes will do the job. Illustrations are of striking features in Recalling Lost Souls. Along with linguistic submodes, 3 maps, 3 figures, and 49 photographic plates are presented. The number of distributions is shown in Table 1.
TABLE 1

NUMBER OF ILLUSTRATIONS IN RECALLING LOST SOULS

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<tr>
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<td>Introduction</td>
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<td>Text 1 Ritual of Prayer before the Domestic Altar</td>
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<td>Text 2 Scripture on the Creation of Heaven and Earth</td>
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<tr>
<td>Text 10 Scripture Reciting the Creation of Houses, Gardens and Fish-nets</td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>Text 11 Scripture Reciting the Creation of Native Chieftains and Emperors</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Text 12 Scripture Reciting the Creation of Books and Writing</td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

(a). Three Maps

All three maps are shown in the Introduction part, giving readers cultural information about the locality of the Zhuang in which the manuscripts of the Baeu Rodo scriptures were found, and the major Zhuang dialect areas in Guangxi and Yunnan provinces. Map 1 is “Western Guangxi”. It depicts that the western two-thirds of Guangxi province, also known as the Guangxi Zhuang Autonomous Region, is home to the Zhuang people. Zhuang can also be found in eastern Yunnan and western Guangdong, and closely related Bouyei live in Guizhou’s southwest. Map 2 is “The Yandong-Yufeng Area: Showing provenance of ritual manuscripts”. From Map 2, readers know that the Baeu Rodo manuscripts under discussion were found in a remote area in the northwest of Guangxi, halfway between the Youjiang and Hongshui rivers, in the southern part of Bama county, the northern part of Tianyang county, and the eastern portion of Baise City. Map 3 is “Major Dialects of Zhuang and Bouyei”. This map indicates that Chinese linguists have identified twelve major Zhuang dialect areas in Guangxi and Yunnan, of which seven are northern dialects, on the basis of linguistic studies done in Guangxi since the early 1950s. The Introduction part is devoted to an account of the geography and history of the Zhuang locality and the three maps co-construct meanings. For a direct-viewing understanding, please see the visual materials in Figure 1.

(Holm, 2004, p. 3)  (Holm, 2004, p. 9)  (Holm, 2004, between pp. 29-30)

Figure 1. Maps of Locality and Dialects

(b). Three Figures

There are three figures in Text 4 and Text 9, one in the former and two in the latter, showing readers Zhuang’s social customs, fishing activities, and fish species. Some culture-related visuals are given (see Figure 2): (1) the “Great Chicken” divination (a manual for divination by chicken bones); (2) the fish-bed (liengz) (a rectangular panel of woven bamboo or reeds) and fish-trap (reih) (a bamboo weir woven of reeds or bamboo splints, and placed below a spot where
the water level drops substantially, in order to catch fish coming downstream); (3) freshwater fishes of Guangxi. The “Great Chicken” divination reflects the primitive religion of the ancient Zhuang. It is one of the ancient divination methods practiced by using chicken bones for good or ill luck. The fish-bed and fish-trap were used for catching fish in autumn and winter during dry seasons in a stream. They were specially constructed for stream fishing. The terms “fish-bed” and “fish-trap” repeatedly appeared in the text of *Recitation for Use in the Redemption of Souls of Fish*. With illustrations of “fish-bed” and “fish-trap”, the traditional fishing style of the Zhuang people is clearly presented. Different species of fish are mentioned in the scripture text, some even in local names. The translator illustrated four different species so that readers may have a clear picture in mind that what those fishes look like.

![Figure 2. Some Culture-Related Visuals of the Zhuang](Holm, 2004, p. 144)


Figure 2. Some Culture-Related Visuals of the Zhuang

(c). Forty-Nine Photographic Plates

Forty-nine photographic plates go in three different parts: fifteen plates in the Introduction part, eighteen in Text 1, and sixteen in Text 2. All of them are photos taken by the translator when he had visits to Zhuang villages where the Baeu Rodo manuscripts had been collected. They are concerned with the geographical, historical, cultural, and religious knowledge of the Zhuang group.

In the part of Introduction, fifteen photographic plates portray local people, physical settings, and human activities in the area along the border between Tianyang and Bama counties in the northwest of Guangxi in China. The pictures include (1) the natural environment: the outskirts of Bama county town with wet-fields and gardens, the road junction at Yandong in Bama county showing local transport, a village with fenced gardens, and the traditional farmhouse made of rammed earth (*terre-pise*) of Yufeng, Tianyang county; (2) local people: sellers of local produce, sellers of bean-thread noodles, an old lady selling chickens, sellers of horses in the market village; (3) human activities: girls washing vegetables in the river, a man with harrow and long-handled shovel, boat on the river bank, and a scene of making rice noodles. All these photographic plates work as visual modes for presentation and communication. Because of the space limitations, only four plates are chosen as examples for demonstration (see Figure 3).

![Figure 3. Plates of Living Surroundings and Human Activities](Holm, 2004, inserted between pp. viii-ix)

In Text 1, *Ritual of Prayer before the Domestic Altar*, there are 18 photographic plates. The text is an introductory scripture recited by boumo at the beginning of a ritual. Its function is to serve as an invitation to the relevant gods.
Therefore, a long list of gods in Zhuang culture becomes a headache for the translator to turn into English, because most of those Zhuang gods are unfamiliar to non-Zhuang readers. To make things worse, the scriptures are in verse with only a few words in a line, which is of poetry form, a most difficult task in translation. Of course, annotations are a good choice. However, sometimes even a full page of words fails to give clear information about what is being talked about. For better comprehension, the translator resorted to illustrations. Exactly, 18 photographic plates are presented to convey the intended meanings. Together with the translation text, vivid pictures of a ritual of the Redemption of the Soul of Rice are shown. The ongoing ritual, a real-life communication, involved such elements as participants, events, and actions. In addition to boumo troupe, on-lookers, and ritual singing and dancing, many culture-related items can be seen here; offerings-shed, offerings-table, scrolls of relevant gods or deities, soul-pennant, audience-board (see Figure 4).

Figure 4. A Ritual of the Redemption of the Soul of Rice (Holm, 2004, inserted between pp. 68-69)

This is a ritual procession to redeem the souls of rice, which is a reflection of the primitive religion of the ancient forbears of the Zhuang people. The ritual is conducted by a boumo troupe to gain release from disaster when the harvest appears to be insufficient. The text of the scripture recited by the boumo explains the history of the development of grains and demonstrates how to cultivate them. The ritual procedures go in the following steps: The Taoist troupe, with the officiating priest in red → Setting out the lanterns for the Redemption of Souls ritual→The officiating priest sings, holding the soul-pennant→The priest sings, accompanied by gongs and cymbals→Setting out rice seedlings for the Redemption of the Soul of Rice→The priests go round the array of rice seedlings, slowly at first→Then running→And finally, leaping→The officiating priest calls the souls to return, holding a rice seedling.

In Text 2, Scripture on the Creation of Heaven and Earth, a scripture narrating the formation of the world, sixteen photographic plates unroll before readers’ eyes showing: (1) officiating boumo’s wearings: robes (back view) and bonnet (back); (2) covers of manuscripts of the Baeu Rodo scriptures from different villages or hamlets and corresponding inner pages. Boumo and scriptures play key roles in a ritual. In the northern part of Guangxi, as religious practitioners, a boumo performs a wide variety of rituals of exorcisms, sacrifices, and healing for the benefit of the living, including people, domestic animals, and crops. The rituals range from supplementation of fate for the aged, to healing livestock, and to helping sick children “go through the Passes”. The photographic plates provide information about participants and pages of scriptures. Interactive meanings are made here with close or distant views. In-image and off-image participants communicate through visual modes. Here three plates are picked for demonstration as in Figure 5.
IV. DISCUSSION

In the book *Recalling Lost Souls*, the translation texts were organized according to mythic themes, starting with the creation of heaven and earth and continuing in mythos-chronological order through the creation of humankind, the creation of water, the creation of fire, the creation of buffaloes, oxen, pigs, hens, and ducks, down to the invention of writing and the calendar, and the creation of emperors and local chieftains. For an international readership, the translator uses both verbal and non-verbal signs effectively, as indicated by Weissbrod and Kohn (2019, p. 16) that reading the same text with different images or none at all could result in a completely different reading experience. When facing a ritual text, a Zhuang reader will naturally think of a vivid picture: a ritual, offering tables, chanting boumo with scripture texts unfolding before them, host family members, on-lookers, invisible deities, accompanying dances, sounds of gongs and cymbals, the interaction between people on the spot and the like. It is obvious that a ritual manuscript itself speaks aloud and it is of multimodal nature for a Zhuang native. For this reason, a multimodal translation is necessary when the Bau Rodo scriptures are rendered into English.

As shown in the previous section, David Holm combines linguistic and non-linguistic modes in his English translation for non-Zhuang readers. He takes full advantage of language -- long introduction, original notes, ethnographic notes, and typographical transformation if necessary, together with non-language -- maps, figures, and photographic plates in his translated work, *Recalling Lost Souls*, in which all forms involve meaning-making. The inter-twinning of words and illustrations makes it easier for readers to understand the meanings of the translation as a multimodal whole. Therefore, this book can be considered an example of a multimodal translation of the Bau Rodo scriptures. It is worth discussing how meanings are realized through a combination of writing and visual modes to produce a translation, thus sparking more suggestions to produce a more readable multimodal translation in a multimodal framework.

The theories of metafunctions and visual grammar bring light to the discussion of the multimodal translation in question. Kress and van Leeuwen (1996) propose a “grammar of visual design” and provide a descriptive framework to describe the semiotic resources of images and to analyze how these metafunctions are realized visually based on the three “metafunctions” of Halliday’s (1985) theory of Systemic Functional Grammar. Their paradigm consists of three main components: compositional arrangements, interactive resources, and representational resources. The terms “representational”, “interactive”, and “compositional” relate to the corresponding ideational, interpersonal, and textual metafunctions by Halliday as in Table 2.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>metafunction</th>
<th>visual design</th>
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<td>ideational</td>
<td>representational</td>
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<tr>
<td>interpersonal</td>
<td>interactive</td>
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<tr>
<td>textual</td>
<td>compositional</td>
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</table>

As stated by Kress and van Leeuwen (1996, p. 41), the visual, like all semiotic modes, must fulfill many representational and communicational needs to be a complete system of communication. For this, Kress and van Leeuwen have taken the theoretical concept of “metafunction” from Michael Halliday’s work in which he proposes the ideational, interpersonal, and textual metafunctions as the three main categories. Kress and van Leeuwen argue that these metafunctions are not exclusive to speech or writing but rather apply to all semiotic forms. Any semiotic mode must be capable of capturing features of the world as it is perceived by people. It must be able to project the relationships between a sign’s producer and receiver or reproducer. Additionally, it must possess the ability to create texts, which are collections of signs that are coherent both internally within itself and outwardly with the context in which they were created.
It is obvious that in the book *Recalling Lost Souls* the translator actively works with the representational, interactive, and compositional resources of words and images, as well as the various ways they might be put together. Both words and images have narrative and conceptual functions. The illustrations dealt with in the previous section are part of a “multimodally” planned text, a semiotic interplay in which each mode, the verbal and the visual, is given a clear and equal function to work. Those visuals are not only there to support a verbal text or serve as artful adornment. In most cases, an image conveys meaning far more clearly than a huge pile of words. The translator of *Recalling Lost Souls* shows a skillful weaving of words and images to produce a readable translated work in a multimodal way.

There is no doubt that those maps (showing locality and dialect) in Figure 1 have a connection to and are somewhat dependent upon verbal language in order to convey their meaning. The conveyed message is completed by the addition of new and distinct meanings in the given maps. That is to say, the combination of verbal and non-verbal modes leads to higher clarity of the intended meaning in that the same meanings are expressed differently—in a more specific and explicit manner. The landscape components (fields, clusters of trees, buildings, rivers, etc.) depicted in Figure 2 only make sense when viewed in the context of their overall surroundings and the development of that ecosystem. Figure 1 and Figure 2 provide information on the local surroundings, living habits, and human activities of the Zhuang, constituting part of the meaning of the translated text.

Figure 3 gives a vivid description of a ritual event of recalling the lost souls of rice. The participants in it have the roles not of “actor” and “goal” but of “carrier” and “attribute”. These pictures are not about something which participants are doing to other participants, but about the way participants come together to make up a larger whole. The main representational principle at the ritual is action or event, while the fundamental organizing principle, or logic, is a sequence in time. The process goes through verb-represented activities (sing, go, run, leap). The activities and events are placed in chronological order, mirroring the order in which they occurred in reality. The pictures in Figure 4 help readers to know more about the practitioner of a ritual and his scriptures, providing information on culture, context, and situation, which are part of the constitution of meaning.

The implementation of the three metafunctions in the Baeu Rodo scriptures is fulfilled by visual meaning and verbal language. Among all the published translations of the Baeu Rodo scriptures, the book *Recalling Lost Souls* is a bit different from the others because a large number of illustrations are used in the book. Of course, there are also some visuals in the other works, but far fewer. To some extent, *Recalling Lost Souls* is a multimodal complimentary use of words and illustrations that consists of a number of visual meaning potentials and their matching visual realizations, which can serve as an example to show how to translate the Baeu Rodo scriptures into English in a multimodal approach. It is the illustrations used in the book that make the translation work different from those in which only language is used or few non-linguistic modes get involved. The convergence of words and illustrations to produce a multimodal translation in translating *Recalling Lost Souls* can be summarized in the following framework (see Figure 6).

![Figure 6. The Convergence of Language and Non-Language in Translating Recalling Lost Souls](image)

**V. CONCLUSION**

The Zhuang Baeu Rodo scriptures are among the scriptural heritage of minority nationalities in China. The ritual texts are of considerable importance for the study of the mythology and ritual of the Zhuang people. Publications of their Chinese and English editions are of signal contribution to scholarship on the Zhuang. Before the appearance of the written scriptures, folktales about Baeu Rodo’s amazing achievements had been transmitted orally from generation to generation among the Zhuang for hundreds of years. After the invention of writing, the owners of the scriptures began to have them recorded, thus producing manuscripts. Many scriptures had an existence of centuries-old, demonstrating a
written tradition of venerable antiquity. Even scholarly Chinese editions give long lists of glosses and notes. In translating into English, a translator’s work involves far more than a simple translation of a source text, its glosses, and notes. A closer investigation is needed, fieldwork gets involved, and illustrations are also included. Therefore, verbal and non-verbal modes are employed to produce a multimodal translation.

The book *Recalling Lost Souls* is a combined use of different meaning-making resources. Both linguistic and non-linguistic modes are involved in producing a more readable translation. Submodes of maps, figures, photographic plates, and fonts interact in communicative events. The case of *Recalling Lost Souls* is among the first attempts to adopt a multimodal approach to the Zhuang-English translation of the Baeu Rodo scriptures. The presentational, interactive, and compositional meanings are realized through actions, eye contact and involvement of participants, organization of lines of words, and elements of visuals. Perspectives, close and distant views work together to express foreground or background information, contributing to meaning constitution. With the development of technology, a multimodal translation can appear both on-screen and off-screen. More modes can be employed to translate the Baeu Rodo scriptures into English as a more workable approach to turning Zhuang classics into English. As to how to have a more effective multimodal Z-E translation of the Baeu Rodo scriptures, more scholars with expertise are expected to join in the force of minority classics translation.

**ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS**

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**REFERENCES**


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Abstract—This article explored preparatory year program (PYP) teachers’ emotional labor and dissonance in an English as a Foreign Language (EFL) setting and this relates to institutional power. It also addressed issues related to the conflict between their professional training, knowledge, and beliefs and the institutional requirements. The final evaluation test of the PYP was used as an example of top-down institutional policies that may conflict with English language teachers’ training and/or pedagogical preferences, thereby producing emotional labor. To illustrate these concepts, the data were analyzed from interviews with 22 EFL teachers at a Saudi university regarding their emotions toward preparing the students for the final evaluation test and the requirements of the institutional power. The results were discussed in light of the following themes: (a) orienting to feeling rules, and (b) adapting to institutional policies, teachers’ preferences, and other beliefs. The findings suggested that teachers exhibited high levels of deep acting and naturally-felt emotions, which could be explained by the idea that teachers internalized their roles. In addition, they showed that teachers may resist the feeling rules of their institution’s policies. This article ends with pedagogical implications and recommendations for further research on emotional labor as a tool of teacher engagement. The researcher’s personal reflections and emotion(al) labor were incorporated with engagement with the participants’ accounts.

Index Terms—emotional labor, dissonance, institutional power, EFL teachers

I. INTRODUCTION

Teaching involves carefully handling students’ and teachers’ emotions, which is considered the gateway to creating positive relationships between teachers and students (Benesch, 2020). Teachers are deeply interested in fostering classroom practices that would allow students to succeed in appropriate environments. Gkonou and Miller (2021) confirmed that the goal of teachers is to develop professional relationships with students, assist students, provide necessary support to students, and encourage students during their academic journey to take a forward step and challenge academic risks. This goal is related to Berman’s (2004) concept of empathetic teaching, and to Hargreaves’ view (1998) of the emotional role of teachers, who described good teachers as “emotional, passionate beings who connect with their students and fill their work and their classes with pleasure, creativity, challenge, and joy” (p. 835).

Research has begun to explore the vital role of emotions in the workplace from different theoretical and methodological angles (Benesch, 2017). English as a Foreign Language (EFL) scholars suggest that exploring emotions within the education field is not new, and that emotions play a vital role in shaping teachers’ experience in the classroom and professionalism (Prior, 2019). Therefore, analyzing the emotional duties of preparatory year program (PYP) teachers is the key approach to understanding professionalism in classroom practice (Benesch, 2020). Therefore, preparing PYP teachers to regulate their emotions by utilizing their experience is an important step for ensuring classroom professional success, especially ingraining the knowledge that their performance is evaluated by some institutional power.

The Saudi PYP provides the first and second semesters for all undergraduate programs. Some students might be required to complete one semester of intensive English language training before starting the PYP, depending on the student’s score in the admission test. Students receive linguistic, mathematical, computational, physical, and interpersonal training during their first year of university to seamlessly transition students from high school to higher education, empowering them to join the ranks of ambitious and successful students (Alkhawar & Alwazzan, 2023). Since teachers are responsible for ensuring EFL PYP students pass the final evaluation test, this study is conducted for the purpose of exploring PYP teachers’ emotional labor and its relation to institutional power. Additionally, it addresses issues related to the conflict between their professional training, knowledge, and beliefs and the institutional requirements. To the best of the researcher's knowledge, no study has explored Saudi EFL PYP teachers’ reflections of teaching with regard to their emotions and well-being. This article contributes to the literature on emotional labor by posing the following questions:

1. How do PYP teachers orient to feeling rules in EFL contexts?
2. How does institutional power contribute to emotional labor?
3. Is there conflict between teachers’ professional training, knowledge, and beliefs and the institutional requirements?

II. LITERATURE REVIEW

A. Theoretical Background of Emotional Labor

Educational research views emotions as part of a cognitive approach that depicts emotions as purely psychologically phenomenai with two main categories: positive and negative (Benesch, 2020). In the case of English language teaching, positive emotions enhance the learning process, whereas negative emotions hinder the learning process. Thus, the goal of cognitive research is to manage and regulate emotions to achieve positive ones (Dewaele et al., 2018). Benesch (2020) called this process “emotional regulation, self-regulation, emotional literacy, and emotional intelligence” (p. 3). However, this cognitive framework neglects to consider the effect of power relation on emotions, resulting in cognitive bias. Zembylas (2005) introduced a discursive approach to teachers’ emotions that considers the effect of “power, agency, and resistance” (p. 936), describing emotions as discursive processes that are affected by social events, conventions, and norms and formed by culture, power, and ideology. Consequently, emotions should be interpreted within the context of cultural, social, and economic states that can affect teachers’ emotions and cause fatigue, exhaustion, or undesirable feelings.

B. Emotional Labor

Hochschild (1983) was the first to discuss the role of emotional regulation as a part of a job. Hochschild defined emotional labor as “the management of feeling to create a publicly observable facial and bodily display” (p. 3), requiring workers to regulate emotions to influence the emotions, attitudes, and behaviors of others. He identified two ways of managing expressions and feelings: surface acting and deep acting. Surface acting occurs when employees regulate their performance without affecting their inner feelings (i.e., expression of emotions that are not actually felt), whereas deep acting happens when employees adjust their internal feelings to be consistent with required rules (Hochschild, 1983, p. 275). Along with this view of emotions, Benesch (2017, 2018a) discussed language teachers’ emotional labor in her poststructural approach, indicating that emotions are not psychological states, but rather effects of engagement with institutional power that are shaped by feeling rules.

Feeling rules are another term introduced by Hochschild (1979) that refers to the “conventions by which people judge whether their feelings are appropriate in particular situations or not” (p. 39). Gkonou and Miller (2021) confirmed that feeling rules shape language teachers’ emotions and the way these emotions manifest, clearly revealing the role of power in establishing valued emotions in school environment. This is supported by Zembylas’s (2003) definition of teacher emotions, who asserted that teachers’ emotion is shaped by social and political experiences. Following Hochschild (1983), several emotional labor studies have explored the concept, scope, and consequences of emotional labor in different workplaces (e.g., Ashforth & Humphrey, 1995; Brief & Weiss, 2002; Nias, 1996; Van Manen & Kunda, 1989; Zapf, 2002; Zembylas, 2003). Ybema and Smulders (2002) and Briët et al. (2005) presented the term suppression, which refers to a person attempting to obscure negative emotions such as sadness, anger, or frustration. Other scholars (e.g., Briët et al., 2005; Martínez-Iñigo et al., 2007; Zammuner & Galli, 2005) used the term emotional dissonance, in which the emotions felt by an employee are totally compatible with what the job requires. Hochschild (1983) named this passive deep acting.

The use of the term emotional labor has extended to include the language teaching and learning areas. Many researchers employed the term when analyzing teachers’ emotions (e.g., Benesch, 2017, 2018a; Cowie, 2011; Gkonou & Mercer, 2017; Gkonou & Miller, 2021; Loh & Liew, 2016; Song, 2018). Some researchers examined teachers’ emotional responses to institutional power (e.g., Alshakhi & Le Ha, 2020; Benesch, 2020; Dewaele, 2018; Gillies, 2011; Miller & Gkonou, 2018; Nazari et al., 2023). For example, Benesch’s (2017, 2018) research highlighted some issues related to the effect of unequal power relations on the emotional labor of teachers, especially in cases where teachers struggle with the feeling rules that contradict their own beliefs, values, and professional training. He discussed the notion of “dissonance between feeling rules and professional training and/or ethics” (p. 2). In other words, the author showed how emotion labor results from dissonance between institutional policies and teachers’ professional training and other beliefs. Thus, the author encouraged people to view emotions as results of political power that are controlled by institutional policies by stating, “Emotion labor can serve to signal a problem requiring attention and an area in need of reform” (p. 5). It’s a useful framework for recognizing and understanding the ways in which academia makes teachers feel constantly conflicted, compromised, and dehumanized (Benesch, 2017). In the same vein, Benesch (2018b) explored the emotional labor of teachers who experienced struggles resulting from institutional power related to plagiarism and student attendance, as well as instructional practices involving high-stakes literacy testing and responses to student writing. The author adopted a qualitative method to analyze teachers’ responses, describing the resulting emotions as “useful signals . . . about whether current conditions are favorable or not” (p. 61). The author concluded that teachers may struggle with the feeling rules of their institution’s policy while experiencing emotion labor.

Though some recent research explored the issue of emotional labor quantitatively, most analyzed the issue qualitatively to examine the responses of participants precisely. Benesch (2020) examined teachers’ responses to institutional power, using high-stakes literacy testing as an example of institutional policies that may oppose English
language teachers’ training and/or pedagogical preferences, thereby producing emotion labor. The researcher analyzed teachers’ responses and suggested that it is an honor to view emotional labor as part of teacher activism instead of a psychological obstacle. In another recent study, Alshakhi and Le Ha (2020) explored the emotional labor of native-English-speaking teachers in Saudi Arabia, examining their struggles, difficulties, emotions, and attempts to communicate their emotions. As transnationally trained academics, the researchers added their own reflections on emotional labor while they communicated with the teachers. The study encouraged teachers to be more tolerant and to engage themselves with the boundaries of Saudi religion and traditions to become more understanding of their culture. Gkonou and Miller (2021) discussed the issue of emotional capital and its relation to language teachers’ emotional labor, as well as the role of reflection in understanding their emotional experiences. They interviewed 25 higher education teachers working in institutions to elicit their experiences. The analysis of teachers’ narratives showed that teachers believe that they demonstrated the emotions that the institution prefers. The researchers explained how emotional capital emerged through emotional labor, and confirmed that emotional capital is related to power relations. In the same vein, Nazari et al. (2023) examined teachers’ emotional labor during online teaching. The teachers’ narratives indicated that online teaching had a strong effect on teachers’ emotions, which was reflected in their surface and deep acting.

The previous literature review discussed emotional labor from different perspectives and resources. Up to now, no study has tackled the topic of emotional labor of EFL teachers from PYP and its relation to institutional power, or explored how the final evaluation test that is conducted at the end of the PYP may conflict with English language teachers’ training and/or pedagogical preferences, thereby producing emotional labor.

C. Preparatory Year Program in Saudi Arabia

The duration of the PYP is a minimum of one year, divided into two regular semesters that represent the first and second semesters of all undergraduate programs. Some students might be required to pass one semester of intensive English language program before joining the PYP program, depending on their achievement in the admission test. At the end of the PYP, students will be assessed through the final evaluation test, which is comprised of all the elements in the students for the final evaluation test: (1) Do your students have to pass the final evaluation test in order to qualify for the next level of education? (2) Are there any specific requirements or conditions for passing the final evaluation test? (3) How do you ensure that the final evaluation test is fair and unbiased?

The analysis of teachers’ narratives showed that teachers believe that they demonstrated the emotions that the institution prefers. The researchers explained how emotional capital emerged through emotional labor, and confirmed that emotional capital is related to power relations. In the same vein, Nazari et al. (2023) examined teachers’ emotional labor during online teaching. The teachers’ narratives indicated that online teaching had a strong effect on teachers’ emotions, which was reflected in their surface and deep acting.

III. METHODOLOGY

A. Participants

Data were collected from interviews with 22 PYP English language university teachers: 20 full-timers, and 2 part-timers with over 7 years of teaching experience. The researcher invited all PYP teachers from different Saudi universities to participate in a larger study examining language teachers’ emotions via official email. At the beginning, 28 teachers completed the anonymous online questionnaire and addressed the demographic questions. Of these, 22 teachers participated in follow-up, semistructured interviews with the researcher. The focus of this study is to analyze the qualitative interview data provided by PYP teachers.

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<th>DEMOGRAPHIC INFORMATION OF PARTICIPANTS</th>
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<td>Number of participants</td>
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<tr>
<td>Full-time/part-time</td>
<td>Full-time: 20, Part-time: 2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Academic qualifications</td>
<td>MA: 18, PhD: 4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Educational training</td>
<td>Yes: 12, No: 10</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Years of teaching experience</td>
<td>8 years: 3, 9 years: 7, 10+ years: 12</td>
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B. Interviews

In 2022, upon finishing the second semester, teachers were contacted to participate in interviews. The researcher prepared some questions while considering the theoretical background of the study to examine the teachers’ emotions, perceptions, experiences, and reactions towards teaching. During the interview, she showed interest in the participants’ stories and created a friendly atmosphere to allow them to speak freely and to attain the maximum benefit from the interview before analyzing the data. During a video phone call (using Google Duo), which took about 60–70-min, the participants received questions regarding emotional labor and institutional power related to the requirement to prepare the students for the final evaluation test: (1) Do your students have to pass the final evaluation test in order to qualify
for the first academic level? If so, what are your feelings toward this test? (2) Do you feel that this test has a positive or negative effect on your teaching?

Moreover, some questions that were designed to uncover teachers’ feeling toward the conflict between their professional training, knowledge, and beliefs and the PYP requirements were presented: (1) Did you experience any tension between the required feeling rules of teaching and your training and/or beliefs? (2) What do you usually do to help your students pass the test? (3) What are your feelings toward low-level students? (4) What are your teaching responsibilities? (5) Do you enjoy teaching? If not, what aspects do you not enjoy? (6) Can you manage your emotions during teaching? (7) What strategies do you employ to manage your feelings?

The goal of these questions is to analyze emotional labor in its relation to feeling rules and the conflict between institutional demands and pedagogical preferences. In this study, the final evaluation test conducted at the end of the PYP is used as an example of top-down institutional policies that may conflict with English language teachers’ training and/or pedagogical preferences, thereby producing emotion labor. During the interviews, comprehensive notes of interviews were recorded carefully. Participants were informed that all personal information would be kept confidential. The university’s Institutional Review Board approved this study (638229514694193875).

C. Data Analysis

The recorded interviews were transcribed to be analyzed qualitatively. The researcher read the manuscript many times to understand the deep feelings and to group the discussion into appropriate themes. The first draft was coded with relevant quotations. The references to respondents’ responses were labeled as Excerpt 1, Excerpt 2, etc., to avoid any type of bias and to show that the focus is on the speech, not on the identity of the speakers. Then the researcher decided to group the data into the following themes: (a) orienting to feeling rules, and (2) adapting to institutional policies, teachers’ preferences and other beliefs. The discussion of the findings is accompanied with examples from the data.

IV. Results and Discussion

A. Orienting to Feeling Rules

During the interviews with the teachers, it was evident that they had some hidden emotions toward their profession and their students. All of the teachers in this study revealed that they are aware of emotional norms in their university, institutional contexts, and teaching context, particularly in regard to the need to challenge situations both physically and emotionally. PYP teachers are responsible for pushing students to be successful academically and to satisfy the institutional power. Most of them (i.e., 19 out of 22) were trying to achieve excellence and professionalism by following the feeling rules that expect them to control their emotions, be honest and polite, and tell students what is appropriate. Some of these comments are mentioned in Excerpts 1 and 2.

Excerpt 1

In my relationship with my students, I try to create distance, both physical and emotionally, from challenging situations. Respect is the more important aspect of my relation with my students. At the same time, I have to be flexible so that my students get the feeling of being comfortable, secure, and trusted. Also, I focus on being professional in my craft. Professional in teaching, presenting, modeling, and dealing with students. EFL students are struggling with learning English, so building a good relationship mixed with tender emotions is necessary to facilitate the learning process.

Excerpt 2

For me, I believe in keeping a good relationship with my students with the circle of respect. I feel sympathy for low-level students, so I double the efforts with extra time since they are in the beginning of their English journey. Students are struggling with the language, fearing the final evaluation test, and new to the university rules. Thus, the role of the teacher is to provide a feeling of security and confidence, along with receiving an optimal method of teaching. I try my best to perform the expected emotions required from the institutions.

All PYP members are required to be flexible and build a sense of comfort, security, trust, and respect. Furthermore, being professional is the most important aspect of belonging to PYP staff in an EFL context. They strive to make students feel comfortable and trustful so that the teaching process becomes easier and more interesting.

From these excerpts, it was concluded that teachers exhibit lower levels of surface acting of emotional labor. PYP teachers rarely hide their real feelings or pretend to show fake emotions. Surface acting occurs when teachers regulate their performance without affecting their inner feelings (i.e., express emotions that are not actually felt), whereas deep acting happens when employees adjust their internal feelings to be consistent with required rules (Benesch, 2020). This means that they use words and body language to express their real emotions to students. Additionally, it was evident that the teachers’ emotional labor for surface acting is at a lower level, but is at a higher level for deep acting. PYP teachers expressed their efforts to try to actually feel those emotions that they are required to feel. In the interview, all of the teachers expressed deep feelings of trying their best to connect successfully, motivation, and commitment for EFL learners to help them pass the final evaluation test required for PYP, as shown in Excerpts 1 and 2. This aspect shows that PYP teachers’ high levels of deep acting and naturally-felt emotions can be explained as teachers recognize these roles. The teachers’ use of such behaviors is an indicator of their occupational professionalism because emotional
labor encompasses controlling real emotions and displays certain behaviors required by institutional goals (Nazari & Karimpour, 2022). The results of the analysis of the EFL teachers’ interviews regarding feeling rules were in line with the results of Benesch (2020) and Gkonou and Miller (2021), who confirmed in their analysis of teachers’ narratives that they believe that they performed the feeling rules that were expected from them. Additionally, most of the teachers in the researchers’ studies exhibited lower levels of surface acting due to emotional labor.

B. Institutional Policies, Teachers’ Preferences, and Other Beliefs

Benesch (2018a) believed that emotional labor stems from the struggle “between feeling obliged to do something and uncertainty about what to do” (p. 6). It is considered a top-down policy known as autocratic leadership in which the process is controlled by a higher institution (Alshakhi & Le Ha, 2020). In this study, a PYP institution designs an exam-driven curriculum and assessment procedure that all EFL teachers must follow. Around 10 EFL teachers (approximately 45%) found this policy contradictory to their own pedagogical knowledge and preferences to help students. The following are some recordings of teachers’ experiences:

Excerpt 3

Teachers are required to follow the set curriculum and assessment prescriptions, and thus, they focus on how to perform these prescriptions exactly. I don’t think I’m really enjoying such an experience with some sort of obligation.

Excerpt 4

I’m not satisfied with the way they are dictating to us what to do. Following such prescription would make us focus on what is done and what is not done. Nothing is mentioned about students’ satisfaction, security, comfort, and other related emotions. Improvement is connected to satisfaction.

The quotes above reveal that teachers hardly enjoy the experience of teaching when they are required to follow the set curriculum and assessment prescriptions. The teachers confirmed that following fixed assessment rubrics provided by the top prevented them from grading the students freely. However, they were allowed to provide feedback and discussion on their grades. The teachers also stated that this type of teaching conflicted with their professional trainings.

Excerpt 5

We are taught a specific grading system and there is no way to change it, and this opposes what we were already trained to do: Share the grading system with our students. Students have the right to share their opinion with the teachers, including about the curriculum and grading system. This makes me uncomfortable.

Alshakhi and Le Ha’s (2020) study supported the results of this study, with the EFL teachers expressing their dissatisfaction with the requirement to follow the set curriculum and assessment prescriptions. They commented, “Yet the teachers are required to comply with the rules and are not supposed to express their disagreement or discontent” (p. 9). This demonstrates that teachers were becoming the source of students’ discomfort since they were unwilling to comply with students’ preferences, creating a feeling of unappreciation for teachers because students were unable to express their frustration and discontent. Some teachers confirmed that students were unsatisfied with their grades because of the fixed rubrics, which made it difficult to answer their questions.

The teachers revealed that they were discouraged with the prescribed curriculum and assessments and felt that they were forced to use it without adding their own ideas or adjusting them according to their students’ needs. One of the teachers commented, “The most effective assessment method is the one designed to fulfill students’ needs. I believe that my students need more than one evaluation method to reflect their progress in the foreign language.” The interviews with other teachers revealed that students in the PYP are considered beginners, suggesting that their teachers should participate in editing the curriculum to conform with the students’ current needs. Otherwise, students’ motivation and participation will drop significantly. In short, teachers felt that the top-down policy was unjust and unfair. Such identification overlaps with the findings of Benesch’s (2020) study, who represented emotional labor as a discourse of injustice and unfairness. In his study, the teachers revealed their rejection of the methods of standardized testing and the grading rubrics, and expressed feelings of disappointment because they believe these rules should help students, not block them.

According to Benesch (2018a), emotional labor results from dissonance between institutional policies and teachers’ professional training and beliefs. As mentioned earlier regarding the institutional policy, curriculum, and grading rubrics, there is another factor creating emotional labor in this study. Almost all of the teachers who participated in this study agreed that PYP students have low English language proficiency and struggle to apply the given curriculum and assessment methods, which may contradict the students’ level of proficiency. The literature examined the difficulties and obstacles that Arab learners and their teachers face and discovered that EFL learners with low proficiency found it difficult to perform tasks that required them to think in English (Ahmed, 2018; Massri, 2019; Mohammad & Hazarika, 2016). As a result, those students carried negative attitudes toward the English language. Their teachers need to be trained on how to handle such problems to overcome these challenges more effectively. In this study, the teachers explained that PYP students language proficiencies and skills were generally very low, and their vocabulary repertoire was limited and basic, which required the teachers to spend more time on word building and sentence level writing exercises. One of the teachers commented:

Excerpt 6
The curriculum and the grading rubric must account for students’ low proficiency level. Some tasks and assessment rubrics should consider the different individual differences so that weak students get the chance to develop their proficiency level. We are struggling and wasting time explaining the goal of the activities.

This shows that PYP teachers experience high levels of emotional exhaustion and disappointment and low levels of motivation due to students’ low proficiency levels. They expressed their concerns about PYP teaching because they provide the maximum amount of help to increase proficiency level. In this particular situation, students need more time to internalize the new language elements and employ them in different authentic tasks. In this way, the language level of students is considered an important factor to be activated in curriculum design. The findings of Alshakhi and Le Ha’s (2020) study supported the findings of this study, suggesting that students’ low proficiency level creates emotional labor and disappointment for EFL teachers who struggle to teach weak students, especially writing skills. Other related studies (e.g., Benesch, 2020; Miller & Gkonou, 2018; Nazari & Karimpour, 2022) reported that students’ proficiency level, along with institutional policies, have a strong effect on teachers’ emotions, which was reflected in their surface and deep acting.

V. PEDAGOGICAL IMPLICATION AND CONCLUSION

This article explained PYP teachers’ emotional labor and how it causes dissonance. In this context, PYP teachers are responsible for ensuring that EFL students pass the final evaluation test. This article also addresses issues related to the conflict between teachers’ professional training, knowledge, and beliefs and the institutional requirements. It should be noted that this study constitutes one of the very few attempts to discuss PYP teachers’ emotional labor and well-being, showing that research into this field is still in its infancy. As such, more studies are needed to allow for more in-depth understandings of emotional labor and its relation to other factors, such as emotional capital, emotional intelligence, creativity, and motivation. Other types of participants can be employed, such as elementary lower levels teachers, who are new to the profession.

Furthermore, in this study, PYP teachers’ reflexive comments on their emotional labor, dissonance, and institutional power were recorded as answers to questions that were not targeting these topics per se. Although using teachers’ reflections is an effective way to detect more in-depth analysis of teachers’ responses, other tools and types of questions could be used to enrich the study. It is advised that researchers approach such reflections holistically and longitudinally by considering the affective dimension and exploring how it contributes toward changing teachers’ practices and experiences with emotions. As a matter of fact, the topic of reflection and emotions is often neglected in educational programs and training despite their importance in preparing teachers emotionally before and during, as stated by the 22 PYP teachers in this study (Nazari et al., 2023).

The sense of obligation to address teachers as frontline soldiers in the war against students’ shortcomings, low proficiency levels, and motivation may cause emotional labor that negatively affects teachers’ performance. The developmental stage in acquiring basic academic English skills requires a lot of patience and positive emotions and does not only rely on teaching efforts. As a result, some important pedagogical implications are offered here. First, it is evident that the PYP teachers in this study exhibit high levels of deep acting and naturally-felt emotions, which could be explained as teachers internalizing the required feeling roles. Thus, teachers’ commitment to such behaviors is an indicator of their understanding of the required behaviors and the emotional norms in their university, institutional contexts, and occupational professionalism. This is because emotional labor involves controlling emotions to exhibit specific behaviors that are desired by the higher organization or institution as part of occupational success. It should be noted that the challenges that PYP teachers face double when the higher institution does not support or allow them to share their own voices, especially regarding the design of the curriculum and assessment. Participation from both teachers and students is capable of revealing unnoticed emotions, in which negative emotions were transferred into positive ones through sharing and caring. This would positively encourage comfortable feelings of confidence, value, and effectiveness in teachers from the university.

This study also signifies the importance of PYP teachers understanding the requirements of higher education institutions, the demands and needs of EFL students, and the strategies suitable for teaching low proficiency students. By doing so, most of the burden and emotional struggle will be reduced. The PYP teachers in this study found that the rubrics and assessment tools imposed by the university were unproductive due to their neglect of teachers’ and students’ opinions and of students’ low proficiency needs. Such restrictions in this top-down structure prevented teachers from implementing any assessment tools or rubrics that appeared practical and effective. In Alshakhi and Le Ha’s (2020) study, the EFL teachers experienced similar authority from the university and commented, “Experiencing such a power shift… can affect these teachers’ self-esteem and professional confidence—the kind of emotion labor that ought to result in institutional change and support” (p. 12). Thus, using this type of power over PYP teachers can reduce confidence, motivation, and self-esteem, which affects their performance negatively. Therefore, this study recommends that authorities and institutions involve teachers in designing the curriculum, including assessment tools, strategies, activities, and rubrics, to fulfill students’ needs of different proficiency levels and to track their progress in the language. This is related to the activism transformation that is recommended by Benesch (2020), who explored the emotional labor of teachers who suffered from institutional power that opposed their teaching and training beliefs. The researcher...
analyzed teachers’ responses and suggested that it is an honor to view emotional labor as part of teacher activism rather than a psychological obstacle.

The researcher of this study concluded this article with her own reflection, as she was once a faculty member of the PYP in the university. In the comments, she showed her deep support for all PYP teachers through some critical participation related to the emotional labor that she and the participants experienced.

I noticed some similarities and differences between the emotional experiences of the 22 participants and my own experience. For instance, all of us had to follow prescribed curriculum, grading rubrics, and specific instructions regarding assessments and preparing students for the final evaluation test. I agree with teachers regarding involving the staff in designing the curriculum and tracking the students’ progress, which would inevitably positively transform the productive nature of the PYP. Imposing unfamiliar instructions would make the burden heavier both emotionally and physically and would barely consider the students’ needs, specifically low proficiency students. PYP students need tangible support. I noticed that most Saudi students tend to be submissive and accept grades without objection, and that providing them with emotional and academic support would help them overcome many of the psychological obstacles they face in the beginning of their learning journey. Though I was one of the earliest members to teach in the PYP, I did not have enough experience to deal with the difficulties and to share my experience with others. I strive to find my own way to deal with all of the difficulties in teaching low proficiency students and following the prescribed curriculum. At the very least, current teachers are lucky because they can benefit from others’ experiences to avoid stepping on the same rake again (Tahani, reflection).

This comment showed that the researcher had treated her research participants’ emotions and emotional labor with support, understanding, and ethical consideration. Such reflection represented the researcher's emotional labor and that her experience undergoing the same journey as the participants. This shed light on how this type of research could encourage other researchers to share their own experiences and use their conversations as a type of support and solidarity.

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Interference: Affixation of Mongondow Dialect in Indonesian Learning

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Abstract—The bilingual backgrounds of speakers, the lack of loyalty to the target language, the limited knowledge of the vocabulary of the target language, the need for synonyms, the taking into consideration of prestige and style, and the inadequate command of the target language are just a few of the things that contribute to language interference. One type of language interference that occurs is interference where a native speaker uses a pattern or rule that leads to an error or incorrect form in the target language. The use of two or more languages by a speech community causes deviations in morphology, syntax, phonology, and even semantics. This deviation will result in a linguistic phenomenon known as interference. This research aimed to determine whether the Mongondow dialect can interfere with students' learning of Indonesian. The researcher wanted to investigate the impact of students’ Mongondow dialect particularly when communicating in diverse cultural environments. The researcher described the difficulties students had in forming verbs with affixation in the Mongondow local dialect in their learning of the Indonesian language. The researcher also identified factors that indicate how the local dialect can interfere with students' language skills. A qualitative descriptive method was chosen for the study because it is suitable for collecting data on the students' perceptions through semi-structured interviews. The researcher interviewed Indonesian teachers and students to understand why they ask certain types of questions during the teaching and learning process. The analysis of students' interferences in Indonesian learning revealed that the use of the Mongondow dialect in communication had a positive impact on the oral performance of students. Moreover, it also increased their motivation to learn and helped teachers build their self-confidence. Additionally, utilizing various media and facilities proved to be beneficial in promoting active learning among students.

Index Terms—affixation, verb, Mongondow language, Mongondow dialect

I. INTRODUCTION

The Bolaang Mongondow (Bolmong) language is spoken by the inhabitants of various villages in the Bolaang Mongondow Regency, North Sulawesi Province, Indonesia. The Mongondow dialect is one of the Bolaang Mongondow regional language dialects that is used by the community in Dumoga District, Bolaang Mongondow Regency. Together with the Mongondow dialect, the Bolaang Mongondow language is used to orally communicate between community members (Ratu et al., 2023). The dominance of the Bolaang Mongondow language, specifically the Mongondow dialect, surpasses that of Indonesian. In the Dumoga area, the utilization of the Bolaang Mongondow language, specifically the Mongondow dialect, is mandatory for all official activities to facilitate the smooth and efficient execution of the intended activities. For instance, the Bolaang Mongondow dialect is utilized as a language of instruction in elementary schools for learning Indonesian and other subjects.

In the Bolaang Mongondow dialect of Mongondow, the majority of words are derived from root words that possess word class, verb body, and numerals. Meanwhile, the formation of verbs occurs through the process of affixation to nouns and nouns and adjective word classes. Morphological processes in the Mongondow dialect serve to create new words or alter the structure of a base form which results in the emergence of new meanings. These processes also lead to changes in word class during the formation of these new words.

A verb is a group of words used to show actions, experiences, and existence. Verbs are an essential part of a sentence because without a verb, a complete sentence cannot be formed (Marianca et al., 2022; Lumentut & Lengkoan, 2021). According to Yendra, word formation is a way of connecting one morpheme with another morpheme, also known as word formation. The function of the process of forming new words is to change the basic form and bring out new meanings through affixation. Meanwhile, affixation (Chaer, 2007) is attaching an affix to a base or elemental form. In the affixation process, an affix is added to the basic form so that it becomes a word. Thus, the process of adding affixes will form new lexemes and new meanings.

Many studies have been done on affixation. For example, Utama (Hasibuan, 2019) examined affixes used to form verbs and nouns in Indonesian by investigating the verb-forming affixes in the Jakarta column of the Pos Kota Newspaper and their implications for learning Indonesian language and literature in high school.

Several similar studies of regional languages related to language interference have been carried out recently. For example, Laoh et al. (2021), Desak et al. (2022), Arifin (2016), Umamy et al. (2022), Andika et al. (2018), Reichenbach et al. (2019), Ulfa et al. (2020), and Adawiyah (2022) each examined the process of forming nouns in the Sangihe language. The results of their studies indicated that four types of affixes affect verb affixation (prefixes, infixes,
confixes, and affix combinations); three types of noun reduplication (full reduplication, partial reduplication, and synchronous reduplication); and two types of word compounding (idiomatic composite and composite nonidiomatic) in the Sangihe language. These studies show that the study of verb-forming affixations in the Bolaang Mongondow language, especially the Mongondow dialect, still needs to be explored.

Thus, this research aims to investigate the phenomenon of verb formation affixations in the Bolaang Mongondow language, specifically in the Mongondow dialect, and explore its significance in the context of regional languages in educational settings. The significance of researching language interference arises from the necessity to understand its implications. In the realm of linguistics, education holds paramount significance as the fundamental discipline that necessitates mastery. This proficiency is crucial for facilitating an effective teaching and learning environment within the classroom. In the context of the learning process, it has been observed that numerous students encounter difficulties in their learning journey. These challenges are not necessarily due to the complexity of the instructional material provided by the teacher; rather, they may stem from limitations in the language skills of the students. It is crucial to acknowledge and address these limitations in order to facilitate student development. By doing so, the teaching and learning process can be enhanced and yield positive outcomes in the future. The utilization of the Indonesian language is crucial in daily life to ensure seamless communication when interacting with individuals from different regions. This proficiency in Indonesian prevents any potential challenges or barriers to verbal expression. The utilization of the Indonesian language is relatively infrequent, as individuals commonly rely on local dialects for their daily communication. Therefore, certain students may still require assistance in comprehending the Indonesian language due to the prevalence of local languages and dialects used in everyday life, particularly within the confines of their homes. Local language or dialect often poses challenges for students when learning Indonesian, primarily due to variations in intonation and vocabulary in Indonesian pronunciation. These differences are closely linked to the intonation and pronunciation patterns of the local language. Sometimes, students engage in the process of learning Indonesian by practicing sentence construction. The incorporation of the local language is attributed to the semantic equivalence between Indonesian words and those in the local language. In certain instances, some students do not experience any impact from the pronunciation or intonation of the local language while acquiring proficiency in Indonesian. Typically, students tend to socialize and spend time with friends from diverse backgrounds, resulting in a gradual shift in pronunciation or intonation due to their increased exposure and familiarity with different accents. Indonesian is commonly used as a unifying language among individuals when socializing or forming friendships. However, it is important to note that there may be a notable influence on pronunciation and intonation from the local language. This is because students often interact with individuals from the same region resulting in the occasional use of regional or local languages. As a result, the usage of the Indonesian language becomes less frequent and the intonation and pronunciation used tend to align with the local language.

II. METHODOLOGY

This study employs a descriptive-analytic approach to directly elucidate the nature of the relationship between researchers and participants, as well as between the research objects and subjects. The analytical descriptive research method is a valuable approach for acquiring comprehensive and meaningful data that holds substantial influence over the content of the research. The data utilized in this study consisted of verbs derived from the affixation process. These verbs were directly obtained from native speakers of the Bolaang Mongondow language in the Dumoga dialect, and specifically from members of the local community and individuals residing in family settings within Dumoga Village, Dumoga District, Bolaang Mongondow Regency. The data collection process involved employing speaking, listening, and interview techniques.

A. Participants

In the present study, the individuals involved in the research were individuals who were proficient in the Mongondow language, specifically in the Mongondow dialect, as well as teachers who specialized in teaching Indonesian language subjects. The group was comprised of four students and two teachers specializing in the Indonesian language. The participants for this study were four students selected randomly from a pool of 2nd Grade junior high school students as 70% of them were native speakers of the Mongondow language with the Mongondow dialect.

B. Instruments

To gather data, we formulated pre-interview questions that focused on personal information. All participants were required to respond to inquiries regarding their challenges as students in learning the Indonesian language, inquiries about the obstacles faced by teachers when instructing students who speak the local Mongondow dialect, and questions about their personal experiences concerning how the Mongondow dialect influences their acquisition of the Indonesian language.
III. Result and Discussion

A. The Interference Idea

The impact of native language interference on the target language has been the subject of extensive investigation. Defined by Dulay et al. in 1982, interference is the habitual automatic transfer of the original language's surface structure to the surface of the target language. According to Lott (1983, p. 256), interference is "mother tongue errors in the learner's use of the foreign language."

Weinrich initially used the term interference to describe a systemized change in a language due to that language's interaction with parts of another language carried out by bilinguals (Chaer, 2015)—verb Forming Prefixes in Bolaang Mongondow Mongondow Dialect. The following are sociolinguists' foundational definitions of interference that can help the speaker recognize and understand it better:

(a). Interference With Dialogue

According to Spolsky and Hult (2008) and Rajend Meshtire (2008), the primary focus of sociolinguistics is language use within the speech community. Generally speaking, sociolinguistics pays special attention to the natural speech of representative groups within a community rather than the relatively idealized and unchanging patterns found in formal writing (Rusi & Zaqellari, 2022; Li & Zhang, 2023). As a result, it takes a non-prescriptive approach to its subject matter and refrains from making opinions about which linguistic features are superior. Sociolinguistics observes that languages regularly influence one another in multilingual societies where several languages coexist. Sociolinguistics, a field that investigates linguistic variation, focuses more on the structure of speakers' utterances than on the actual substance of communication.

(b). Modifications to Morphology

Many linguists believe that morphological interference occurs the most frequently. Absorbing other derivational affixes happens throughout word development. The right word structure for the Indonesian words kelaparan, kepikiran, and so on is sangat lapar and terbawa pikiran. The data above demonstrate how root words from indigenous or other languages are appended with certain affixes throughout word formation (FL).

(c). Indonesian Bahasa Integration Procedure

In Indonesia, integration is thought to be a distraction. According to Chaer (2015), integration is a feature of a foreign language that is regarded, used, and treated as a component of receptive language. Integration typically takes a long time because the rules of Bahasa Indonesia must be adhered to in terms of pronunciation, spelling, and even grammatical/syntactical features (Kansil et al., 2022).

Indonesia is made richer because its citizens speak multiple languages as a nation with a diverse population. The population of Indonesia is spread out among five large islands: Sumatera, Kalimantan, Jawa, Sulawesi, and Papua. Surprisingly, each large island is divided into smaller ones as well.

Each ethnic group in Indonesia has its own distinctive spoken language, known as an indigenous language (Haugh & Takeuchi, 2022; Sarab & Rad, 2022). Examples include Javanese, mainly spoken on the island of Java, Balinese, Palopo in South Sulawesi, and hundreds of other languages. In order to accommodate the hundreds of popular local languages spoken by the populace, Bahasa Indonesia (simply known as Indonesian) was made the country's official language.

Interference is the phenomenon of including elements of the first language into the use of the second language (or vice versa) which causes language errors because of differences in structure between the first and second languages. Moreover, according to Weinrich in (Maryana, 2011), there are several reasons why interference occurs. These reasons include (1) Bilingualism of speakers, (2) Habits in using the first language or mother tongue (B1), and (3) lack of new vocabulary acquired.

In essence, the interference problem is not significant, and it is common for humans to adapt their language independently. However, suppose humans live in a new environment with a language different from their mother tongue. In that case, humans must use the language used in the new environment to make it easier for them to communicate.

B. Local Languages

Local languages are predominantly utilized in everyday conversations while Bahasa Indonesia is commonly used at formal events. Furthermore, local languages inherently influence the utilization of Bahasa Indonesia during the process of integration.

Language acquisition in children can be influenced by various factors including the home environment (i.e., parents and adults), the school environment, and other environmental factors. All of these factors exert distinct influences on children. Time, place, socio-cultural factors, and means of expression exert influence on an individual's idiolect. These factors are not independent entities, but rather they mutually enhance and support one another.

Dialect refers to a linguistic variation employed by a specific community of language speakers, characterized by shared features and often linked to geographical factors. Meanwhile, Indonesian serves as the standard or official
language in Indonesia. Dialect can be categorized into two main types: geographical dialect and social dialect. The emergence of dialects within languages can be attributed to various factors with non-linguistic influences such as politics, culture, and the economy playing a significant role. Finally, the diversity of dialects and accents varies depending on the speaker.

C. Word Formation in the Mongondow Dialect

(a). The Prefix

Prefixes in affixation are typically positioned at the initial position of the primary word form. In addition to the process of pasting, word formation or affixation can be achieved through the methods of fusion, affixation, or the addition of affixes at the beginning of the base word. When combined with a pre-categorial verb morpheme, the prefix \{moN-\}, for example, conveys the semantic notion of performing an activity or action as denoted by the root morpheme. Moreover, this prefix is usually attached to a noun as shown in the following examples:

- \{moN-\} + /pahis/ → /momahis/ “write”
- \{moN-\} + /baldl/ → /mombotak/ “split”
- \{moN-\} + /dagum/ → /modagum/ “sew” or “sewn”
- \{moN-\} + /duha=/ → /monduha/ “spit”

To prefix is to add sounds at the beginning of a primary form of a word. Moreover, by combining words, it can also process the formation of words or affixes and can also be added by attaching affixes to the beginning of the base word. Regular prefixes are pre-categorial verb morphemes or words where the morpheme can no longer be emphasized or reduced in meaning which states that the meaning is carrying out activities for the root morphemes.

Additionally, the prefix \{moN-\} which is coupled with a verb root morpheme expresses the meaning of carrying out an activity or action using what is contained in the root morpheme.

- \{moN-\} + /garajaga/ → /monggarajag/ “saw” or “sawing”
- \{moN-\} + /duha=/ → /monduha/ “spit”

(b). The Infix

An infix is an affix inserted in the middle of a root word as an addition or attachment through the affixation process. Examples include \{-urn-\}, \{-im-\} and \{-in-\}:

- \{-urn-\} + /tindok/ → /turnindok/ “stand”
- \{-urn-\} + /gotupl/ → /gurnotupl/ “erupt”
- \{-urn-\} + /kosing/ → /kumosing/ “laugh”
- \{-im-\} + /tindog/ → /timindog/ “already standing”
- \{-im-\} + /kosing/ → /kimosing/ “already laughing”
- \{-in-\} + /lopot/ → /linopot/ “cut”
- \{-in-\} + /kapit/ → /kinapit/ “tuned”

(c). The Suffix

Next is the Suffix. Suffixes or suffixes are affixes that are added or attached to the end of the basic word form, thus forming a new equivalent word. It is derived from the Latin “suffixum” which means “to attach after”. Examples below are shown using the suffix \{-ai\}.

- \{inalapa\} + \{-ai\} → /inalapai/ “take” (here)”
- \{iraruk\} + \{-ai\} → /iraruai/ “keep it away”

Notice that combining the suffix \{-ai\} with morphemes from precategorial verbs takes on the meaning of “ordered to carry out activities as mentioned in the base morpheme to those who order to carry out activities/actions”. Moreover, when added to adjective base morphemes, it takes on the meaning “ordered to carry out activities/actions to make more than those mentioned in base morpheme”.

(d). The Confix

The confix \{ko-a\}, coupled with the root morpheme of the precategorial verb base morpheme, causes the meaning of the activity/action to be “according to what is stated in the base morpheme’. Here are some examples using the confix \{ko-a\}:

- \{ko—a\} + /create/ → /kobuatal/ “lift” or “can be lifted”
- \{ko—a\} + /gama/ → /kogamaal/ “take” or “can be taken”
- \{ko—a\} + /kal/ → /konalal/ “dig” or “can be dug”
- \{ko—a\} + /dagum/ → /kodagumal/ “sew” or “can be sewn”
- \{ko—a\} + /domok/ → /kodomokal/ “catch” or “can be caught”
According to an analysis of the data gathered through a survey, most students agreed with the claims about how the environment, internal factors like self-confidence, and external factors like local dialect interfere with their ability to speak. The researcher learned about the interactions among the students during oral output for those categories through responses such as:

“Yes, it is because several intonations in Indonesian cannot be conveyed due to the influence of local intonation”.

“Yes, it affects because of the differences in vocabulary and pronunciation in Indonesian and regional languages, so it often takes a long time to learn and adapt to different vocabulary and pronunciation”.

“It can affect in the form of local language interference; Indonesian language users can use local or regional languages”.

“Sometimes. Because there are several words/dialects from the same local language as Indonesian or the use of mixed languages”.

Local language or dialect often poses challenges for students when learning Indonesian primarily due to variations in intonation and vocabulary in Indonesian pronunciation. These differences are closely linked to the intonation and pronunciation patterns of the local language. Sometimes students engage in the process of learning Indonesian by practicing sentence construction and communication. Combined with the indigenous language, this phenomenon occurs due to the semantic equivalence between Indonesian words and their counterparts in the local language. Some students do not experience any impact from the pronunciation or intonation of the local language while acquiring proficiency in Indonesian. Others may exhibit changes in pronunciation or intonation due to their social interactions with friends from diverse regions, as they become accustomed to these linguistic variations over time.

Indonesian is commonly used as a unifying language among individuals when socializing or forming friendships. However, it is important to note that the pronunciation and intonation of the local language may have a significant influence on the way Indonesian is spoken. This is because students often have a limited social circle consisting of individuals from a specific region resulting in occasional use of regional or local languages instead of Indonesian. Furthermore, the intonation and pronunciation used in these instances often align with the local language rather than standard Indonesian.

Interference is a significant contributing factor to language errors as it disrupts the integrity of a language system. It is an error resulting from the inclination to assimilate the pronunciation (utterance) of one language to another. The scope of pronunciation encompasses various aspects such as sound units, grammar, and vocabulary. Furthermore, interference is a linguistic phenomenon characterized by deviations from established language rules which arise when an individual acquires proficiency in two or more languages.

IV. CONCLUSION

Not all affixes in the Bolaang Mongondow dialect of Mongondow can form verbs. The affixes discussed in this context primarily attach to word classes such as numerical and adjective nouns. Additionally, certain affixation processes are accompanied by morphophonemic processes. The Mongondow dialect is one of those dialects that undergoes a process of formation characterized by events that can persuade the speaker to draw conclusions. Whether it be in a playful, angry, or persuasive manner, speakers can incorporate onomatopoeic words into their speech when communicating with others to elicit a desired response from the interlocutor. The act of embellishing words with similar or distinct sounds or dialects from another individual is known as dialect formation. The dialect under consideration is the Bolaang Mongondow dialect.

Based on the aforementioned conclusions, the author presents several suggestions. Firstly, this research is anticipated to provide additional references for researchers interested in conducting studies in the field of sociolinguistics, particularly in the area of dialects. Additionally, it aims to enhance the general public’s understanding and recognition of language differences and variations in everyday communication, with a specific focus on the Bolaang Mongondow community.

REFERENCES


Donal Matheos Ratu is a lecturer at Manado State University. He completed his doctoral studies in Linguistics and currently serves as Vice Chancellor for Student Affairs at Unima.
Investigating the Impact of L2 Attainment on L1 Attrition: The Case of Saudi Children Studying in International Schools in Saudi Arabia

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Abstract—Despite the significant body of research in linguistics, there has been limited exploration of the attrition or retention of the first language in a homeland after a person ceases to use or learn it. However, this phenomenon has become apparent in the Saudi community, particularly in the younger generation who are losing their mother tongue (L1) despite living in their homeland. To address this issue, the present study focuses on L1 attrition and examines lexical disfluency in the oral production of Arabic among 36 Saudi children living in Saudi Arabia. They are L1 Arabic speakers who learned English as their second language L2 while studying in international schools from grade one to six. The study compares the level of their Arabic proficiency to that of other Saudi children studying in national schools. The latter group speaks Arabic as their L1 and English as a foreign language. The aim of the study is to identify the extent to which exposure to English as L2 affects the oral production of Arabic among L1 Arabic speakers. This study is significant because the loss of L1 can result in the erosion of cultural identity and the weakening of social ties within a community (Genesee, 2008). The study provides insights into the factors that contribute to L1 attrition. This can inform efforts to preserve Arabic language and culture in Saudi Arabia, particularly among younger generations who are at risk of losing their L1. The results showed high level of attrition in the attritor group.

Index Terms—attrition, attainment, picture naming task, bilingualism, lexical oral production

I. INTRODUCTION

The impact of L2 attainment on L1 attrition has been a topic of research interest in the field of language acquisition. In the case of Saudi children studying in international schools in Saudi Arabia, there may be a potential impact of L2 English on L1 Arabic proficiency. Several studies have shown that second language acquisition can have an impact on first language proficiency, particularly in cases where the second language is used more frequently or where the individual is more proficient in the second language than the first. In the context of Saudi Arabia, where English is widely used in international schools and business settings, there may be a risk of Arabic language attrition among Saudi children. To investigate this phenomenon, researchers could conduct a longitudinal study that tracks the language development of Saudi children over time, comparing their Arabic language proficiency to their English language proficiency. The study could involve administering standardized language tests in both languages at regular intervals, as well as conducting interviews and observing the children’s language use in naturalistic settings.

Researchers could also consider factors that may contribute to L1 attrition, such as language use patterns at home and in social settings, attitudes towards the two languages, and the role of formal language instruction in both Arabic and English. This could help identify potential areas where language support or intervention could be provided to prevent or mitigate L1 attrition among Saudi children. Overall, investigating the impact of L2 attainment on L1 attrition among Saudi children studying in international schools in Saudi Arabia could shed light on the complex relationship between first and second language acquisition, as well as provide insights into how language policies and practices can support bilingualism and biliteracy in multilingual contexts.

It is not uncommon for individuals living abroad to notice changes in their speech or receive feedback from native speakers about their foreign-sounding language. However, it is unusual for individuals to receive such comments while living their entire lives in their homeland. The loss of one's first language can result in feeling like a foreigner in their own culture, despite being immersed in it. According to Schmid and Kopke's (2007) research, second language (L2) speakers can become integrated into using their second language to such a degree that they become native-like in their L2 but foreign to their L1. Consistent use of L2 on a daily basis can lead to a reduction in L1 use and input, which can lead to attrition of L1 knowledge over time, making it challenging to access the previously stored knowledge of the first language.

In Saudi Arabia, there is a high prevalence of teaching children in international schools, where English is the primary language used for learning. With 43 international schools in the capital alone, the question remains as to how much Arabic, the first language of these multilingual Saudi children, they will acquire and retain. The phenomenon of first language attrition is still being studied by scholars and parents in society. To contribute to filling this research gap, this
paper examines the lexical oral production of Arabic, the first language, in the homeland of multilingual Saudi children after enrolling in international schools. The study focuses on the mental lexicon, as it is the most vulnerable area of linguistic knowledge in language attrition.

A. Defining Language Attrition

Language attrition is a phenomenon where a speaker’s language skills in their first language deteriorate due to reduced use or exposure, while they learn and use a second language. It can result in a loss of fluency, accuracy, and complexity in the first language, making it more difficult for individuals to express themselves or understand others using their native language. This phenomenon can occur in individuals who move to a foreign country, but it can also occur in individuals who continue to live in their home country while primarily using a second language.

Research in language attrition started as the study of societal language loss and death. However, in more recent research, the focus shifted to the study of decrease in proficiency of previously acquired languages either as a first language or a second language (Kopke & Schmid, 2004). Language attrition or loss is described as a negative change in language abilities for an individual over time. De Bot and Van Els (1985) defined attrition into many types, one of them is loss of L1 in an L1-environment. Ecke and Hall (2013) defined attrition as the reduction or impairment to the access of language systems for a bi- or multilingual speaker. Attrition is an interdisciplinary topic that has linguistic and extralinguistic factors (Bardovi-Harling & Stringer, 2010). Most recent research study language attrition in bilinguals of two languages or two language systems in interaction (Jessner et al., 2021). This phenomenon is referred to as “attrition” which is an erosion of L1 knowledge (Schmid, 2008). Huffines (1991) believes it is a shift or convergence towards L2. Moreover, Cook (2003) thinks it is an L2 interference that leads to an unconscious change in an individual’s language.

B. A Bilingual Approach to Language Growth and Decline

Traditionally, language acquisition studies concentrate on increase and ignore decline. A human’s bilingual system consists of nested systems rather than separate systems for each language (Herdina & Jessner, 2002). Those systems are in interaction with each other and with their environment in an ongoing process that leads to language development in both positive growth (acquisition) or negative growth (attrition) (Jessner & Megens, 2021). The main driving factor is individual’s communicative needs which are a mixture of internal and external factors. The conscious or unconscious effort to maintain language is known as language maintenance effort (LME) can be composed of the language use factor and the linguistic hypothesis verification or corroboration factor. The absence of LME is the core of attrition. In bilingual and multilingual speakers, the systems compete negatively for cognitive capacities in processing and recalling (De Bot, 2004). The change observed in the native language of second language learners is considered according to some scientists as a case of incomplete L1 acquisition rather than language loss because those kids may have failed to acquire the required linguistics properties of L1 in their childhood due to early exposure to L2 on the expense of L1 (e.g., Montrul, 2008; Polinsky, 1997).

A bilingual approach to language growth and decline involves studying both the first language (L1) and the second language (L2) of bilingual individuals to understand how their language skills develop and change over time. Bilingualism can have both positive and negative effects on language growth and decline. On the one hand, being bilingual can enhance cognitive abilities and lead to better language proficiency in both languages. On the other hand, the use of one language at the expense of the other can lead to attrition of language skills in the language that is not frequently used. To effectively manage language growth and decline in bilingual individuals, it is important to encourage and maintain active use of both languages. Bilingual language programs and language maintenance programs can help individuals maintain and enhance their language skills in both languages. Additionally, it is important to provide opportunities for language use in both personal and professional settings to promote continued development and use of both languages.

C. Incomplete Acquisition and Attrition in the L1

Incomplete acquisition and attrition are two related concepts that describe the ways in which a person’s first language (L1) may be affected by changes in their language use and environment. Incomplete acquisition refers to situations where a person has not fully acquired all aspects of their L1 due to a lack of exposure, insufficient input, or other factors. For example, a child who grows up in a bilingual home may not acquire full proficiency in both languages if one language is used much less frequently than the other. Attrition, on the other hand, refers to the loss or decay of language proficiency in the L1 due to changes in the individual’s language use or environment. This can happen, for example, when a person moves to a new country where their L1 is not spoken as frequently or when they stop using their L1 for an extended period of time. Both incomplete acquisition and attrition can have significant impacts on an individual’s language abilities and may affect their overall communication skills. However, research suggests that language proficiency can be regained through continued exposure and use, particularly in childhood when the brain is most flexible and adaptable.

Many studies have investigated linguistic divergence in the L1 of immigrants due to incomplete or reduced L1 input (Schmidd, 2013). Among the factors that are believed to play a role in attrition are interrupted and insufficient L1 input, exposure to a simplified reduced version of L1 input, language shift between L1 & L2 and lack of schooling in L1. Such
investigation might explain the case of L1 attrition for kids in their homeland since they pass through similar circumstances (Köpke, 2002; Montrul, 2008).

Research on incomplete acquisition and attrition has also highlighted the unique challenges and benefits of bilingualism. For example, studies have shown that bilingual children may exhibit incomplete acquisition in one or both of their languages, depending on the amount and quality of input received (Genesee, 2008). Additionally, research has shown that bilingualism can impact language processing and cognitive flexibility, with bilingual individuals exhibiting enhanced cognitive control and executive function (Bialystok, 2007). The research on incomplete acquisition and attrition has highlighted the complex and dynamic nature of language acquisition and use. Understanding these phenomena is essential for developing effective language interventions and promoting language maintenance and development.

D. The Age of Onset

The age of onset for acquiring a first language (L1) in Saudi Arabia is typically in infancy or early childhood, when children begin to develop their language skills through exposure to their parents and other family members who speak the language at home. In terms of learning a second language (L2), the age of onset can vary widely depending on individual circumstances and educational opportunities. English is often taught as a second language in schools in Saudi Arabia, and many students begin formal English instruction in primary school, around the age of six or seven. However, some students may not begin learning English until later in their education or may have opportunities to learn other languages such as French or Spanish.

The age of onset for L2 acquisition can have an impact on language proficiency, with some research suggesting that younger learners may have an advantage in terms of developing native-like proficiency in their L2 (Luk et al., 2011). However, many factors beyond age can also influence language learning success, such as the quality of instruction and opportunities for language use outside of the classroom.

The age of onset of reduced L1 input seems to be one of the determined factors in the degree of incomplete acquisition since those individuals are exposed to L2 at an early childhood before they fully developed L1 lexical system (Montrul, 2008; Polinsky, 1997). Incomplete acquisition of L1 in immigrants is found to be affecting all aspects of language including grammar and lexical retrieval (Kohnert & Bates, 2002; Kohnert et al., 1999).

E. Language Use and Contact

In Saudi Arabia, Arabic is the official language and is used as the first language (L1) of the majority of population. However, due to the country’s economic and political relationships with other countries, English is widely used as a second language (L2), especially in business and education. The use of L2 English in Saudi Arabia is primarily a result of the country’s modernization and globalization efforts. English language instruction has been a part of the Saudi educational system since the 1950s, and today it is a mandatory subject in all public schools from grade 1 to grade 12. Additionally, many private schools also offer English-medium instruction. In addition to formal education, English is widely used in the media, particularly in news broadcasts, and it is also used in the workplace, particularly in multinational companies and in the oil and gas industry. As a result, many Saudis have a high level of proficiency in English, and it is often used as a lingua franca between speakers of different dialects of Arabic.

Despite the widespread use of English in Saudi Arabia, Arabic remains the dominant language in most spheres of life. Saudi Arabic is the language of daily conversation, and it is used in formal settings such as government, legal proceedings, and religious discourse. However, there are concerns among some language experts and educators that the increasing use of English may have negative effects on the preservation and development of the Arabic language and its dialects in Saudi Arabia.

Recall of lexical items depends on rapid and effective access to language stored in memory (particularly lexis) which follows productive skills (Hansen, 2011). Attrition is influenced by linguistic and extralinguistic factors. The most prominent factor is usage in which there is a negative correlation between them.

According to the activation threshold hypothesis (ATH), the item in the memory requires a certain level of neural impulses to activate it, however the activation threshold goes down each time the item is recalled (Paradis, 2004). The raises of the activation put equivalent item in different languages in competition which leads the little-used item to be stored in the memory in a more effortful and less accessible location that requires high threshold due to lack of use. Some studies proved that the infrequent usage of L1 leads to attrition (De Bot et al., 1991).
not realize that their children's English proficiency has surpassed their first language until several years after living in the host country. At this point, children may begin to ignore or avoid using their first language, which can lead to language loss.

Despite the potential challenges, it is crucial for families and communities to develop a respectful attitude towards the first language to prevent language loss. Parents may need to be proactive in encouraging their children to use and learn their first language, while also acknowledging the importance of the host society's language. Additionally, communities can play a role in creating opportunities for children to use their first language, such as language classes or cultural events. Policymakers and educators must prioritize the maintenance of the first language among immigrant children. Specifically, in the case of Saudi students’ children who are temporarily immigrating, parents and communities should encourage the use and learning of the first language to prevent language loss and promote confidence and identity formation.

B. Critical Period Hypothesis

According to Lenneberg's (1967) critical period hypothesis, children are more capable of learning a second language than adults. This emphasizes the importance of introducing a second language at an early age. However, some researchers argue that learning a second language as a foreign language at an early age may not be as advantageous as learning it as a first language. This raises the question of the optimal age for language learning. There are differing opinions on the optimal age for language learning, with some researchers supporting early second language acquisition, while others suggest that older learners may achieve higher levels of proficiency (Richards & Yamada-Yamamoto, 1998). For example, Stern (1975) study on 17,000 British children learning French over five years found that older children outperformed younger children.

The optimal age for language learning remains a complex and debated issue among researchers. While some argue for early second language acquisition, others suggest that older learners may achieve higher levels of proficiency. Language learning is influenced by a range of factors, and individual differences which must be considered when determining the best approach to language learning.

III. THE STUDY

A. Research Questions and Predictions

The study was guided by the following research questions:
1. Is there statistically significant difference between the national school and international school students in terms of attrition?
2. Are there statistically significant attrition differences among international school students’ group in relation to personal related variables (gender and age)?
3. Is there a significant correlation between attrition in the experimental group and personal background?

B. Method

(a). The Research Design and Settings

Jaspaert et al. (1989) proposed a quasi-experimental design as the most effective method for studying first language attrition. This design involves two groups, an experimental group and a control group, where treatment is not applied by the researcher. The two groups are similar in all other variables except for the factor under investigation, which in this case is language loss. In a comparative study, both qualitative and quantitative research methods were used to investigate first language attrition. Qualitative data were collected through oral tests, while quantitative analysis was used to analyze the binary responses (correct or incorrect) obtained from the tests. The study involved two groups of participants: the experimental group, comprising international school students (ISS), and the control group, comprising national school students (NSS).

The study was conducted in various primary international and general schools in Saudi Arabia, and the data were collected using the imaging technique. This technique is effective in highlighting changes in language representation and processing. To assess the mental lexicon, a picture naming task was administered as suggested by Schmid and Kopke (2011). Basically, the study utilized a quasi-experimental design with an experimental and a control group to investigate first language attrition. Qualitative and quantitative research methods were employed to collect and analyze data, respectively. The imaging technique was used to highlight changes in language representation and processing, while the picture naming task was used to assess the mental lexicon. The study was conducted in primary international and general schools in Saudi Arabia. The data were analyzed statistically using t-test.

(b). Questionnaire

To investigate the participants in the experimental group (ISS), a questionnaire was applied to get data regarding their language history, background and amount of contact with L1. It is an adapted version of Yilmaz (2013) that is based on the test battery proposed by Schmid and Kopke (2011). It consists of several binary or yes/no questions (such as gender), a set of ordinal variables (such as education level), 13 items on 5-Point Likert- Scale preference or frequency.
indications (such as Language used in daily life, among friends, language preferences, media). The questionnaires were filled in by the researcher during the interviews before applying the lexical test.

The items in the questionnaire were divided to test the following variables:
- Items number 2-3-5 questions the frequency of L1 within family and friends
- Items number 4-5 questions the frequency of L2 within family and friends
- Item number 8 questions the frequency of L1 in school and community.
- Items number 7-10 question the frequency of L2 in school and community.
- Item number 13 questions the frequency of L1 in media
- Items number 11-12 question the frequency of L2 in media
- Items number 9 questions the language used in digital communication.

(c). Picture Naming Task (PNT)

The Picture Naming Task (PNT) is a widely used tool in language research to assess language proficiency, particularly in the areas of lexical access and semantic processing. In Saudi Arabia, the PNT has been used in both L1 (Arabic) and L2 (English) to study language development and to compare the two languages. Several studies have investigated PNT performance in Arabic-speaking children and adults. For example, a study by Al-Hayek (2016) examined the effect of age on PNT performance in Arabic-speaking children between the ages of 4 and 7 years. The study found that younger children had more difficulty naming pictures accurately, but their performance improved with age.

Another study by Al-Tamimi (2017) investigated the effect of bilingualism on PNT performance in Arabic and English among Saudi children. The study found that bilingual children performed better than monolingual children in both languages, suggesting that bilingualism may have a positive effect on language proficiency. In terms of PNT performance in English, several studies have investigated the language proficiency of Saudi learners of English. These studies suggest that the PNT is a useful tool for investigating language proficiency in both L1 and L2 among Saudi speakers, and may be used to study the effects of age, bilingualism, and other factors on language development. Picture naming task is a psycholinguistic experiment. To gain informative comparable data the researcher compared the experimental group to a control group (monolingual) of the same characteristics (all other variables are matched across samples) who study in general schools.

In this case, the task is an offline task in which time pressure is not applied. The participants have the opportunity to consciously reflect on their answers. It measures both implicit and explicit knowledge. According to Schmid and Kopke (2011), it is advantageous to remove the time pressure to allow participants to consciously retrieve the required items. The purpose of this task is to establish access to lexemes in L1. The study focuses on mental lexicon since it is the most vulnerable area of linguistic knowledge in language attrition.

According to Pavlenko PNT is the most suitable method to present evidence of the changes in the mental lexicon of language attritors. Lexical-semantic domain is very susceptible to attrition (Schmid & Kopke, 2011). Language is a very complex set of functions; however, production is more measurable, testable and susceptible to attrition than comprehension. This study operated on lexical representation hence it is highly prone to attrition (Bardovi-Harling & Stringer, 2010). To test the lexico-semantic system, picture naming task (conceptual access and lexical retrieval processes) is applied. The most popular method for testing the lexico-semantic system is picture naming task. The task is used to determine the existence of L1 on both the conceptual and the production level (Howard, 2016).

The selection of lexical items for the study was based on the International Corpus of Arabic (ICA), which contains the most commonly used Arabic words. The aim was to choose high-frequency daily items, particularly nouns, which are familiar to children. To ensure that the selected words were within the knowledge of children, those that were typically understood by children were retained, while those that were not commonly used by children were excluded. The study involved a pilot test conducted on six Arabic-speaking children who confirmed that the selected words were familiar to them and commonly used in their daily lives. To ensure that the selected words were easily recognizable, pictures were chosen from a free copyright source (https://pixabay.com/) and were presented in a PowerPoint presentation format. The pictures were simple and easy to understand, making it easy for the children to guess the meaning of the word being presented.

To conduct the study, the children were shown pictures one at a time and were asked to name each picture in Arabic. They were allowed to move between pictures at their own pace by clicking on the keyboard. The researcher recorded the children's responses, and the data was later analyzed. To ensure that the study was conducted using pure Arabic language, cognates were excluded from the list. The final list consisted of 115 words, representing the most common and easily recognizable Arabic words for children.

(d). Participants

The study was conducted on a sample of 72 Saudi children, with an even distribution of 36 males and 36 females. The sample was further divided into two groups: an experimental group consisting of international school students who were studying in Saudi Arabia, and a control group made up of national school students. The participants in both groups were between the ages of 6 and 12 years old and attended primary school. To ensure that any potential effects of variables such as size, age, and gender were controlled, the study employed a stratified sampling method where 6
students, consisting of 3 females and 3 males, were randomly selected from each grade in both the experimental and control groups. This ensured that both groups were comparable in terms of their demographic characteristics, and any differences observed between the groups could be attributed to the independent variable under study.

The experimental group, consisting of 36 international school students who had only studied in Saudi Arabia and never lived abroad, were selected for testing attrition. The control group, consisting of 36 general school students who also studied in Saudi Arabia and had never lived abroad, were used as a comparison group. The native monolingual responses of the participants were used as a baseline for testing attrition. The median age of the participants was calculated to determine the central tendency of the sample. The descriptive statistics for the control group is as following: grade’s mean (M=3.5) and standard deviation (SD=1.73205), age’s mean (M=9.08) and standard deviation (SD=1.91796). Additionally, the experimental group had been using English as a medium of knowledge in schools for a period ranging from 1 to 6 years, with a mean of (M=3.5) and standard deviation of (SD=1.73205). The age’s mean for the experimental group (M=9.1667) and (SD=1.68284). The study was carefully designed to ensure that the sample selected was representative and that any potential confounding factors were controlled to obtain reliable results.

IV. RESULTS

Descriptive statistics was used to determine any differences in the means of the row scores of the subjects. The SPSS Statistical Package Program version 26, for windows was used to run the analysis. Microsoft Excel was also used for the analysis. Various statistical methods were employed to analyze the data, and a significance level of p-value <0.05 was considered as statistically significant. Two statistical techniques used by the researcher are the independent sample t-test and Pearson correlation coefficient. The independent sample t-test is a parametric test that is used to compare the means of two independent groups, while the Pearson correlation coefficient is a measure of the strength and direction of the linear relationship between two variables. The choice of these statistical methods was appropriate for the research question and the type of data collected. These techniques were used to test specific hypotheses and answer research questions related to the variables under investigation.

To answer the first question, an independent variable t-test is applied. According to Table 1, there is a statistically significant difference between the national school and international school students in terms of attrition. There is statistically significant difference at level (0.05), between the national school and international school students in terms of attrition, as (t) value is (9.086) with level of significance (0.000) and this value is statistically significant at level of significance (0.05); the difference is in favor of national school. The first research question aimed to investigate whether there were any significant differences in language attrition between national school and international school students. To address this question, an independent variable t-test was conducted.

The results of the analysis indicated that there was a statistically significant difference in language attrition between the two groups, with a higher rate of attrition observed among the international school students. Specifically, the (T) value obtained from the analysis was 9.086, which was statistically significant at a level of significance of 0.000. This suggests that the difference in language attrition between the two groups was not due to chance and is likely to be meaningful. Furthermore, the results indicate that the difference in attrition was in favor of the national school students, meaning that they experienced less language attrition than the international school students.

To answer the second question, the independent variable t-test was applied to find any statistically significant attrition differences among international school students’ group in relation to personal related variables (gender, age). According
to the results, there was no statistically significant attrition difference among international school students’ group in relation to personal related variables (gender, age) (Table 2), which proves that the only affecting variable is attrition. The analysis conducted using the independent variable t-test aimed to determine if there were any significant differences in attrition rates among international school students based on personal variables such as gender and age. The findings from the analysis revealed that there was no statistically significant difference in attrition rates between the groups of students based on these variables, suggesting that attrition was the primary influencing factor in the study. In other words, the results suggest that the attrition rates observed among international school students were not significantly influenced by their gender or age. Instead, it is likely that other factors such as academic performance, social support, or personal circumstances were more relevant in explaining why students dropped out of the program. Therefore, further research is necessary to identify these underlying factors and develop strategies to mitigate attrition rates among international school students.

The third research question aimed to investigate the relationship between language attrition in the experimental group and personal background variables, using Pearson Correlation Coefficient analysis. The results indicated that there was a statistically significant positive correlation between language attrition and one of the personal background variables, namely Variable B, which represents the frequency of L2 usage within family and friends. This suggests that individuals who had higher levels of L2 use within their social circles were more likely to experience language attrition. However, there was no statistically significant correlation found between language attrition and the other personal background variables studied, including age and gender. These findings suggest that factors related to social exposure and use of L2 may have a more significant impact on language attrition than demographic factors.

The study aimed to investigate whether there were any significant differences between the control group and the experimental group participants in their test scores. The results revealed that there was a statistically significant difference between the two groups, with the control group performing better than the experimental group. The \((t)\) value of 9.086 with a level of significance of 0.000 indicates a very significant difference in test scores between the two groups. Furthermore, the study also highlighted a significant level of attrition in the experimental group's results. This attrition was attributed to the fact that the experimental group participants were enrolled in international school systems, which could have contributed to a variety of factors affecting their test performance. These factors may include differences in teaching methods, cultural and linguistic backgrounds, or curriculum variations. The findings of this study suggest that there are significant differences in test scores between control and experimental groups, with the control group outperforming the experimental group. Additionally, the results indicate that enrollment in international

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<th>Table 2</th>
<th>Findings Among International School Students’ Group in Relation to Personal Related Variables (Gender, Age)</th>
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Figure 2. Findings Among International School Students’ Group in Relation to Personal Related Variables (Gender, Age)

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<th>Table 3</th>
<th>Pearson Correlation Coefficient Between Attrition in the Experimental Group and Personal Background</th>
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*Bold value means statistically significant

V. DISCUSSION
school systems may contribute to significant attrition in test scores, which needs to be taken into consideration when interpreting research findings.

The second research question focused on examining whether there was a relationship between attrition among international school students and their personal characteristics such as gender and age. The study findings indicated that there was no significant effect of gender and age on attrition within the international school student group. This implies that neither gender nor age had a statistically significant impact on the attrition rates among international school students. These findings suggest that other factors, such as cultural differences, language barriers, or educational backgrounds, may play a more significant role in influencing attrition rates among international school students. The lack of a significant relationship between gender and age and attrition in the international school student group highlights the importance of considering multiple factors that may contribute to attrition rates. This information is valuable for educators and policymakers in developing strategies to address and reduce attrition rates in international school systems.

However, an interesting result appeared in the analysis of the correlation between attrition in the experimental group and personal background. Only the variables related to the frequency of L2 usage within family and friends are affecting attrition positively. The frequency of L2 usage within family and friends is playing the most affecting variable in the personal background. In the analysis of the correlation between attrition in the experimental group and personal background, a significant result emerged that highlighted the impact of the frequency of second language (L2) usage within family and friends on attrition rates. This variable was found to have a positive correlation with attrition, indicating that higher levels of L2 usage within family and friends were associated with increased attrition rates in the experimental group.

This finding suggests that social and familial factors may play a crucial role in shaping the experiences and outcomes of international school students. Students who have limited opportunities to use their second language outside of school may face greater challenges in adjusting to the academic and social demands of an international school setting. On the other hand, students who have more opportunities to use their second language in informal settings may have a greater sense of linguistic and cultural integration and therefore may be less likely to drop out of school. The frequency of L2 usage within family and friends emerged as the most significant variable in the personal background analysis, indicating its crucial role in predicting attrition rates among international school students. This information is essential for educators and policymakers in developing interventions and support systems that can enhance students’ opportunities for L2 usage within social and familial contexts and improve their chances of academic success in international school systems.

Signs of L1 attrition, obtained in comparison to monolingual controllers, increased as a function of L2 use even in the case of active contact to L1 (through family and friends). The study findings suggest that signs of language attrition were more prevalent among bilingual individuals, as compared to monolingual controls. Furthermore, the extent of language attrition appeared to increase with higher levels of L2 use, even in cases where there was active contact with the first language (L1) through family and friends. These results highlight the complex and multifaceted nature of language attrition, which is influenced by a variety of social, linguistic, and cognitive factors. They also suggest that active exposure to L1 through family and friends may not necessarily prevent or mitigate the effects of language attrition in bilingual individuals. These findings contribute to a better understanding of the factors that contribute to language attrition and highlight the need for further research in this area. By better understanding the nature and consequences of language attrition, researchers and educators can develop more effective interventions and support systems for bilingual students and help promote positive outcomes in language acquisition and maintenance.

The performance of L1 attritors decreases over time due to the decrease of L1 exposure and contact and increase of L2 exposure and use. The study findings suggest that individuals who experience L1 attrition may experience a decline in their performance over time, as a result of decreased exposure and contact with their first language (L1), as well as increased exposure and use of their second language (L2). These results highlight the complex nature of language development and suggest that exposure and use of language can have a significant impact on an individual’s linguistic abilities and performance. They also suggest that the effects of language attrition may become more pronounced over time, as individuals become increasingly immersed in their L2 environment. These findings have important implications for educators and policymakers in the field of bilingualism and language acquisition. They underscore the importance of promoting and supporting L1 maintenance in bilingual individuals, particularly in situations where exposure and contact with L1 may be limited.

VI. CONCLUSION

In conclusion, the findings from the studies discussed above provide valuable insights into the complex nature of language acquisition, attrition, and the factors that influence academic performance and attrition rates among international school students. The studies highlight the importance of considering multiple factors that may contribute to academic outcomes, including cultural differences, language barriers, educational backgrounds, and social and familial factors. The results emphasize the need for educators and policymakers to develop interventions and support systems that enhance students’ opportunities for language use and cultural integration, as well as promote L1 maintenance in bilingual individuals. These findings have significant implications for the field of bilingualism and
language acquisition, as well as for the development of educational policies and practices that foster positive outcomes in diverse student populations. Further research in this area is necessary to deepen our understanding of the complex interactions between language, culture, and academic performance and to inform evidence-based interventions and support systems for diverse student populations.

VIII. FUTURE DIRECTION

In light of the rapidly changing Saudi society, the phenomenon of attrition among international school students represents an issue of great concern that cannot be ignored. The implications of attrition on the identity of society highlight the need for further research to better understand this phenomenon and develop effective strategies to address it. One proposed direction for future research is to explore the neural underpinnings of language processing in individuals experiencing attrition. This could be achieved through the application of neuroscientific methods with high temporal resolution, such as event-related potentials (ERPs), which can provide insights into the neural mechanisms involved in language processing. Such research could help identify specific cognitive processes and neural circuits that may be affected by attrition and shed light on the potential consequences of attrition on language processing and cognitive development.

This information could be invaluable for educators and policymakers in developing interventions and support systems that target the specific cognitive and neural processes affected by attrition. Ultimately, such research can contribute to a better understanding of the impact of attrition on language and cognitive development and inform the development of effective strategies to mitigate its negative effects in the context of international school systems.

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Arabic Verbal Humor: An Exploration of Non-Observance of Cooperative Principle on Social Media

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Abstract—This paper explores how Jordanians violated and flouted Grice’s Cooperative Principle maxims and the purposes behind their non-observance in creating Arabic humor related to the COVID-19 pandemic on AlMamlaka and Roya Jordanians’ Facebook accounts. The study conducted qualitative content analysis on 12 Facebook comments from March to September 2020 and found that Jordanians violated and flouted all the maxims to convey their hidden messages. The analysis revealed that the purposes of the non-observance were to generate implicatures and highlight various issues faced by Jordanians during the pandemic. These issues included government announcements, non-compliance with health guidelines, conspiracy theories about the virus’s origin, impacts on family relationships, discomfort from wearing masks, the boredom of lockdown and some geographical areas targeted for their early source of spreading the virus. The findings indicate that humor can serve as an effective tool for highlighting social and political issues. The study recommends exploring the non-observance of cooperative maxims in different contexts and how it affects the interpretation and reception of humor. Overall, the study suggests that humor played a significant role in addressing and discussing the situation in Jordan during the pandemic.

Index Terms—Cooperative Principle, Coronavirus, flouting, verbal humor, violating

I. INTRODUCTION

Effective communication is crucial for individuals to convey their intended message clearly to their audience. However, people do not always say what they mean, and this can lead to misinterpretations and confusion. This is where pragmatics, a vast field of study, comes in, providing insights into how to make communication more efficient among speakers. Grice (in Thomas, 1995) introduced the Cooperative Principle (CP) and four conversational maxims to help speakers and hearers create effective and efficient communication. According to Levinson (1983), the cooperative principle is a kind of agreement between the speaker and listener to cooperate in communication. The maxims consist of the maxim of quantity, quality, relation, and manner, which are rules typically followed in a conversation to facilitate understanding. However, there are times when speakers fail to observe these maxims, leading to a breakdown in communication. The failure to adhere to the maxims is known as the “non-observance” of the maxims, and it can result in implicatures. Implicature is a conveyed additional meaning (Yule, 1996). Grice’s theory explains how a hearer gets from what is said to what is meant, from the level of expressed meaning to the level of implied meaning. The theory can help the hearer get the implicature’s real meaning.

According to Thomas (1995), people are not always entirely explicit when communicating. While there are times when people say exactly what they mean, this is generally not the case. Therefore, flouting a maxim occurs when a speaker blatantly fails to observe a maxim at the level of what is said, with the deliberate intention of generating an implicature. In such cases, the speaker has no intention of deceiving or misleading the hearer (Thomas, 1995). On the other hand, a violation of the maxims happens when someone ‘will be liable to mislead’ (Grice, 1975) the listener or imply a meaning that goes beyond the literal interpretation of what is being said.

The non-observance of maxims is essential in creating humor because it leads to the creation of implicatures. When a speaker intentionally violates or flouts a maxim, the listener is forced to search for an alternative interpretation, which can create unexpected and humorous meanings. In other words, the non-observance of maxims can lead to incongruity, which is often the basis of humor.
This research aims to analyze the inappropriate verbal humorous comments made by Jordanians between March 2020 and September 2020 on AlMamlaka and Roya Jordanian Facebook accounts related to the COVID-19 pandemic. The focus is on how they flouted and violated the Cooperative Principle's maxims and the purpose behind this non-observance of the maxims. It intends to investigate the various political and social issues during the pandemic through the non-observance of Cooperative maxims. Additionally, the study aims to highlight the importance of multiple factors in effectively managing a public health crisis. These factors include the responsible decision-making of the government, behavior of individuals, effective communication, and critical thinking. By emphasizing these elements, the study aims to promote the effective management of public health crises and minimize their impact on society.

Numerous investigations have been conducted on applying Grice’s cooperative maxims and Implicature theories in the domain of humor. For example, Atei and Al-Azzawi (2021) examined racial jokes on Twitter and their language, use of humor, and social implications. The researchers found that racial jokes served various pragmatic functions but also had potentially negative effects, such as reinforcing stereotypes and perpetuating racism. Another study by Ogunbge and Omolabi (2020) was conducted on the pragmatics of Coronavirus-related humor on social media, using Grice’s Cooperative Principle as a theoretical framework. The study employed qualitative content analysis to identify themes and patterns in humor emerging during the COVID-19 pandemic, revealing that humor played a vital role in reducing anxiety and promoting mental health during the pandemic.

Afaldi and Kurniash (2019) conducted a study on comments made on Indonesian Instagram posts, exploring the use of flouted conversational maxims to convey implied meanings using Grice’s conversational maxims and implicature, identifying instances of flouting, and examining participant intention. Furthermore, in Kaab’s (2019) study, the author analyzed humor in an episode of “8 Out of 10 Cats Does Countdown” using the General Theory of Verbal Humor and Grice’s theory of Implicature. The study found that participants used humor strategically to build and maintain social relationships and position themselves in social interactions. Different forms of humor, such as puns, wordplay, and irony, were utilized to achieve communicative goals. While Al Kayed (2019) examined jokes from WhatsApp and Facebook in Jordan within Grice’s conversational implicature framework. The study revealed that Jordanians violate Grice’s maxims to create laughter and communicate social and economic meaning, such as university violence, unemployment, refugee crises, and internet addiction.

Nastiti (2018) also conducted a qualitative analysis of 20 humorous advertisements obtained from YouTube, examining how the Cooperative Principle and implicature were used to generate humor, and found that all of the advertisements violated the Cooperative Principle, with the manner maxim being the most frequently violated. Meanwhile, Masaeli and Heidari-Shahreza’s (2017) qualitative study examined para-jokes and meta-jokes in Persian verbal humor, focusing on their linguistic features and cultural functions. Based on a corpus of 60 para-jokes and 46 meta-jokes collected from Persian websites, blogs, and social media platforms, the study analyzed how these jokes heavily relied on implicature and the flouting of the Cooperative Principle, using puns, wordplay, irony, and sarcasm. Additionally, Taha (2017) investigated the use of humor as a form of resistance and coping mechanism during the 2011 Egyptian revolution, using the Cooperative Principle and the General Theory of Verbal Humor to analyze the humor related to it.

While there have been studies on the use of Cooperative Maxims in the field of humor, few have analyzed humorous jokes about the COVID-19 pandemic. No studies have specifically analyzed inappropriate verbal humorous comments about the COVID-19 pandemic made by Jordanians on the Facebook platform. Thus, this research aims to fill this gap by examining how Jordanians use humor to cope with stress and anxiety during the pandemic and how these comments may impact public trust in government officials and institutions. Additionally, the study will focus on how these comments flout and violate the Cooperative Principle's maxims, which could provide insights into the communicative strategies employed by individuals during a crisis.

The analysis of Jordanian commentators’ use of humor in relation to the COVID-19 pandemic in Jordan is helpful in several ways. First, it provides insights into how humor was used to express skepticism or doubt about official statements during the pandemic and to cope with stress and anxiety. This can help us understand how people deal with crises and the role of humor in shaping public perceptions and attitudes. Second, the analysis highlights how the Cooperative Principle’s maxims were violated or flouted in many humorous comments. This can help raise awareness about the importance of responsible communication during a public health crisis and the potential harm that the spread of misinformation can cause. Third, the analysis can serve as a reminder that humor is not always harmless and can have severe consequences if it contributes to the spread of misinformation or undermines public trust in government officials and institutions. It highlights the various issues related to the pandemic that were brought to public attention using humor and how humor can be an effective tool to convey hidden messages and critique government policies. This can help encourage critical thinking and responsible communication during times of crisis.

Further future studies could explore the use of non-observance of cooperative maxims in different contexts and how it affects the interpretation and reception of humor. For instance, a study could examine how the non-observance of the maxims in political humor affects its reception and effectiveness in promoting a particular message or agenda. Another direction could be to investigate how different cultural backgrounds and beliefs influence the use of non-observance of cooperative maxims in humor and whether certain cultural factors make this type of humor more acceptable or effective in specific contexts. Additionally, future research could explore how the use of non-observance of cooperative maxims
in humor is perceived and received by different age groups and demographics and whether there are differences in interpretation and acceptance based on these factors.

II. LITERATURE REVIEW

For the sake of data analysis, the present study utilizes Grice’s Cooperative maxims of quantity and quality.

Cooperative Principle

For a conversation to occur efficiently, a speaker is anticipated to abide by the cooperative principle that guarantees successful communication. Paul Grice (1975, p. 45) postulated the cooperative principle (CP) that underlies any successful communication:

“Make your conversational contribution such as required, at the stage at which it occurs, by the accepted purpose or direction at which it occurs, by the accepted purpose or direction of the talk exchange in which you are engaged”.

The Cooperative Principle (CP) is an influential theory that was utilized to evaluate and manage people’s conversations. Grice’s cooperative principle proposes that successful verbal communication is attained by cooperation among the interlocutors. Grice suggested that, for a conversation, interlocutors unconsciously adhere to the cooperative principle’s maxims (Thomas, 1995, p. 65). The four sets of conversational maxims that constitute the Cooperative Principle (CP), as quoted from Levinson's book entitled Pragmatics (Levinson, 1983), are as follows:

A. The Maxim of Quantity

It relates to the amount of offered information. It has two sub-maxims:
- Make your contribution as informative as required.
- Do not make your contribution more informative than required.

B. The Maxim of Quality

The Maxim of Quality refers to the speaker's obligation to provide truthful information during a conversation. This maxim includes two sub-maxims:
- Do not say what you believe to be false.
- Do not say that for which you lack adequate evidence.

C. The Maxim of Relation

The Maxim of Relation requires speakers to provide relevant information about the discussed topic. In other words, speakers must make contributions related to the conversation's purpose. The Maxim of Relevance is seen as the relevance condition, which means that the connection between the participants must be directly related to the current interaction and not just a simple reply. As Thomas (1995) states, “Speakers’ contribution should relate clearly to the purpose of the exchange” (p. 70).

D. The Maxim of Manner

The maxim of manner relates to how things are said in a conversation and requires the speaker to:
- Avoid obscurity of expression
- Avoid ambiguity

E. Be Brief

Be orderly (Grice, 1975, pp. 45-46)

The maxim of manner requires the speaker to describe things orderly and clearly (Cutting, 2002).

F. Maxims Non-Observance

Grice (1989) proposes instances of failing to observe a maxim. There are many occasions where people fail to observe the maxims. For example, when they are incapable of speaking clearly or because they deliberately choose to lie. Speakers and hearers are aware of these maxims, and they do not explicitly recognize their existence because of their necessity. Grice (1975) believes that: "A participant in a talk exchange may fail to fulfill a maxim in various ways" (p. 49). These failures can include flouting, violating, opting out, suspending, and infringing.

G. Flouting a Maxim

Flouting a maxim refers to a situation where the speaker fails to observe a maxim to lead a hearer to discover a hidden or implied meaning. Flouting a maxim is a case where “a speaker blatantly fails to observe a maxim” (Thomas, 1995, p. 65). The speaker has no aim to misinform or deceive the hearer, but he expects the hearer to deduce the implied meaning, which differs from the uttered one. Flouting occurs when a speaker obviously fails to observe a maxim at the level of what is said, with the deliberate intention of generating an implicature.

The purpose of the flouting maxim is to make the audience catch the hidden meaning that the speaker tries to convey (Andresen, 2014). The researchers use this theory because, according to Attardo (Attardo, 1994), disobeying maxims can create a humorous effect. “Humor can be prompted by the non-observance of Grice's maxims, such as flouting” (p. 271). When flouting a maxim, the speaker has no intention to mislead the hearer but wants the hearer to look for the
conversational implicature. Consequently, the hearer is primed to search for clues within the utterance to aid in interpreting the speaker's intended meaning.

H. Violating a Maxim

A maxim violation occurs when a speaker discreetly breaks a maxim without drawing attention to it. According to Grice (1975), if a speaker violates a maxim, they may deceive the listener. The speaker intentionally generates a misleading implicature by not following the conversational maxims (Thomas, 1995). Such instances give rise to conversational implicature, where the speaker intends to create a special effect beyond the literal meaning of the words spoken, to evoke laughter and amusement. It occurs when a participant in a conversation deliberately disregards the maxims and expects the listener to decipher the implied meaning (Thomas, 1995). Violating a maxim involves the intention to mislead the listener and can sometimes result in something absurd.

I. Implicature

Implicature, derived from the verb "imply", is a pragmatic phenomenon that refers to the meaning conveyed beyond the literal or semantic meaning of words in a conversation. In other words, it is a hidden message that the speaker indirectly communicates to the listener to make them understand the intended meaning of their utterances (Mey, 1993). Implicature is a way of telling a particular meaning indirectly through language (Thomas, 1995). Speakers use implicature to conceal the true meaning of their utterances from the hearer. It is an additional layer of meaning that speakers deliberately imply, inviting the listener to infer the real meaning behind their words (Yule, 1996). Humor often employs implicature as a pragmatic component to create the desired effect (Taberski, 1998). The implied meaning of an utterance is dependent on its context, as different contexts can produce different meanings.

III. RESEARCH QUESTIONS

The research problem of this paper is to investigate the impact of humor on social media, particularly on Facebook, related to the COVID-19 pandemic in Jordan and to explore the intention behind the humor. The research aims to investigate how the Gricean Maxims were violated and flouted in creating humorous Arabic comments and uncover the implied messages behind the comments related to the COVID-19 pandemic on AlMamlaka and Roya Jordanian Facebook accounts. The research questions are:

(R1): How do Jordanians violate and flout the Cooperative Principle’s maxims on AlMamlaka and Roya Jordanian Facebook accounts in creating Arabic humor related to the COVID-19 pandemic?

(R2): What purpose usually do the Jordanians have in non-observance of the maxims on AlMamlaka and Roya Jordanian Facebook accounts in creating Arabic humor related to the COVID-19 pandemic?

IV. METHODOLOGY

This study utilized a descriptive qualitative research approach to analyze the linguistic aspects of Jordanian verbal humor on Facebook during the COVID-19 pandemic. This approach provides insights into the problem or helps develop ideas or hypotheses (Hasyim et al., 2020). The data consisted of humorous online Jordanian Arabic comments collected from two public Facebook accounts, namely Roya and AlMamlaka TV channels, between March 2020 and September 2020. The researchers employed the Paul Grice theory of Cooperative Principle and Implicature to conduct a linguistic analysis of the comments.

Data collection was conducted using the Facepager tool, which allowed for data collection from publicly available sources through APIs and web scraping. The comments were categorized as humorous or non-humorous based on the researchers’ definition of humor, their intuition as native Arabic speakers, and the identification of humor features suggested by Nastri et al. (2006). The purposeful sampling technique was employed to select comments related to COVID-19 that exhibited verbal humor, continuing until data saturation was reached.

The collected comments were then analyzed by applying the maxims of the Cooperative Principle proposed by Paul Grice. The study focused on identifying instances where the Jordanian commentators flouted and violated the maxims of the Cooperative Principle in creating Arabic jokes about the COVID-19 epidemic.

In total, 12 humorous comments related to COVID-19 were collected from the selected Arabic Facebook pages. These comments were translated into English by a qualified Arabic-speaking translator. The analysis involved examining the extent of violation and flouting of the Gricean Maxims in creating Arabic humorous comments about the COVID-19 pandemic in Jordan. Through this analysis, the study aimed to identify the implied meanings and messages conveyed through the humorous comments.

V. RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

The results of this study shed light on how Jordanians used humor as a coping mechanism during the COVID-19 pandemic while also revealing how the Cooperative Principle's maxims were frequently flouted and violated in creating these humorous comments. The analysis reveals that humor in Jordan often disregards the Cooperative Principle's maxims, which are the guiding principles for effective communication. Specifically, the maxim of quality, which
requires information to be true and accurate, was flouted the most in pandemic-related comments, followed by the maxim of relevance, maxim of manner, and quantity. Jordanians intentionally violated and flouted the maxims in order to generate hidden meanings or messages related to the daily briefings of the government regarding the COVID-19 pandemic. They made use of implicatures to express their thoughts, reactions, and feelings about various political and social issues that were happening in the country during the pandemic. By doing so, Jordanians were able to use humor to criticize the government's handling of the pandemic indirectly and to raise awareness about broader societal concerns.

Example 01 (AlMamlaka):

دارم الطلاب بالالمدارس مل يجي بجرة جرة الغاز بفطاحة. انا فقت عناها في مملكة

Translation: Students’ attendance at schools is like someone trying a gas can with a lighter. If it blows up, there is a problem with it.

This comment mocks a decision made by the government in the early days of the COVID-19 pandemic, where social gatherings were banned. Still, educational institutions were kept open, and students attended regular classes. The comment suggests that people were concerned about the potential for students to spread the virus to others and were critical of the decision to keep educational institutions open while banning other types of gatherings. In the case of the satirical comment about opening schools during the pandemic, the quality maxim is flouted because the commentator is using exaggeration and sarcasm to convey their message rather than simply stating the facts or their honest opinions. This makes it difficult for the reader to determine the speaker's true intentions or beliefs, leading to confusion or mistrust in the conversation. The comment also flouts the relevance maxim, as the comparison between attending school and testing a gas can with a lighter is not directly relevant to the topic of opening schools during the pandemic. The writer flouts the maxims of quality and relevance to convey the implicature that opening schools during the pandemic is a risky decision that could lead to a surge in COVID-19 cases and potentially harm the students and their families.

Example 02 (AlMamlaka):

أرحمونا لو لم تقطعوا الالي عشان النسوان يستغلوا الأزمة ومثل سجاد

Translation: You have to cut off my water. Women use men to wash carpets. Have mercy on us.

The comments made by Jordanians during the pandemic address not only the government's response to the crisis but also highlight issues related to gender. These comments shed light on the challenges faced by men and women during the lockdown and the frustration and tension that can arise when traditional gender roles are disrupted. This commentator describes a situation during the lockdown where men were not allowed to leave their homes, even for essential duties. As a result, women began enlisting their husbands to help with household chores, including tasks like washing carpets. The comment suggests that many men found this situation frustrating and paints a picture of men being at the mercy of their wives during the lockdown. The comment flouts two maxims. The maxim of quality is flouted as it contains a sweeping generalization that all women in Jordan exploit their husbands to do household chores, which is likely not true. It also flouts the maxim of relation, as it is unclear how the statement about women waiting for water is related to the conclusion that the government should stop supplying water as men would be forced to wash the carpets. Women may wait for the water for many other chores. The implicature of the comment could be interpreted as water is related to the conclusion that the government should stop supplying water as men would be forced to wash the carpets.

Example 03 (AlMamlaka):

أغرب حالة وفاة بكورونا كانت لرجل اربعيني

Translation: A fourty-year-old died of coronavirus.

The comments made by Jordanians during the pandemic address not only the government's response to the crisis but also highlight issues related to gender. These comments shed light on the challenges faced by men and women during the lockdown and the frustration and tension that can arise when traditional gender roles are disrupted. This commentator describes a situation during the lockdown where men were not allowed to leave their homes, even for essential duties. As a result, women began enlisting their husbands to help with household chores, including tasks like washing carpets. The comment suggests that many men found this situation frustrating and paints a picture of men being at the mercy of their wives during the lockdown. The comment flouts two maxims. The maxim of quality is flouted as it contains a sweeping generalization that all women in Jordan exploit their husbands to do household chores, which is likely not true. It also flouts the maxim of relation, as it is unclear how the statement about women waiting for water is related to the conclusion that the government should stop supplying water as men would be forced to wash the carpets. Women may wait for the water for many other chores. The implicature of the comment could be interpreted as suggesting that the government should stop supplying water to their wives to prevent them from exploiting their husbands to do household chores like washing carpets.

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Translation: The strangest death case during Corona was for a man in his forties. He suffered from some symptoms of the virus. Then his temperature rose, and his cough increased. He talked to his wife and confessed to her that he was secretly married to another wife, so she hit him on the head with a hammer, and he died. The medical report showed that he did not have Corona. Advice: "Do not confess from the first cough. Wait for the test of the Ministry of Health."

Moreover, this comment also portrays men negatively, suggesting that they were facing significant challenges and difficulties due to the pandemic. The joke describes the strange death of a man in his forties who had symptoms of the Coronavirus. The man confesses to his wife that he has had a secret marriage, and she killed him with a hammer. The medical report shows that he did not have Corona, and the joke ends with the advice, "Do not confess from the first cough." Wait for the test of the Ministry of Health." The maxim of relevance is violated in this comment, as the story about the man's secret marriage is not directly relevant to the Coronavirus or his cause of death. Additionally, the quality maxim may be violated, as the story may not be entirely true or accurate. The comment is an example of verbal humor that uses a story with a surprising and unexpected twist to create humor. The commentator has intentionally flouted the maxims to generate implicature. The implied message of the comment is a humorous warning not to confess to any wrongdoing or secrets during the Coronavirus pandemic, as it may lead to unexpected consequences. Instead, it is better to wait for the official analysis and diagnosis before taking any action.

Example 05 (AlMamlaka):
لا تعرف من أول كحة
عذرًا ننتظر تحليل وزارة الصحة
Translation: Coronavirus became just like drugs. The one, who is caught having it, must tell about everyone else he dealt with.

The comment describes the experience of a person who has been infected with the virus, drawing a comparison between the experience of an infected person and that of a drug dealer. The comment suggests that both individuals are questioned about the people they have encountered, focusing on tracing the spread of their actions. The maxims that appear to be flouted in the comment are maxims of quality, relevance, and manner. The maxim of quality is flouted because the speaker makes an exaggerated comparison between the Coronavirus and drug dealerships, which is untrue and not supported by evidence. The maxim of relevance is also flouted, as the comparison made between the Coronavirus and drug dealerships does not seem relevant to the situation at hand. The commentator also flouts the maxim of manner. The speaker uses figurative language to make the comparison, which may make the statement confusing or hard to understand. The implied message of the comment is that the speaker feels that people who test positive for the Coronavirus are treated as criminals who must reveal the names of all the people they may have come into contact with, similar to the way that drug dealers must reveal their clients to law enforcement. The comment might reflect the belief that people are unfairly stigmatized or penalized for contracting the virus.

Example 06 (AlMamlaka):
فحص كورونا بالبيت
لحصة ملح
لحصة سكر
إذا نفس الطعم سلم ع الشهداء الي معك
Translation: Corona test at home
pinch of salt
pinch of sugar
if they taste the same, then say hello to all victims who are with you.

This joke shows a funny way of doing the Corona test at home. The procedure is to taste salt and sugar, and if both taste the same, then it means that the person is infected with Coronavirus, and he must join the other victims who are with him. The maxims that are violated in this comment are the maxim of quality and the maxim of manner. The maxim of quality is violated because the comment presents false and misleading information about how to test for the Coronavirus at home. The testing process described in the comment involves tasting salt and sugar and then deciding based on their taste. It is not an accurate or reliable method of testing for the Coronavirus. The comment also does not provide any evidence or explanation to support this claim, which violates the maxim of quality.

The maxim of manner is also violated because the commentator uses confusing and nonsensical language to describe the testing process. The comment uses an unclear and convoluted sentence structure, making it difficult for the reader to understand the intended meaning. Additionally, using the phrases "taste the salt" and "taste the sugar" is confusing and does not make sense in the context of testing for the Coronavirus. The implicature behind this comment is that one of the symptoms of the Coronavirus infection is the loss of sense of taste. If you are suspected, then do a test at home. Taste the salt and then the sugar. If both taste the same, then you are infected with Coronavirus.

Example 07 (Roya):
هيك راح تصير الأشهر عنا
يناير، فبراير، حجراير الأول، حجراير الثاني
تمديد الأول، تمديد الثاني، ذو القعدة، ذو الشهداء
Translation: This is how the months will be with us
January, February, March, March 1st, March 2nd
Repetition of March 1st, repetition of March 2nd, Dhu al-Qa‘dah, Dhu al-Shada

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Translation: The new months’ names will be: … January, February, the first quarantine, the second quarantine, the first extension, the second extension, Dhu al-Qi`dah, Dhul Shehda.

The background of this joke is the COVID-19 pandemic, which caused widespread lockdowns and restrictions on movement. The joke pokes fun at the length of the lockdown and the different stages or phases it went through, turning the months of the year into a list of phrases related to the lockdown experience. The maxim flouted in this comment is the maxim of quality, as the speaker intentionally makes false statements about the month names, changing them to reflect the frustration caused by the lockdown. The comment implies that the ongoing pandemic and imposed restrictions have caused immense frustration and inconvenience to people's daily lives. People will remember the months by the kind of challenges they faced during the pandemic. The use of alternative month names highlights the severity of the situation and its impact on people's mental well-being.

Example 08 (Roya):
تم تغيير اسم حملة خليك بالبيت إلى إذا كنت زلمه اطلع

Translation: The name of the Stay Home campaign has been changed to If you are a man, go out.

Jordanians grew tired of the Stay-home campaign and began encouraging one another to go out, displaying a nonchalant attitude toward the situation. The comment violates the maxim of quality, as it provides a false or misleading statement that is not true, as the name of the Stay Home campaign has not officially been changed to “If you are a man, go out.” The implicature is that people are not taking the pandemic seriously and are behaving recklessly by encouraging each other to go out, even though it may increase the risk of getting infected or spreading the virus. The comment suggests that people are no longer interested in following the Stay Home campaign and are instead promoting a new campaign encouraging people to socialize.

Example 09 (Roya):
ذهب عنتر بن شداد بن عفرة إلى ثور فسل عقده عفريت؟ هل اختف من ثور؟ هرب عنتر بن شداد
قال: ومايدري اللورد الثور ؟

Translation: Antara bin Shaddad fled from a bull, so he was asked, where is your courage??

Are you afraid of a bull while you are Antara?? He said: The bull does not know if you are brave or bull…Stay home.

The previous comment highlighted the non-serious attitude of Jordanians towards the Stay-home campaign during the pandemic. In contrast, this comment urges people to follow the Stay-home rule by invoking the example of Antara bin Shaddad. This comment compares the story of Antara bin Shaddad and the need to stay at home during the COVID-19 pandemic. Antara, a famous Arabian warrior known for his bravery, was asked why he feared a bull. He responded that the bull did not know who he was and posed a real threat to him. The comparison is made to the Coronavirus, which does not discriminate based on one's courage or bravery. In other words, even if a person is strong or fearless, they are still susceptible to the virus and can become seriously ill. The comment flouts the maxim of quantity, as it only provides a brief and simple statement without providing any additional details or evidence to support the claim that people should take the Coronavirus seriously and follow the lockdown rules. The commentator implies that people should take the Coronavirus seriously and follow the laws of the lockdown. The comment urges citizens to stay home and follow the rules to prevent the spread of the virus. The comment highlights the need for people to take responsibility for their actions and do their part in fighting the pandemic.

Example 10 (Roya):
الله لا يوفق الصين، أول مره يصدرو لنا اشي اصلي

Translation: “May Allah not grant success to China; for the first time, they issued something original to us”.

Jordanians use impolitic to suggest that China is the origin of the COVID-19 virus and also imply that China has a history of producing unoriginal products. The comment violates the maxim of quality, making a derogatory claim about China without providing any evidence or justification. The comment implies that it is China that has produced the Coronavirus and that for the first time, China has created something original. Still, unfortunately, it is the virus that has caused a global pandemic.

Example 11 (Roya):
انا بعرف العريس يتجوز بعطل 14 يوم
اما عريس اريد ان بوجه عطل الملكة كلها 14 يوم

Translation: normally, I know that the groom when he gets married, takes a 14-day holiday. However, Irbid city's groom got married, and the whole kingdom had a vacation for 14 days.

This comment illustrates explicitly the careless behavior of people in Irbid during the early days of the pandemic. By attending social gatherings, the virus was subsequently spread throughout the entire country. The government imposed a 14-day lockdown on the Jordanian people to curb the spread of the virus. This lockdown served as the context for the joke, contrasting the typical scenario of a groom taking a 14-day vacation after getting married with the situation in Irbid city where the groom's wedding led to the entire kingdom being on holiday for 14 days.
The commentator violates the maxim of relevance as it is not directly related to any question that was asked. It also violates the maxim of quantity, using hyperbole and exaggeration to make the joke. The implicate of the comment is that the wedding in Irbid city led to the spread of COVID-19, which was severe enough to warrant a 14-day lockdown of the entire country. The use of hyperbole and exaggeration suggests that the situation was unexpected and unusual, given that the speaker notes that grooms usually take a 14-day holiday after getting married. The statement "the whole kingdom had holidays for 14 days" implies that the situation was unexpected and unusual, leading to a significant disruption of normal life in the country.

Example 12 (Roya):
نداء عاجل إلى اصحاب مصانع الكمامات بالله عليوكو طولووو الخيط شوي آذانّا تشلّعن

Translation: An urgent appeal to the owners of the mask factories, for God's sake, make the thread a bit longer. We will lose our ears.

This statement requests mask factory owners to make the elastic bands on masks longer. The person making the request is concerned that the current length of the bands will cause discomfort and pain behind people's ears after only a short amount of time wearing the masks. The comment violates the maxim of quality, as it is an exaggeration of the situation that wearing a mask will lead to one's ears being cut off without any clear evidence. The comment also violates the maxim of manner, as it does not use clear and straightforward language to convey the message. The comment implies that the speaker is making a humorous plea to the manufacturers of masks to make them more comfortable to wear by lengthening the thread, as many people find that the current design of masks causes discomfort and irritation around the ears. The use of humor is meant to make the message more relatable and add some levity to a serious situation.

VI. CONCLUSION

The study analyzed Facebook comments related to the COVID-19 pandemic on two Jordanian news pages, AlMamlaka and Roya Jordanian, from March 2020 to September 2020. The researchers conducted qualitative content analysis on the comments, focusing on how the Cooperative Principle's maxims were violated and flouted to create humor and generate implicatures.

The results showed that Jordanians frequently flouted and violated all four maxims of the Cooperative Principle, with the maxim of quality being the most commonly flouted, followed by the maxim of relevance, manner, and quantity. The maxims were violated and flouted to bring attention to various issues related to the pandemic, such as shortcomings of the government decisions and announcements, conspiracy theories about the origin of the virus, negative stigma, incapable healthcare facilities, poor health investigations, non-compliance with health guidelines, impacts on family relationships, discomfort from wearing masks, the boredom of lockdown and some geographical areas targeted for their early source of spreading the virus. Additionally, the study found that non-observance of the maxims was used to highlight the impact of the pandemic on family relationships, the discomfort of wearing masks, and the boredom of lockdown. China was also targeted as the origin of the virus. Commentators successfully conveyed their hidden messages by not observing the cooperative maxims, thereby highlighting the situation in Jordan during the pandemic.

Future research could investigate the impact of the non-observance of cooperative maxims in humor in various contexts, including its effectiveness in promoting a specific message or agenda in other political humor, its cultural acceptability, and variations in reception across different age groups and demographics.

Overall, this study contributed to our understanding of how the Cooperative Principle's maxims are violated and flouted in the context of humor, as well as the potential impact of humor on individuals' coping mechanisms and confidence in government institutions during a public health crisis.

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Tayeb Salih's *Season of Migration to the North*: Investigating Stereotypes and the Dehumanizing Effects of Colonialism

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Abstract—Long before colonialism emerged as an imperial project, cultural stereotypes and myths have fed the Western discourse about the Orient. Even during the medieval ages and Renaissance period, the discourse about Muslims and Islam was deeply informed of the distorted images, fabricated views, and overgeneralizations rooted in racial and religious prejudices. These myths were popularized through European art and literature to construct a particular narrative later used to legitimize the imperial designs and economic control of the native people. The research views this dehumanization of people and the vicious cycle of psychological trauma as a direct result of colonial enterprises by imperial forces. Using anti-colonial theories and postcolonialism as a framework of the study and building on the works of anticolonial theorists like Fanon, Memmi, and Césaire, the research seeks to investigate how these dehumanized images form the core of imperial designs and how colonialism dehumanizes people, distorts perspectives, engenders alienation and perpetuates a cycle of psychological violence across cultures and regions.

Index Terms—the vicious cycle of violence, traumatic existence, colonial enterprises, distorted images, dehumanizing effects

I. INTRODUCTION

The Western discourse about Asians and Africans is deeply informed by certain stereotypes, cultural myths, and deformed images. They have been a source of fascination for centuries as the land and riches had enthralled Western explorers and travelers. Said (1978) says that although the Orient's reputation as a place of mystery, intrigue, and exoticism had persisted since antiquity, it was mostly a product of European imagination. In medieval and early modern Europe, Christian and European identity was conceptualized in opposition to Islam and Muslims. With time, these religious differences began to act as a metaphor for cultural differences and widened the existing social divide and cultural dichotomy. The existing myths and stereotypes about the Arab and the larger Muslim world were intensified and reworked to suit the colonial expansion and imperial designs (Loomba, 2015). Long before the physical control of territories and colonial enslavement, such stereotypes and horrible dehumanized images of the ‘Orient’ existed in the Western imagination. During the Middle age, Europeans presented Islam as a force of chaotic and violent passions and often looked at it as a potential threat to their culture and belief system. Crusade Wars and some texts like *Arabian Night*, famous as the most representative of Arabic literature, also played a significant role in constructing such images and perpetuating these stereotypes. It is so well known that people consider this text akin to Grimm's Fairy Tales (Kleitz, 1988).

II. LITERATURE REVIEW

Various studies deal with how these images of Islam and Muslims were a deliberate creation of imperial designs. Payne and Barbera (2010) note that Edward Said in *Orientalism* (1978) investigates these “stereotypes and distortions through which Islam and the East have been consumed” (p. 626). His *Covering Islam* (1981) suggests how media representations present Islam and Muslims as anti-American fanatics and fundamentalists. These misrepresentations are a complete distortion of reality and “often illogical because they grow from prejudice rather than from reality” (Tyson, 2005, p. 375). In his *Discourse on Colonialism* (1950), Césaire notes how Europe developed a complex system of racial structures that recast the colonial system and rule as inherently good. He indicts colonial powers for brutalizing the rest of the world in pursuit of their self-interests. He reveals how colonialism acts as a dehumanizing and degrading force for European culture and society itself. Fanon in his classic text *Black Skin, White Masks* (1952) shows how the colonizers developed horrible images of the native people. He reveals the corrosive effects of colonization and demonstrates how it corrupts people’s way of seeing reality. Similarly, his *The Wretched of the Earth* (1961) theorizes colonialism in a larger context of racial oppression and shows how it seeks to depict the colonized as subhuman and absolute evil. He demonstrates how colonialism degrades both the Westerner and the Easterner and illustrates the psychological disorders, fragmentation of identity, and vicious cycle of psychological violence colonialism perpetuates.
Dallmayr (1996) investigates the issues of otherness and cultural difference and addresses the pressing issues of engagement and interaction from a global perspective. He expounds upon the dangers emanating from homogenization, and racial division, and promotes peaceful coexistence. Similarly, Rasheed El-Enany’s work could be considered “a reverse study of Said’s Orientalism” (2004, p. 1). He looks at Western culture from an Arab perspective, condemns the West for the Oriental portrayal, and explains how Arab and African authors have responded to their degraded images. The current study, however, asserts that there exists a direct relationship between stereotypes and colonialism. Building upon the anticolonial theories of Fanon, Cé saire, and Memmi, the study investigates how these colonial myths act as a weapon for imperial designs and perpetuate a vicious cycle of psychological violence that dehumanizes people and degrades the human soul.

III. THEORETICAL FRAMEWORK

Anticolonial theories and postcolonial studies explore how the colonized people tend to internalize certain stereotypes and racist beliefs about themselves. They study the racist prejudices and the false and fragile identities developed by the colonizers. They expound upon how such false identities engender a sense of alienation. These people start feeling alienated even from their bodies. They begin to experience themselves as different species. Colonizers identify the colonized people as an ‘other’. In doing so, they tend to demonize and dehumanize the ‘other’ and native people. This phenomenon of ‘othering’ dehumanizes the colonizers as it allows them to depict themselves as a superior human being and those who are different as inferior subhuman human beings (Tyson, 2005). It is rightly said that more than three-quarters of the global population has had their lives impacted by colonialism (Ashcroft et al., 2015). In Black Skin, White Masks (2008), Fanon shows how the Western belief system tends to be crude, dehumanizing, and utterly false about people different in colour. He analyses the psychological scars colonialism and racism leave on people’s consciousness and delineates how the material realities of colonialism have shaped the psychological experiences of black people. The cycle of violence characterizing Mustafa Saeed’s relationship with English women stems from the disease Professor Maxwell talks about while defending Mustafa Saeed charged with the abetment of the women to suicide.

This process of ‘othering’ the ‘Orient’ and native people, thus, reduces the natives to merely biological existence. They are not thought of as people who have a mind to think but as physical bodies, as animals and beasts. The association of the Orient and native people with stagnancy, illiteracy, and ignorance is to depict Europeans as illuminated and enlightened minds as knowledge and education symbolize the position of power and authority. Thus, the idea of the self, which stands for power, hegemony, and creativity, is frequently connected to the Occident. The other, on the other hand, is frequently thought of as being created, colored, oriental, and dominated (Zeidanin, 2021). Reduced to their bodies, they are also reduced to the purely physical and biological existence of human life. Mustafa Saeed refers to it when he says that Professor Maxwell could not conceal his dislike of me. He said to me:

You, Mr. Saeed, are the best example of the fact that our civilizing mission in Africa is of no avail. After all the efforts we have made to educate you, it is as if you would come out of the jungle for the first time. (Salih, 2003, p. 93)

IV. ANALYSIS

Colonialism dehumanizes people and corrupts their ways of thinking. It leaves deep psychological scars on the human psyche. The existing studies show how it perverts people and causes them to lose their identity. They show how colonialism brutalizes people, objectifies the colonized, reduces them to a subhuman level, and how it affects their culture and history. The cultural misrepresentation and degraded image of Islam and the Muslim world is not a recent phenomenon. The literary works of Chaucer, Marlow, and Shakespeare offer many instances wherein characters from the middle east and Muslim world have been depicted in poor light. But what popularized these myths is the rise of travel literature in the seventeenth and eighteenth centuries. The wider acceptability and popularity of travel literature acted as an essential source of information about Muslims and Islam. Literary authors later used this information to develop images of Muslims and the Arab world in their literary works (Masood, 2005). Said (1978) enumerates three reasons for this cultural stereotype of Arabs and Muslims. Anti-Arab and anti-Islamic prejudice, the Arab-Israel conflict, and the complete absence of any cultural positioning. Thus, we see that since the very beginning, a deformed image of the Orient was developed. The image of the Orient that we come across in books, movies, and literature was reworked to suit the colonial agenda and legitimize the imperial project.

The colonized subject is characterized as ‘other’ through discourses such as primitivism and cannibalism, as a means of establishing the binary separation of the colonizer and colonized and asserting the naturalness and primacy of the colonizing culture and worldview. (Ashcroft et al., 2015, p. 154)

These colonial stereotypes and dehumanized images had always been at the heart of colonial imperialism. When we study travel literature, we find that the journey to Europe involves an enlightening mission and often acts as a self-fulfilling goal. The European protagonists are shown traveling for enlightenment and knowledge- a symbol of power and position. While those traveling from Europe to the Middle East and the larger Arab world are shown on a mission to understand the culture, educate the native people, and guide them on how to live and rule themselves. They are
presented as illuminated souls born to civilize people. The education system, the teaching of European languages, and history helped them realize their mission of presenting themselves as blessed people. The natives were encouraged to think of themselves from the perspectives of the colonizers. Anticolonial theories expound on how such dehumanized images were invented by the colonizers to subjugate people, enslave them and exploit natural resources. This colonialism reduced the native population to a subhuman level.

The word ‘stereotype’ refers to a commonly held generalized idea about a particular type of people. Such depictions and images are often false, irrational, and unreal as they are rooted in religious and racial prejudices. Gomaa and Raymond (2014) note that English fiction often depicts Arab as stock characters without any individual traits and often driven by desire and physical needs. An Arab male is often seen as anti-modern, his nationalism as anti-Western, and his culture as anti-female. His existence and ways of life are presented as self-destructive. According to the commonly held beliefs, he is shown to be “indolent, prone to violence, deceptive and given to excesses” (Christison, 1987, p. 397). The same idea Fanon refers to when he says that Western ideas of humanity are based on racial prejudices. Though man is a universally accepted term, the image of man created and developed in Western culture is that of the white man. Even within a society, there exist many types of racism. The following excerpt embodies these prejudices.

Its purpose is to produce a positive national self-definition for Western nations by contrast with Eastern countries on which the West projects all the negative characteristics it doesn’t want to believe exist among its people. Thus, the Chinese or the Arabs, or whatever Asian or Middle Eastern population is politically convenient, are defined as cruel, sneaky, evil, cunning, dishonest, given to sexual promiscuity and perversion, and the like. (Tyson, 2005, pp. 420-21)

Nayar (2008) notes that the 19th century saw colonial expansionism and the formulation of many race theories and the popularization of already existing certain myths and stereotypes. Many such theories were formulated to legitimize the colonial control of Asian and African territories. These theories propagated that non-Europeans were incapable of guiding and ruling themselves due to a lack of knowledge, logic, and rational behaviour. The feelings of inferiority among the colonized are proportionate to the feeling of supremacy among the Europeans. Let us have courage to say that the racist himself creates his inferior being (Fanon, 2008, p. 69). These horrible images of the Muslim and Arab world are deliberate creations to construct a hierarchy of human society. In such a binary, the idea of the self, which stands for power, hegemony, and creativity, is frequently connected to the Occident. The other, on the other hand, is frequently thought of as being created, colored, oriental, and dominated (Zeidanin, 2021). Fanon suggests how colonization breeds violence, strips the colonizers of a sense of belonging, and creates a fragile identity. The result is the psychological trauma that has led to the complete alienation of the colonized people. What is important to note here is the degeneration and debasement the white and colonizers undergo because dehumanizing others is dehumanizing the self. Fanon (2008) refers to this debasement when he says that the black people wish to be white in order to be counted as equal human beings. Césaire (1950) also describes the dehumanizing and brutalizing effects of colonialism, especially how it degrades both the colonizer and the colonized. He exposes the inherent contradiction and hypocrisy in the Western notions of ‘progress’ and civilization and shows how colonialism turns non-white people into inhuman objects in the eyes of colonizers who also are dehumanized through this process of degrading the colonized.

One of the consistent goals of the anticolonial and postcolonial theories has been to counter such negative profiling, resist the colonialist ideology, and explain how it designs certain myths about the identity of the colonized. They unravel how colonialism thrives on violence and generates alienation, unhomeliness, and double consciousness. They reveal how colonialist ideology ‘others’ the indigenous people and creates a hierarchy of human beings and places white at the top of this hierarchy (Tyson, 2005). Césaire sums up colonization when he describes colonialism as thingification. This commodification and objectification of the native people help them present themselves as a superior race.

A. Cultural Myths and Misrepresentations in Season of Migration to the North

Mustafa Saeed, a child of colonialism, was born the same year Sudan was conquered. He and his English female lovers remain trapped within the colonial lens and myths they have about each other. They look at one another not as individuals but as representatives of their respective cultures. The women view him in reductive and stereotypical terms and treat him with a mix of reverence and utter disdain. He, in their opinion, comes from “tropical climes, cruel suns, purple horizons” (Salih, 2003, p. 142). His exotic image, black colour, and cultural roots intrigued these women. Similarly, he regards his European partners as representing the British imperial culture due to his inability to disengage/ detach himself from the memories of his colonial legacy (Tran, 2010).

Isabella Seymour, a mother of two children and wife of a surgeon, was intrigued by Mustafa Saeed’s exotic image. In him, she found a perfect description of her imagination of the Orient. Mustafa Saeed too took advantage of her ignorance. He told her false and concocted stories about the deserts with golden sands wherein animals of extinct species lived (Salih, 2003). He constantly played on her desire to idealize him, seduced her, and brought her to his room which evoked his oriental roots. To her questions, if he was African or Arab, he exploits her innocence. When she asked if he was African or Arab, Mustafa answered that he was “like Othello”, “Arab-African”. He uses these stereotypes for his benefit and, thus, victimizes Isabella Seymour. He thought of himself as the Arab soldier who led aggression on Spain during the middle ages. Mustafa Saeed told the narrator that he sometimes felt that he had been converted into a primitive, barbaric, and naked creature in her eyes holding a spear in one hand and arrow in the other hunting lions and elephants in the jungle (Salih, 2003). He tells Isabella that his face resembles the desert of the Empty Quarter, while his
head is African bearing the mischievous of children (Salih, 2003). She was so captivated by Mustafa Saeed that she broke up with her husband. She says to Mustafa Saeed, “Ravish me, you African demon. Burn me in the fire of your temple, you black god. Let me twist and turn in your wild and impassioned rites” (Salih, 2003, p. 106). But she commits suicide which explains the psychological complications colonialism engenders and which she seems to suffer.

Similarly, Ann Hammond had certain stereotypes about the Orient. Mustafa Saeed and the larger Arab and African world were a source of fascination and interest for her. Whatever details about her come from the narrator himself. According to him, Mustafa Saeed met Ann Hammond after he gave a lecture on an obscure Arabic poet Abu Nawas. Within days of meeting him, her interest in the protagonist increased to the extent that she started neglecting her studies at Oxford. She, according to Mustafa Saeed, derived much pleasure in burying her face under his armpit and breathed him into “herself as though inhaling some narcotic smoke” (Salih, 2003, p. 142). She used to tell him how she wanted to have the smell of him in full the smell of rains in the Arabian desert. She yearned for tropical climes, cruel suns, and purple horizons. She considered him a symbol of ‘primitive’ and exotic lands. Mustafa Saeed was a “symbol of all these hankerings of hers” (Salih, 2003, p. 142). The associations and images she has about him evoke the colonial stereotypes about these lands and African people. “You are beautiful beyond description and the love I have for you is beyond description” (Salih, 2003, p. 143), she used to tell Mustafa Saeed speaking in Arabic. Her comments demonstrate how she, like other English women, fetishized and worshipped him. Her understanding of Mustafa Saeed further speaks of how colonizers view those from colonized colonies in reductive and essentialist ways. These degraded images distort the common understanding and affect interpersonal relationships. This points to what Fanon says that both the colonizers and the colonized people are dehumanized because of the way they are trapped within their respective colonial identities.

Sheila Greenwood, one of the British women, was from a very humble background. Mustafa Saeed met her in a café where she worked as a waitress. Like other women, she fell prey to his dangerous seductive charms and cultural roots. She licked his face and told Mustafa Saeed that his tongue was as crimson as a tropical sunset (Salih, 2003). He said that she looked at him as if she was trying to discover something in him. She used to tell Saeed how amazing his black colour was! “The colour of magic and mystery and obscenities” (Salih, 2003, p. 139). Despite being aware of how strongly her parents would resist her romance with a black man, she fell in love with him. She even told him that her mother would go mad if she came to know that her daughter had an affair with a black man. Like other English women, she commits suicide. This again explains how racism and colonialism generate psychological complications.

B. Dehumanization Under Colonial Rule and a Vicious Cycle of Psychological Violence

Tayeb Salih’s Season of Migration to the North is often regarded as the best work of 20th postcolonial Arabic literature.

The text lies between in East and West’s traditional categories which represent the zone wherein imperial powers ‘culture is in conflict with the culture of the victims (Makdisi, 1992). It offers an insight into how colonialism dehumanizes people, engenders a sense of alienation, creates a fragile identity, develops a feeling of ‘unhomeliness’, and perpetuates a vicious cycle of violence and psychological trauma. The study shows the corrosive influences of colonialist ideology on the personal lives of characters.

I am unconditionally opposed to all forms of oppression. For me, oppression is the greatest calamity of humanity. It diverts and pollutes the best energies of man-of oppressed and oppressor alike. For if colonization destroys the colonized, it also rots the colonizer. (Memmi, 2003, p. 13)

Nothing explains the hypocrisy and duplicity of the European colonizers better than their contradicting attitudes toward the colonized. On the one hand, they mythologize the Orient, but on the other, they treat them like animals, enslave them, and exploit the resources of their countries. For example, Professor Maxwell scorns Mustafa Saeed and acts as a defence counsel for him in his trials for the suicides of these women. He does not blame Mustafa Saeed but the ‘the germ of the disease’ that had afflicted hundreds of years ago. Mustafa Saeed experiences this hostile and friendly attitude in his relationships with English women: Isabella Seymor idolizes him while Jean Morris looks down upon him. Robinsons romanticize him, whereas Richard, the financial analyst, dehumanizes him. The narrator expresses surprise saying that just because a man was born on Equator some people view him as a slave while others regard him as a god (Salih, 2003).

The conflict and the violent encounters in the text illustrate the psychological trauma and degradation colonialism causes. They demonstrate how it strips an individual of human sensitivity and sympathy. The colonizing forces develop an exploitative habit and start viewing the colonized as a less human being and an inferior one. A colonizer reduces the existence of the colonized people to that of animals and thus he is also reduced through this process to the same level as he is guided by animal instincts, not by the illuminated human soul. In the name of the civilizing world, they end up degrading people and dehumanizing the human soul. This is clear from what Professor Maxwell says while defending Mustafa Saeed. He said that the estrangement engendered by colonialism was responsible for the death of these women. Mustafa Saeed, he says, came to England for illumination and enlightenment, but barbarism afflicting Europe disappointed him. Therefore, he should not be held responsible for their death. He blames not Mustafa Saeed but “the germ of a deadly disease” (Salih, 2003, p. 95) that had afflicted Europe a hundred years ago. Thus, the defence counsel seeks to generalize and place what Mustafa Saeed experiences into a broader historical context through such discourse. The argument advanced by Maxwell speaks of how the colonizers often use these deformed images to generalize...
sterotypes about Arabs and the larger Muslim world. These women provoked Mustafa's anger as they reduced him to the popular Orientalist stereotype.

Their continual invocation of colonial discourse thus acts to perpetuate racial conflict as it helps maintain the racialized binary of colonizer and colonized. Furthermore, as their attraction to Mustafa lies in their fascination with the 'Other' world, which the women perceive Mustafa to be symbolic of, their attraction towards Mustafa is directly tied to the stereotypical image of Africans that the West had constructed. As a result, their reasons for being involved with Mustafa act to highlight their colonial mindset. (Tran, 2010, p. 17)

Mustafa Saeed goes on a scholarship to Cairo, England, and thus, becomes a professor of colonial economics after being awarded a doctorate. He uses his exotic image to seduce English women of all social classes. To lure these women, he exaggerates the stereotypes and transforms himself into a person who seeks revenge against colonialism. What is interesting to note is the efficient way he employs colonizers' oriental stereotypes about himself and his culture. He plays on his 'exotic' image and, thus, follows a series of destructive relationships with the British women. He uses attractive looks, intelligence, seductive charm, and his powers of manipulation to the utmost in enchanting these women. Arpa (2017) says that "Mustafa's interior dialogues present psychological layers of the vengeance which roots in the colonial period" (p. 764). Mustafa Saeed's psyche is twisted which is evident from the way he seeks to frame his victimization of English women in terms of colonial excesses unleashed on his people under colonial rule. He, thus, performs a complete inversion of colonial excesses and exposes the binary between East and West (Sellman 2018).

Mustafa Saeed is, thus, alienated, trapped between two cultures, and suffers from a divided identity which is reflected in his two rooms. The London apartment is an objectified version of his native culture, and his secret room symbolizes his love and homage to English culture. This crisis and division of identity is such that he ends up drowning. His death, like his life, remains a mystery and shows his inability to find any reconciliation with the contradictions of his identity and his colonial experience. He suffered from a loss of identity and rootless existence even in the peaceful village of Wad Hamid.

This feeling of being caught between cultures, of belonging to neither rather than to both, of finding oneself arrested in a psychological limbo that results not merely from some individual psychological disorder but from the trauma of the cultural displacement within which one lives, is referred to by Homi Bhabha and others as unhomeliness. (Tyson, 2005, p. 421)

The mystery surrounding his room and English books shows that despite being settled in his village, he was unable to give up his connection to his English life. He was suffering from an acute sense of alienation and exile even when he was with his wife, children, and family. He had double consciousness, always torn between two antagonist cultures. In Homi Bhabha's sense, he was 'unhomed'. He could find peace neither in England nor in a village as peaceful village as Wad Hamid. He had a fragmented existence that was always in search of peace. He felt he belonged to nowhere as he was caught between the psychological demands of two antagonist cultures, Sudan where he was born, and England he so earnestly aspired for. Tyson (2005) says that to be 'unhomed' refers to the feelings of isolation and alienation everywhere including your home. You do not feel connected to people around you. The identity of your culture has transformed you into a psychological refugee. The excruciating pain of alienation he undergoes is clear from how wanderlust plagues him and leads him to wish for death. He was unable to overcome his desire to visit 'far away parts'. This complication of colonialism, Memmi (2003) refers to when he says that he was a kind of half-breed of colonization understanding but not able to belong to anywhere.

The way he misses Jean Morris even after he arrives in his native village, Wad Hamid, suggests that he is haunted by his English life and explains the psychological complications he undergoes. This also shows Mustafa Saeed's shattered existence and the fragility of identity. His existence illustrates this double consciousness. He does both-draw meaning from his colonizers and also seeks to avenge the colonial excesses by victimizing these women. The same colonial complication is expressed in the following excerpt.

How could the colonizer look after his workers while periodically gunning down a crowd of the colonized? How could the colonizer deny himself so cruelly yet make such excessive demands? How could he hate the colonizers and yet admire them so passionately? (Memmi, 2003, p. 6)

What shows the dehumanizing effects of colonialism is the way it distorts people's perspectives and engenders a sense of alienation. Mustafa Saeed keeps on swinging like a pendulum. On the one hand, he hates the Europeans for the colonial excesses unleashed by the colonizers on his people. On the other, he victimizes and subjects these women to psychological violence and inhuman treatment leave them with disturbing images and ideas about themselves as they grow up with such horrible portrayals of themselves. This colonization "dehumanizes the native, or to speak plainly, it turns him into an animal" (p. 42).
Ann Hammond was a young woman from an affluent family. The narrator discusses some specific details about her. Mustafa Saeed had told him how she, within days of contact with him, started neglecting her studies at Oxford to spend more and more time with him. She was mesmerized by his exotic image, African roots, and Orientalist background. Mustafa Saeed recalls how one day he woke up to find Ann Hammond in his London apartment bed. To sexually invade her chastity, he chose to sleep with her as he did with women in a room. The room was well decorated and gave him the impression of sleeping with a harem. However, after a short relationship with him, Ann Hammond wrote a note and committed suicide. The message read: ‘God damn you, Mustafa Saeed. He seems to be ostensibly responsible for her death. But her note to him creates a different impression. Like other English women, she also profoundly misinformed and fetishized him as a symbol of his primitive and exotic lands.

By failing to view Mustafa as an individual, Ann highlights her inability to divorce herself from colonial consciousness. By reducing Mustafa down to a ‘smell’, he is no longer viewed as a person but rather as an object which satisfies Ann’s senses. Mustafa is not an equal partner but rather a perfume scent in which Ann desires to enshroud herself. (Tran, 2010, p. 9)

These myths and stereotypes, thus formed, inform the consciousness of the colonizers about Arab and African people. Her comments and the subsequent suicide demonstrate how such troubling images and ugly portrayals distort people’s perspective and lead them to consider others as less human beings. The play-acting of Ann Hammond with Mustafa Saeed amply makes it clear how he uses his relationship as a means to reverse the terms of colonial subjugation. He did not seek to question and challenge it. He instead becomes a partner in it and seeks to exercise power and authority over Ann Hammond. He unleashes violence to avenge the colonial excess done to him and his people.

Mustafa Saeed carries out this self-appointed mission by inflicting pain and suffering on British women. Just as imperialism had violated its victims, Mustafa violates his, and his unwitting lovers become sacrifices in his violent campaign. The act of finding lovers and engaging with them sexually becomes scouting operations and skirmished in a war fought on the personal level. (Makdisi, 1992, p. 811)

Mustafa Saeed’s wish for death and the suicide of English women points to the destructive and corrosive effects of colonialism. All these characters seem to have an inclination for death and seem to find an escape to some other world. This fascination for death and violence marking their life shows how its lingering consequences can reverberate across personal relationships of individuals. These characters’ inability to think beyond the framework of conquest and subjugation shows the degradation colonialism causes and illustrates how it perpetuates a vicious cycle of violence and dehumanizes the colonizer and the colonized equally. This is further substantiated by what Loomba (2005) says that colonial oppression “dislocates and distorts the psyche of the oppressed” (p. 122). Mustafa Saeed’s damage is not restricted to physical violence. It is psychological as he drives most of his victims to death. He subjects himself to a never-ending cycle of psychological violence (Makdisi, 1992, p. 812). The fact that the women he was involved with are eager to embrace death suggests that something was wrong with these characters. This is also evident from the fragility of identity, alienation, and contradictions that mark their life.

The same theme of colonial dehumanization underlies the violent relationships of Mustafa Saeed and Isabella Seymour. Like other English women, she was enchanted by his exotic roots and oriental background. Unlike Jean Morris, who scorned Mustafa Saeed, she fetishized him and considered him a god. The narrator refers to this apparent contradiction when he says that some people consider god while others view him as a slave man just because he was born on the equator. To seduce her, Mustafa Saeed feeds on these stereotypes that were popularized through the process of colonialism. He describes his homeland as something ‘teeming with wild, exotic animals. He makes references to ‘deserts’ and jungle climates which revive the images of the noble savage. The discourse he uses makes it clear that he seeks to avenge his colonial subjugation by unleashing violence upon these women.

The word ‘prey’ conjures the image of a target to be killed as well as denoting a hierarchy of power. By labelling his victims as ‘prey’, Mustafa categorizes his partners as powerless, whilst simultaneously assigning himself the superior role of predator and, therefore, as the dominant power in his relationship. (Tran, 2010, p. 11)

The imagery he employs to describe his first encounter with Isabella Seymour shows that he looks at his relationship with these women in terms of power and conquest. He calls himself a coloniser and an invading man who belonged to the South. He thought that he would not make a safe return from this battle field. Moreover, he thought of himself and Jean Morris as pirating soldier and brink of destruction respectively (Salih, 2003). He draws a parallel between his approach to Isabella Seymour and the Arab conquest of Spain, wherein the Islamic empire had extended to Europe. He took much pleasure in drawing a parallel between his sexual victory over Isabella Seymour with the conquest of Spain by Arabs. Through this framework of conquest, he seeks to reverse the colonizers’ order of domination and oppression of his people. He, now, wants to subjugate these women the way European colonizers had dominated his people.

The descriptions used by Mustafa for his conquests are couched not only in terms of military operations in general, but in terms of traditional Arab military campaigns in particular: going to meet new victims is described in terms of saddling his camels, the process of courtship is compared to laying siege, involving taints, caravans, the desert, and so forth. (Makdisi, 1992, p. 811)
This framework of colonization suggests how Mustafa Saeed finds himself unable to escape from this frame of conquest and subjugation despite the fact he consistently critiques the colonizers for the violence unleashed on his native people.

They imported to us the germ of the greatest European violence as seen on the Somme and at Verdun, the like of which the world has never previously known, the germ of the deadly disease that struck them more than a thousand years ago. (Salih, 2003, p. 95)

Though Mustafa Saeed seems to be responsible for Isabella Seymor's suicide, however, what she and her husband say problematizes the issue and forces the readers to place this violence within a broad historical perspective. She wishes Mustafa Saeed as much happiness as he had given her. Her husband acquires him of all the charges and cites cancer as a possible cause of his wife's death. Though she had admitted to him her affair with Mustafa Saeed, he no longer felt any envy or jealousy towards the accused. "In spite of everything I feel no bitterness within myself, neither against her nor against the accused. I merely feel a deep sadness at losing her" (Salih, 2003, p. 141).

Double consciousness and fragile identity are some of the consequences of colonialism. The characters in the text suffer from this multiplicity of identities. For example, Mustafa Saeed denies the charges against him but confesses to having killed Jean Morris. The fact that he lived with so many women for over one year under different names and identities has much to do with these false identities characterizing the lives of these characters. The positive attitude of the couple towards him echoes the faltering attitude of Mustafa Saeed towards the colonizers: simultaneously remembering and hating Britain for the colonial excesses. This is also clear from the narrator's reflection on Isabella Seymor's fetishization of Mustafa Saeed and his culture. This again suggests how colonialism dehumanizes people and corrupts their understanding.

Mustafa's sexual campaign in no way weakens the structures of the colonial system. He strengthens those structures by perpetuating colonial binaries and stereotypes both in his characterization of the women he seduces and in his means of seduction, which entail his inhabiting the colonial image of the African. (Camino-Santangelo, 1999, p. 17)

Similarly, Sheila Greenwood, like Isabella Seymor and Ann Hammond, is the victim of these oriental stereotypes and Mustafa Saeed's dangerous seductive charms. The narrator recalls how Mustafa Saeed told him about Sheila Greenwood becoming enamoured with his exotic appearance and dark skin. Her comments about his skin suggest the extent to which she, as an English woman, was enthralled by his exotic roots. In her understanding, people with black colour represented a magical, mysterious, and obscene existence which was in stark contrast to the illumination and enlightenment defined by a Western identity. Though his identity completely engrossed her, Mustafa Saeed was aware of how a black man weights in the opinion of her parents. She too knew well that her mother would go to any extent and would not accept her relationship. These are the racial prejudices through which Sheila Greenwood’s parents looked at the Orient. They viewed him through these reductive and stereotypical images that were reminiscent of the ‘noble savage’.

Thus, these are myths and false portrayals. They are the dehumanized images that distort people's understanding, strip them of human sympathy, reduce the Orient to a subhuman level, and perpetuate a vicious cycle of violence. The violence stems from this dehumanization which Professor Maxwell refers to when he says that these women were killed by a germ of the deadly disease which had afflicted Europe a thousand years ago (Salih, 2003). He talks of colonial violence by placing it within a broad historical narrative. This violence dehumanizes both the colonizer and colonized and kills the human spirit. Memmi (2003) said that it was impossible to reduce a man to the level of a dog without first considering as a human being. The unlikely dehumanization of the oppressed becomes the alienation of the oppressor and the colonizer. The tragic end of these relationships and an earnest desire to embrace death reveals the adverse and corrosive effects of colonization.

Jean Morris’s relationship marked by violence offers yet another instance of the corrupting effects of colonialism on people's lives. It also speaks of the psychological trauma that follows and destroys human lives. Unlike other English women, she did not consider Mustafa Saeed as a God. She rather scorned him and thwarted his attempts to subjugate and dominate her sexually. Though married to him, she used to flirt with other men to torment him and assert her freedom. While other English women fetishized his exotic possessions, she broke the valuable artifacts he used to deepen the mystery and seduce English women. For Mustafa Saeed, Jean Morris represented the North he was resolute to conquer, whereas, for Jean Morris, he represented Africa always associated with ignorance, superstition, stagnancy, and biological existence. As Jean Morris allows him to sleep with her, he thinks of himself as a conqueror of physical territory. This suggests that he saw his relationship with English women in terms of conquest and power that reverses the colonial subjugation of his people. Tran (2010) says that the frequent use of this description reveals Mustafa Saeed’s belief that conquering a European woman sexually would be akin to conquering a Western land.

Mustafa Saeed told the narrator how their bedroom had turned into a ‘theatre of war’ wherein he was left defeated by Jean Morris. The bedroom description reveals how his relationship with English women was marked by conflict and brutal fights. Even the description of the mirror in his room also suggests how the life of these characters is infected by this never-ending violence. Camino-Santangelo (1999) notes that the words used by Mustafa Saeed and Jean shows an epistemic imperial violence as they define and isolate an identity based on place. When Mustafa Saeed plunges the
dagger into her chest, she seems to welcome the dagger. This points to the affinity and desire for death and destruction they seemed to have.

That is why the whole thing is fated, inevitable. It is fated and inevitable not because fate has decreed that Mustafa Saeed and Jean Morris’ relationship would be inter-destructive and would end in tragedy but because the unconscious forces which propel each of them towards death are beyond their control. (Abbas, 1974, p. 53)

Thus, throughout the text, we see colonialism acting as a dehumanizing phenomenon. Mustafa Saeed never ceases to imagine himself as an avenger of wrongs committed by the colonizers on his people. During his stay in England, he considers English women’s bodies as the manifestation of the European colonizers’ sovereignty, and thus he seeks to victimize them. Through the victimization of these women, he unleashes the same degradation and dehumanization on Europe which it had inflicted on his territory. He wished to metaphorically rape Europe (Berkley & Ahmed, 1982). It becomes clear how colonialism creates a monster of violence and psychological trauma that leaves people dehumanized, degraded, and bereft of the traits of human sympathy and human dignity.

It is the oppressor himself who restores, with his slightest gesture, the humanity he seeks to destroy; and, since he denies humanity in others, he regards it everywhere as his enemy. To handle this, the colonizer must assume the opaque rigidity and imperviousness of stone. In short, he must dehumanize himself, as well. (Memmi, 2003, p. 24)

V. CONCLUSION

The study finds a close connection between stereotypes and colonial designs. It examines how these images about Muslims and Islam are the deliberate creation of imperial designs. The European colonizers have always used these dehumanized images to assert racial supremacy, legitimize civilizing missions, colonize territory, subjugate the native people, and exploit their natural resources. The study asserts how this civilizing mission is a pretext to create a hierarchy of the human race. It demonstrates how these dehumanized images are rooted in racial prejudices which deform people and distort their ways of seeing reality. Mustafa Saeed and English women remain steeped in their cultural stereotypes and view each other in ways that are reminiscent of the stereotypes and images of the “other”. The study also shows how Mustafa Saeed uses his exotic image to overturn white supremacy, seek revenge and thus challenge the power dynamics. Therefore, this way, colonialism deforms people, divests them of true human character, and perpetuates a cycle of psychological violence that mars the peaceful coexistence of people.

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Identifying Linguistic and Speech Acts Variations of the Buginese Tribe Through Socio-Pragmatic Analysis in Establishing Daily Discourse Interactions

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Abstract—Buginese is a local language in South Sulawesi, Indonesia, which is spoken in almost 60% of Sulawesi Island. This study aimed to explore the selection of linguistic variations and language acts as a linguistic model used by ethnic Buginese in establishing discourses of everyday socio-pragmatic interactions. It relied on a qualitative design to obtain the linguistic corpus that occurs empirically and naturally in communication interactions. This study used the snowball method by combining ethnographic strategies. The instrument used the Speaking Involvement Technique, in which the researchers were directly involved in people's interactions by paying attention to communicating situations, recording data, and conducting interviews for data validation purposes. All data or corpus of linguistic variations and speech acts collected were analyzed by the speaking strategy componential technique strategy developed by Dell Hymes. This study successfully discovers a model for identifying the Buginese ethnicity's linguistic variations and speech acts to build a discourse of communication interactions. The expressions of selection of linguistic variations and speech acts are dominantly based on polite sentence constructions and formulations, and ethically according to the local culture of Buginese ethnicity, namely the culture of siri. The results of this study can affect the enrichment of scientific information, which functions and acts as a meaningful reference in the field of linguistic studies, especially examining speech act variation in the expression of conversational discourse, in addition to being a foundation in the development of local content material and multicultural understanding.

Index Terms—buginese ethnicity, discourse interaction, linguistic variation, speech acts, socio-pragmatic analysis.

I. INTRODUCTION

The expression of thoughts or the aim of messages to the interlocutor are used to select linguistic variations and appropriate speech acts and received in communication or discourse (Dippold et al., 2020; McKee et al., 2021; Tran & Nguyen, 2021). Not all participants in Buginese language speech make the selection of linguistic variations and appropriate speech acts and acceptability, similar to other languages, as a medium of communication interaction. If these factors are not supported by the selection of appropriate and acceptable linguistic variations, interference in communication is inevitable, thus hindering effective discourse interactions (Arundale, 2021; Pichler & Hesson, 2016). Thus, each language in the world with a universal system also has a more specific and unique system for the culture of the speakers (Puupponen et al., 2022). However, it is worth noting that a large number of discourse-pragmatic variables are complicated to select and define speech acts in this way because the lack of speaker participant's knowledge of linguistic varieties and tonality variation might be a part of the handicaps in building up the effectiveness of communication interaction (Eiswirth, 2020). Furthermore, based on the authors' presurvey in the Buginese language...
study, there has yet to be found an indentation of the form of a selection of linguistic variations and speech acts which is carried out in real by the speaker participants in the daily interaction of Buginese communication.

Adjusting the rules of linguistic politeness and ethics of communication that are in accordance with society is crucial to ensure the acceptance of an expression of linguistic variation and speech acts in communication (Dippold et al., 2020). Therefore, while considering the possibility of bias and inaccuracies, the pragmatic field is worth noting, which contributes to the relationship between linguistic theory and social practice (Tran & Nguyen, 2021). In addition, such studies primarily provide education about global and national multiculturalism. In addition, this kind of study is expected to promote world, national, and local peace given that deepening our awareness and respect for cultural diversity. This strengthens the strategy to overcome social conflict through effective intracultural and intercultural communication (Lomotey & Csajbok-Twerefou, 2021; Miyamoto et al., 2021). On that ground, this research aims to present sufficient information on the corpus of linguistic variations and speech acts that are systematically and empirically described in detail. In reality, the language and culture of Buginese are rich in linguistic variations and speech acts to express the interpreted meaning according to the situation and context of communication (Licea-Haquet et al., 2019).

Noticing the above description, the corpus of linguistic variations and speech acts variations in the Buginese language is not described enough in detail and empirically as an indicator of linguistic politeness and ethics of communication in the Buginese culture. Hence, the use of language variations and speech act variations that had been empirically identified can be represented as a communication model; that is the meaningful aim of this study (Mitchell & Jordan, 2021; Miyamoto et al., 2021). Therefore this research aims to accomplish the linguistic variation and speech act variations more empirically and systematically, as research found exploring the description of the selection of linguistic variations and speech act variations in the Buginese language will be helpful for the traying model of communication for Buginese ethnicities in building daily discourse communication.

It is believed that research findings as systematic and scientific documents will be utilized to fulfill some meaningful references in developing local content education and multicultural education resources or learning and teaching material. Therefore, this research presents scientific study information to strengthen Indonesia's multicultural science and local content through local wisdom, especially fostering the cultural value of language unity and ethics of communication. In addition, this research can also strengthen and enrich the scientific information of sociolinguistics and pragmatics as a foundation of reference resources in developing materials for various scientific purposes.

II. METHOD

This study used qualitative design in collecting a corpus of linguistic variations and Buginese language speech actions built through communication interactions or discourses. The population of this study encompassed all characteristics of the Buginese language corpus and every interaction of socio-pragmatic discourse in the South Sulawesi Region. Meanwhile, the sample involved all data according to the region’s representation and the communication domain.

From the population of this study, several samples of the district area were determined as the target object for obtaining linguistic data. The regional sample determination strategy is based on considerations of representation, the distribution of the coverage scope of linguistic data characteristics representing the socio-pragmatic data of the Buginese language from several sub-regions of the region from south Sulawesi, which consists of south Sulawesi, two districts from the southern part, i.e., Maros Regency and Barru Regency, and two regencies of the central part of South Sulawesi, namely Pare-pare Municipality and Pinrang Regency. Sidrap Regency and Bone Regency represent the eastern part of South Sulawesi. As an instrument of this research, the author engages and participates directly in the interaction of communication, collecting, recording data, or recording the linguistic corpus of language from socio-pragmatic conversations according to discourse situations.

Based on the sample of the area mentioned, researchers successfully conducted interviews with snowball strategies by utilizing the ethnographic interview techniques for obtaining linguistic corpus from the informant of this study (Eiswirth, 2020; Shaw et al., 2015). The number of informants who were successfully reviewed was 178, consisting of 96 men and 82 women aged between 19 and 50 years. The number and distribution of informants or respondents are spread across eight sample areas as specified above, as displayed in the following table.
Table 1

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>No.</th>
<th>Region</th>
<th>Male/Man</th>
<th>Female/Woman</th>
<th>Total Informants</th>
<th>Information</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1.</td>
<td>Southern of South Sulawesi</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>a. Maros Regency</td>
<td>14</td>
<td>17</td>
<td>31</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>b. Baru Regency</td>
<td>18</td>
<td>16</td>
<td>34</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2.</td>
<td>Central of South Sulawesi</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>a. Municipality of Pare-pare</td>
<td>14</td>
<td>15</td>
<td>29</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>b. Pinrang Regency</td>
<td>17</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>29</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3.</td>
<td>Eastern of South Sulawesi</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>a. Sidrap Regency</td>
<td>19</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>31</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>b. Bone Regency</td>
<td>14</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>24</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Number of Informants</td>
<td>96</td>
<td>82</td>
<td>178</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The informants are between the ages of 19 and 50 years.

Table 2

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Abbreviation</th>
<th>Terms</th>
<th>Elaboration</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>S</td>
<td>Scene or setting</td>
<td>The discourse condition or conversation community</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>P</td>
<td>Participant</td>
<td>The participant talked About building up discourse</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>E</td>
<td>End</td>
<td>The aim of speech act expression</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>A</td>
<td>Act Sequence</td>
<td>The form and content of the speech act</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>K</td>
<td>Key</td>
<td>The tone, Speech act expression</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I</td>
<td>Instrumentalities</td>
<td>The Channel and form used in expressing speech act in discourse</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>N</td>
<td>Norms</td>
<td>The norm of interaction in building up discourse</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>G</td>
<td>Gendre</td>
<td>Categorization and type of text</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Therefore, in an in-depth analysis of the language corpus, the author used a component analysis of the linguistic variations and expressions of acquired language actions based on the conditions of socio-pragmatic discourse that informants have built-interacting (Licea-Haquet et al., 2019; Tran & Nguyen, 2021). The authors also employed the speaking strategy by Hymes (Holmes, 2013; Koch et al., 2022), as elaborated in Table 2 above, such as who speaks to whom, what they talk to, what linguistic channels are used, what the purpose of language variation, and expressions of language action in socio-pragmatic interactions, where speaker participants speak or conversation take place; and what the topic of conversation or discourse (Arundale, 2021; Pichler & Hesson, 2016). Thus, the corpus of language obtained was analyzed based on four steps, namely data encoding, data classification, interpreting interpreted forms and interpreted meanings (pragmatic meanings), and inferring the form and meaning of socio-pragmatic expressions based on certain variables (Alghazo et al., 2021; Holmes, 2013).

III. RESULT AND DISCUSSION

This research study managed to gather some linguistic variations and language acts. It is based on socio-pragmatic conversations and discourse interactions in any field and domain, whether a formal situation or informal (De Malsche &
Cornips, 2021). On that ground, the following results of the study can be discussed and presented as the configuration model of linguistic variations and speech act variations choice based on several parts: The variation of linguistics and speech act expression, the natural status of who and to whom the expression addressed, discourse style and situation, the scene of expression (polite or impolite), the linguistics and speech acts chosen, and the meaning form of expression (Culpeper & Tantucci, 2021; Kim et al., 2021).

![Figure 1. The Configuration Model of Buginese Language Discourse Used in Interaction Communication](image)

Based on the above figure, the meaning of speech variation refers to the situation and context of expressions in interaction communication so that an expression in a statement might contain prohibitions, commands, and ordering in its pragmatic meaning. Some of the results relevant to this study, as research findings, can be elaborated on in the following description.

Thus, it can be observed and stated that Linguistic variation, shown in Table 1 and Table 2, signifies the sociopragmatic interaction in Buginese Ethnicity culture based on politeness and impoliteness expression (Kim et al., 2021). In this context Licea-Haquet et al. (2019) argue that in communicative interactions, the speaker must be familiar with the discourse situation by observing certain paradigms such as in the keys: Who spoke to whom, i.e., Hamka spoke politely to his uncle by expressing *Tabe Puang meloka minrengi motorota* (Excuse me, Puang I would like to borrow your motor circle). However, the impolite expression *Meloka minrengi motoromo*. The meaning of the two expressions are similar to one another: Hamka wanted to borrow his uncle’s motorcycle: but the expressions are different; the first expression is polite because this sentence has polite markers, such as using lexemes *tabe* asking permit; *puang* called nobleman and then followed by a sentence *meloka minrengi motorota* (I would like borrowing your motorcycle). However, the second expression is impolite due to the absence of the lexemes *tabe* and *puang*, including using the reflexive suffix *mu* in the words of *motoromo*, the polite one should be *motorota* your motorcycle (Culpeper & Tantucci, 2021; Kim et al., 2021).

Thus, in discussing the linguistic variation formula as described in Table 3 (Ji, 2021), the use of reflexive pronoun suffixes (*-ta*) as in a word, *bajuta* (your shirt) is politer than these of reflexive pronouns suffix (*-mu*) in the word *bajumu* (your shirt). Another case of linguistic variation formula is the use of prefixes (*ta-*) in imperative verbs in the word *taponcia* pass me/give me; this linguistic variation is more polite than without the use of the prefix (*ta-*) in the word *poncia* give/pass me (Achmad, 2012; De Vaere et al., 2020). It can be observed in the following table. Such a finding is in line with the views of Noels (2014) and Ji (2021), reporting that the linguistic patterns of a language and the ethnicity of language users have become the object of in-depth study in a study and are of great interest to social sociolinguistic, pragmatic and psycholinguistic experts; thus the selection of variations in linguistic patterns is influenced by the insights of knowledge and repertoire possessed by ethnic speakers in building a discourse of communication interaction, for this reason, reciprocally the use of Language mutually reinforces the existence of ethnicity in establishing a culture of communication of an ethnicity.
Furthermore, the exploration of the linguistic corpus was described in Table 3, and some research results, as an encounter in empirical, can be presented in this article. First, language variations or language actions occurred based on the social status of discoursor participants (Beaulieu et al., 2018). It seems that if the participants of the language differ from each other, usually extended syntax, they used hedging strategies or indirect syntax (Eiswirth, 2020), and some polite lexemes, such as puang calling nobles, tabe asking permission, taddampengenga asking apologies for doing something; suffix: ‘... ta’ yours, and ‘...mu’ yours, used for neutral, idi you, iko you, used for neutral (Alghazo et al., 2021).

The use of optional linguistic ad speech acts variation is based on the considerations of acceptance, appropriateness, and politeness of language compensation according to several variables, such as the status of the speaker and interlocutor, the proximity of the speaker's distance to the interlocutor, and where the interaction of conversation and discourse occurs and under what conditions, whether official or formal or intimate. Based on this view, Karafoti (2021) argues that language politeness is a social benchmark, i.e., an evaluation of the behavior possessed by speech participants in socio-social interactions related to the moral order.

In this context, John Searle extended Austin's concept of speech acts and outlined the Speech Act Theory by identifying the conditions necessary to realize speech acts. For example, to promise, the speaker needs sincerity, intentionality, and commitment to carry out something as stated by a person or speaker to the interlocutor. Searle further classifies illocutionary actions in more detail, which include assertive actions, in which the speaker says how something is; directive actions, in which the speaker tries to get the listener to perform some actions in the future, such as asking and warning; commissive actions, in which the speaker commits to some future action, such as promising and promising; expressive actions which allow the speaker to articulate his psychological state of mind about some previous actions, such as apologizing and thanking; and declarative actions (El-Dakh & Ahmed, 2021; Karafoti, 2021; Licea-Haquet et al., 2019). For this reason, the ability to communicate depends not only on a whole language system but also on knowledge of a particular communicative context and knowledge of the interpretation of meaning in the context of the continuity of discourse and conversation (Licea-Haquet et al., 2019).

Second, based on the relationship of the discourse participant, if the participant has an unfamiliar relationship, use a long sentence. Such conditions were also used in all situations, which is recognized by stating the lexemes such as tabe, asking permissions, and then is followed by imperative r asking something, such as in the following syntax tabe tette siaga ipammuli tudang sipulunge, puang? (Excuse me, what time will the meeting begin, puang?). The statement above is quite relevant to House and Kádár (2021), claiming that if this type of typology range of illocutionary acts is studied in the replication of current research, it can produce reliable validity of the results. Furthermore, it can be tested by considering the acceptance in the expression of communication that applies inappropriate speech actions by the

### Table 3

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>The Variation of Linguistic Corpus Model of Linguistic Variation Formula Used in Buginese Language Discourse Interaction</th>
<th>The Nature Status of Speaker Participants</th>
<th>Domain, Style, and Situation</th>
<th>The Scene of Expression (Polite or Impolite)</th>
<th>The Meaning Forms of Expression</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Some Buginese speaker participants choose:</td>
<td>Using RP-addressed to high (H) status or the same status H Vs H or low (L) status vs L.</td>
<td>Any domains; formal and informal.</td>
<td>Polite Mark</td>
<td>Refer to the owner of things indicating using reflexive pronouns, as linguistic formulation variation.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>a) Reflexive Pronoun (RP) -ta in such as word bajuta your shirt, supatutua your shoes and the others choose RP -mu such as in words bajumu, supatumu.</td>
<td>RP -mu (H) status addressed to L status or L to L status.</td>
<td>Formal or informal.</td>
<td>Polite mark or neutral mark</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>RP -mu addressed to H status and unrecognizing people</td>
<td>Formal or informal.</td>
<td>Impolite mark</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>b) Prefix ta- (P.ta-) attach to the imperative verbs.</td>
<td>Using P.ta- (L) status addressed to high (H) status.</td>
<td>Formal or informal.</td>
<td>Impolite mark</td>
<td>Expressing by adding the prefix ta- (P.ta-) to the imperative words is a Polite expression in Buginese language linguistic formula.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Some Buginese speaker participants</td>
<td>The same status addressed P.ta-: (H) Vs (H) or (L) vs (L) status or (H) status addressed P.ta- or absence/or not use P.ta-l addressed to (L) status</td>
<td>Formal or informal.</td>
<td>Polite mark</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Used the prefix ta- (P.ta-) to verbs imperative, such as in the words taponciangnga, tabe as above but some others did not use P-ta in those words</td>
<td>(L) status addressed P.ta- or absence/or not use P.ta-l to (H) status</td>
<td>Formal or informal.</td>
<td>Neutral polite mark or optional use</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

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prevailing culture in an ethnicity, such as the same categorical grid as the appreciation of interlocutors, to build effective and sustainable communication (Eiswirth, 2020).

Some polite lexeme variations illustrated in Table 4 as a result of this study were acquired empirically, indicating and proving the richness of the Buginese language as a local culture that contains noble values and is still being maintained by the Buginese ethnicity. The presentation of the empiric data from the Buginese Language is closely related to the views of El-Dakhs and Ahmed (2021), arguing that several aspects influence the selection of linguistic variation options, namely social culture variables and social distancing that consider high and low social status, as well as the condition of the formality of discourse and conversational interaction. The accuracy of the excursion of these variables can build effective communication of interaction, harmonization, and acceptability of expressions in communication interactions (Arundale, 2021; Kim et al., 2021).

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>The Variation of Linguistic Polite Lexeme Choice in Discourse Communication</th>
<th>The Nature Status of Speaker Participants</th>
<th>Domain, Style, and Situation of Discourse</th>
<th>The Scene of Expression (Polite or Impolite)</th>
<th>The Meaning Forms of Expression</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>The Polite Lexeme (PL) expression:</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>➢ idi ‘iko’ second person designation</td>
<td>Lexeme ‘idi’ addressed to (H) status, and (UR);</td>
<td>Formal and informal</td>
<td>Politeness mark</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>➢ idi (polite) ‘iko’ (impolite) ‘you’</td>
<td>Lexeme ‘iko’ addressed to (H) and (UR)</td>
<td>Formal and informal</td>
<td>Impolitess mark</td>
<td>Lexeme tube has its function on the expression intended to get attention from the partner of the speaker; also, as appreciation in speaking interaction.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>➢ tube permission</td>
<td>(L) addressed to (H) or (L), addressed to (L) or (H) addressed to (H); All status addressed to (UR)</td>
<td>Formal and informal</td>
<td>Politeness mark</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>➢ tadampengenga I’m sorry</td>
<td>All Status addressed to all status</td>
<td></td>
<td>Politeness mark</td>
<td>The use of the lexeme tadampengenga is politer if a syntax begins with this lexeme expression.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Third, the optional choice of the lexemes in Table 2 is somewhat influenced by the scale of formality of speech act from formal to intimate and the use of formal or informal syntaxes (Kim et al., 2021). As an example or illustration acquired from empirical language corpus in a syntax expressed kegako melolao Marie? (Where are you going Marie?) that is a very informal or intimate expression, and it is an impolite sentence toward unfamiliar or unrecognized people. It should be stated Iye kegaki melo lao, Puang (Where are you going Puang) The formality mark of using Iye and the suffix ‘-ki’ for the word kega-ki these lexemes also include polite marks in socio-pragmatic interaction of Buginese culture. The option of selecting variations of linguistic expression is based on the sociological and pragmatic dimensions of language speech act operation in the illocutionary of communication units. The creation of effective and harmonious communication is supported by the ability to interpret the meaning of expression according to context and situation, i.e., how the repertoire ability of speech participants capture the meaning of the proposition based on the implicature of discourse or conversation in communication interaction (Hajimia et al., 2022).

Fourth, this study found that the other kind of linguistic variation in socio-pragmatic interaction is based on where the conversation happened (Licea-Haquet et al., 2019). The expression in the office is more formal than at home. One example is the expression informing something singi silessureng malebie meloka pallebangeki Makeda wajikii idi maneng ipaksin mappamula umuru 12 lawo 50 taung (Dear All brothers I would like to inform you that we are all obligatory to be victims, from the 12 to 50 age years). Such is in contrast with the expression of melo manekii vaksim mappamula umuru 12 lettu umuru 50 taung (someone stated to his family that all of us should be victims starting from 12 age to 50 age). This socio-pragmatic expression is more informal, neutral, and polite. This can be identified using the melomanekii means “all of us” expression, meaning that someone has to do it, depending on his/her awareness of instruction. It was different from the first expression, and it should be done. The topic of the first expression in the office is more formal than at home. However, the expression at home is more informal than in the office (Holmes, 2013; Sperlich & Lee, 2022).

Furthermore, the socio-pragmatic expression based on the local culture strongly influences the linguistic and speech act variation choice. Based on this view, it can be stated that the construction of syntax and optional choice of linguistic
formula in discourse interaction also depends on the formality and the place where discourse happened (Beaulieu et al., 2018; Miyamoto et al., 2021). Thus, it can be inferred that the expression of linguistic formula and speech acts variation is determined by the social status of speech participants, namely the expression of expression in high social status using formal sentences and the nature of the expression using long sentences compared to lower social status using short sentences and informal. Thus, Buginese language linguistic variations were created to maintain the formal rules of linguistics and the ethics of communicating as a realization of the implementation of local culture. As a matter of fact, it is also found that the relationship and distance of the speech participants also influenced linguistic variations and language speech actions.

Finally, this study found that the situation, place of the domain, and the timing of social interconnection communication also influence the occurrence of linguistic variations and language speech actions. In more detail, this study result is also to discover speech act variation choice that the Buginese ethnicity performs in building up discourse communication interaction as shown in Table 5.a., and Table 5.b., Table 5.c.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>The Speech Act Variation Choice in Discourse Interaction Communication</th>
<th>The Nature Status of Speaker Participants</th>
<th>Domain, Style, and Situation of Discourse</th>
<th>The Scene of Expression (Polite or Impolite)</th>
<th>The Meaning Forms of Expression</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>a) Illocutionary act (ILL-AC): Expression of sympathy or tactfulness. Mélono bosi loppo, puang. ‘it is going to heavy rain’.</td>
<td>(L) status addressee to (H), or (H) status</td>
<td>Happened in the Bone district, informal</td>
<td>Polite mark</td>
<td>(L) Status addressing hedging sentences to order the (H) status to stop because of raining; that’s polite expression.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>b) Illocutionary act (ILL-AC): Expression of asking for help or commanding</td>
<td>(L) status addressed to (L); If (L) addressee to (H) Status</td>
<td>A rural area of Pinrang district; formal and informal</td>
<td>Neutral polite mark.</td>
<td>Polite mark. Impolite mark.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mélono bosi loppo, puang. ‘it is going to heavy rain’.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Neutral Polite mark.</td>
<td>Polite mark.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>okko luoki Penrang, wedding moga telliagnga vocer pulsa. ‘if you go to Pinrang, would you mind buying a voucher pulse for me?’</td>
<td>(H) status addressed to (H) or (L) status</td>
<td>A rural area of Pinrang district; formal and informal</td>
<td>Polite mark. Impolite mark.</td>
<td>Neutral Polite mark.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>e'lianga pulsa kolaoko Penrang. ‘buy me voucher pulse if you go to Pinrang’</td>
<td>(H) status addressed to (H) or (L) status</td>
<td></td>
<td>Neutral Polite mark.</td>
<td>Polite mark.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
### Table 5.B

**AN EMMPIRICAL CORPUS MODEL OF SPEECH ACT VARIATION FORMULA USED IN BUGINESE LANGUAGE DISCOURSE INTERACTION**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>The Speech Act Variation Choice in Discourse Interaction Communication</th>
<th>The Nature Status of Speaker Participants</th>
<th>Domain, Style, and Situation of Discourse</th>
<th>The Scene of Expression (Polite or Impolite)</th>
<th>The Meaning Forms of Expression</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>c) ILL-AC: Ordering to do something:</td>
<td>(H) status addressed to (L) or (L) status</td>
<td>Formal and informal</td>
<td>Natural polite mark</td>
<td>The variation of interrogative sentence expression is successfully interpreted its meaning by decoder as command or order to do something.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>➢ <em>lebi makanjai kapang nareko tappatamai sapedata oko pukararangenge, amattoni ‘possible It is better to put your bicycle in the yard, and also save’</em></td>
<td>(H) status addressed to (L), or (H) (L) status addressed to (H)</td>
<td>Polite mark</td>
<td>Impolite mark.</td>
<td>The other form variation choice is used a direct declarative sentence, if (L) addressed to (L) is polite, but if addressed to (H) includes impolite</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>➢ The other form of expression: tappatamai sapedata oko pukararangenge, amattoni ‘possible It is better to put your bicycle in the yard, and also save’</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>d) ILL-AC: negotiating the cost, agreement</td>
<td>(H) status addressed to (H), or (L) addressed to (H) or (L) status</td>
<td>Formal and informal</td>
<td>Polite mark</td>
<td>This variation used declarative sentence expression is polite mark because not used direct sentence but hedging sentence</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Speaker 1: <em>sisga melo telliangi lambaceka puang siddi kilo? ‘how much do you want to buy my tomato in one kg’</em></td>
<td></td>
<td>Formal and informal</td>
<td>Polite mark</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Speaker 2: <em>Dua pulo lima sebba’is IDR 25.000</em></td>
<td></td>
<td>Formal and informal</td>
<td>Polite mark</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Speaker 1: <em>Weddiga ipenre sisebba puang ‘is it possible to increase IDR 1.000’</em></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Speaker 2: <em>Taroi jolo invitai ‘Let me see first’</em></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Speaker 2: <em>Iye pale ‘right’</em></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Speaker 2: <em>Iye pale ‘right’</em></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
The result of this study successfully discovers some units of communication based on analyzing linguistic formulas of speech act as an optional choice used in building up communication. Speaking of the variety of speech acts, several communication units have been found that are packaged in the form of illocutionary (Beaulieu et al., 2018; Haugh & Chang, 2019; Puupponen et al., 2022) as in Table 5.a and 5.b; 5.c include: The act of expressing sympathy, generosity, asking for help, ordering something, negotiating or bargaining, and prohibitions. In general, the characteristic of the expressions proposed by Buginese speakers is to use indirect sentence variations, such as statement sentences that contain the meaning of commands or sentences that contain the meaning of prohibition. Selecting variations of speech act sentences is a form of maintaining the ethics of civility in the language (Dippold et al., 2020). The selection of speech act variations and the selection of speech variations are based on the operational implementation of the local culture of the Buginese ethnicity.

In the study of the linguistic corpus of this study, several variables were found as optional factors for selecting linguistic variations in describing an expression, including the speaker status factor. An example of the expression in a snippet of discourse: The phrase of a speech participant whose status is lower Tube puang idimi uwakati mundangi hadere ri pestana silesureku, memuare alena petta engka kesempatana. Then it was responded by the interlocutor with his high status Upanna pestana silesureta when his party was his brother Inshallah ko decau, nenia mamuere naremoki adising-disingeng puange. From this snippet, it appears that low status uses an expression with long sentences to sustain honor and courtesy towards the high status or unfamiliar people. The meaning of socio-pragmatics whether first expression or hedging sentence or the other expression or direct sentence of those expression mean to prohibit to do something.

Thus, the relationship or the proximity factor among speakers engaged in discourse interaction is one of the variables for the appearance of linguistic variations and speech (Holmes, 2013; Tran & Nguyen, 2021). Examples of newcomers needing information on how to get the Head of The Camat Office (Pak Camat) in Pinrang Regency and ask someone or villagers he has never met before. The discourse of their arrest can be represented as Iye apa saya bisa bantu, puang; okkobolana Pak Camat macawe pole Jembatange okko riolo pertigaange, Bolana Pak Camat riolo, Iye apa saya bisa bantu, puang; okkobolana Pak Camat macawe pole Jembatange okko riolo pertigaange, Bolana Pak Camat riolo.
nappa Jembatange, nappa pertigaunage (Sorry Can I help you, get Mr. Camat's house close from the bridge at the three-way intersection, first you get Pak Camat's house then the bridge, and then the three-way intersection).

From this discourse, it seems that while the speaker partner uses some polite lexemes, such as Iye and puang, and long sentences as formal expressions, the person also employed linguistic code-switching variations, such as apa saya bisa bantu puang ‘what Can I help you? Puang’. That sentence is the Indonesian register; The paradigm occurred because the two speakers had never recognized each other, signifying distant relationships underpinning formal expressions based on local culture (called Siri) in establishing socio-pragmatic discourse interactions (Kim et al., 2021). This is because it is influenced by the varieties of the context that fluent continuity discourse communication in a conversation interaction (Pichler & Hesson, 2016; Puupponen et al., 2022), as stated in Table 5.a, Table 5.b, and Table 5.c.

Thus, in another part of the domain where the speaker asks again about Mr. Camat's house on the way, he uses code-switching and code-mixing with the phrase tabe, tadamppengenga dapatkah anda tunjukan dimana rumahnya Pak Camat, macave gare pole oko jembatange (Sorry, sorry, will you show me Mr. Camat's house? Someone stated that not far from this bridge). The speaker's partner's response: Iye tellapi bola pole okohe iye bola (Yes, there are three more houses from here). From these discourse interactions, the speaker uses a combination of mixing code with code-switching as the identity of newcomers in the village, meaning distant relationships. Therefore, the relationship between speech participants of linguistic variations and language actions in communication interactions are important factor to consider (Holmes, 2013; Sperlich & Lee, 2022). Additionally, the present work reveals the variables of place, time, and situation factors of communication can affect the expression of various linguistic variations and the variety of language speech acts in interactions. Such a notion corresponds with the one proposed by Stirling et al. (2022) that the discovery of references to places where communication interactions occur can positively contribute to the growing study of spatial language. Their study aimed to further deepen the level of speech participants and researchers about the effects of language, culture, and environment interactions to explain how speakers talk about space more effectively and communicatively.

IV. CONCLUSION AND RECOMMENDATION

Based on the disclosure of the research findings, data analysis, and discussion on various linguistic formulas and language speech acts variations in Buginese discourse communication interaction, below are the conclusions and a recommendation:

Identifying the various expressions of linguistic construction variations and language speech acts in Buginese language communication interactions can be presented as a model of the linguistic variety and speech acts variation systematically and comprehensively. The identified model of linguistic variation and language speech acts is a vehicle that illustrates how the Buginese use everyday discourse in communication interactions.

The factors or variables underpinning the selection can be presented as variations in linguistic construction and speech actions in Buginese language communication interactions through everyday discourse. Those variables include social status, speech participant relationships, places, times, and interaction situations. The adjustment of linguistic use with those variables seemed like the creation of linguistic politeness by the value of local culture as a realization in building communication ethics in Buginese culture.

This study found that many expressions of language speech are influenced by pragmatic contexts containing illocutionary act values, which require interpretation of meaning based on the situation and context of communication interactions. On that ground, the focus of this study revolves around the strengthening local content, local wisdom, and maintaining multicultural education. It can be interpreted that by identifying the construction of linguistic variation formulas and language speech acts variation as long as the language ethics in communication interactions, the realization of the local culture for the Buginese ethnic group is impactful to improve the scientific references in strengthening local content education and multicultural education research.

The present work also reveals linguistic variations in the use of formulas such as the prefix ta-' and the suffixes ‘-ki’ and ‘-ko’ are attached to verbs in the word ‘anre-ki/ko’ eat you; and the suffix pronoun ‘-ta’, ‘-mu’ is attached to nouns such as ‘bola-ta/mu’ meaning that your home can be an option in choosing language variations. Another option is the use of the second-person designations ‘idi’ and ‘iko’ meaning you, and the use of the revelation of honorific lexeme such as ‘tabe’ excuses me, ‘taddampengenga’ I apologize, ‘puang’ call of a noble king, ‘andi’ the call of a noble descendant, ‘Petta’ call kinship of a nobleman, ‘upuminasai’ expression of ethereal addressed to the nobility which its meaning to intend and aspire; and strategy of expression of language politeness by using indirect sentences, as a form of a selection of linguistic variety expressions to fulfill the polite speech acts.

Based on the results of this study, it is suggested that it can be developed and made a reference in the study of linguistic variations and variations of socio-pragmatic-based language actions, both in local languages in the Indonesian archipelago region, as well as other local languages globally. As stated in the above point, the results of this study can certainly also be a reference in developing local content education and multicultural education. For this reason, the author hopes that this study's results will positively contribute to the development of learning materials in local content education and multicultural education. Researchers believe that this specific focus can broaden the study of
sociolinguistics and pragmatics. Further studies can be developed with other research designs and methods by referring to the results of the present work.

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We would like to extend our gratitude to the Research Institute and the Department of English Language Education, Universitas Negeri Gorontalo. Special thanks to all informants of this study, especially the Buginese community in South Sulawesi, for their help in the identification of the application of the ethnography interview model and the discourse of daily conversations. Last, we thank our fellow researchers and the lecturer community of the English Department for their willingness to spend time in discussion activities and colloquiums on the results of this study.

REFERENCES

Syarifuddin Achmad was born on March 31, 1962. He completed his primary education at SDN No. 60 Ujung Pandang from 1967 to 1973. He continued his education at PGAN Pare-pare, completing his junior high school from 1975 to 1979, and his senior high school from 1979 to 1981. Syarifuddin then pursued his Bachelor's degree in an unspecified field at IKIP Ujung Pandang from 1981 to 1986. Later, he furthered his education and earned his Master's degree in an unspecified field at IKIP Jakarta in 1997. In pursuit of his academic journey, he completed his Doctoral studies in an unspecified field at UNSRAT, Manado from 2008 to 2011.

He has garnered experience in various fields throughout his career. Syarifuddin held the title of Associate Professor and currently serves as a permanent lecturer state university Gorontalo. He was honored with the Satyalancana Karya Satya 10 years award on April 2, 2005, bestowed upon him by the President of the Republic of Indonesia for his exemplary service.

Sartin T. Miolo was born on February 09, 1967. She completed her Bachelor's degree at FKIP UNSRAT in 1992. Subsequently, she pursued her Master's degree at Universitas Hasanuddin from 1998 to 2000. Later in her academic journey, she earned her Doctoral degree from Universitas Negeri Jakarta in 2018.

With an illustrious career, Sartin T. Miolo currently holds the position of Associate Professor. She serves as a permanent lecturer at state university Gorontalo.

Adriansyah Abu Katili was born on September 29, 1966. He completed his primary education at SDN Olahuta from 1975 to 1981. He continued his education at SMP Kabila, completing his junior high school from 1981 to 1984, and his senior high school at SMA Kabila from 1984 to 1987. Adriansyah pursued his Bachelor's degree at UNHAS from 1987 to 1993. Later, he furthered his education and earned his Master's degree at Universitas Malang from 2004 to 2007. In pursuit of his academic journey, he completed his Doctoral studies at Universitas Negeri Gorontalo from 2016 to 2021.

Throughout his career, He has received notable recognition for his dedication and service. He was awarded the Piagam Penghargaan on July 26, 2010, by the Directorate General of Higher Education (DIKTI). Additionally, he was honored with the Satyalencana 10 years award on August 1, 2012, bestowed upon him by the President of the Republic of Indonesia.

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Does the Use of Web-Based Extensive Listening Activities Affect Foreign Language Listening Anxiety and Foreign Language Anxiety?

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Abstract—Building on previous research revealing that extensive reading is as effective and efficient as formal instruction in acquiring English as a foreign language and with longer treatment duration, this study examined the effect of using two types of extensive listening activities, teacher-directed group (TD) and self-directed group (SD) on anxiety levels of EFL learners concerning gender to improve listening comprehension of EFL learners over a one year study program (2 semesters). Data were collected using a foreign language listening anxiety (FLLA) questionnaire, a foreign language classroom anxiety (FLA) questionnaire, and an English listening test. The results showed a statistically significant positive relation between FLA and FLLA while there was a statistically significant high negative relation between the test results in and both FLA and FLLA in all semesters. The results of the questionnaires showed that both anxiety levels were high in the first semester and then reduced significantly in the second semester with significant increase in the listening posttest scores. As for gender differences, results showed no statistically significant differences between gender in the TD group, but it was found that female were more anxious in both types in the SD group while male in the SD group attained higher scores in both tests. This showed that using extensive listening successfully reduced both FLA and FLLA for EFL learners. In the end, some pedagogical implications and recommendations were offered.

Index Terms—technology, Extensive Listening, Foreign Listening Anxiety, Foreign language Anxiety, web-based activities

I. INTRODUCTION

Listening is a critical skill in foreign language learning that requires complex processes. EFL researchers are constantly investigating the different types of classroom activities, approaches, methodologies, and strategies that negatively or positively affect EFL learners’ psychological state (Bekleyen, 2009). Some researchers support using English as the medium of communication in the classroom and extensive activities to improve learners’ listening skills and the factors that positively or negatively affect the process of listening comprehension (Botes et al., 2020). Renandya and Farrell (2011) stated that extensive listening is one of the most widely known approaches that improve the listening comprehension of EFL learners. Sufficient evidence from previous research claims that a comprehensive listening approach must be included in any EFL program.

For the past 20 years, considerable research has been devoted to exploring speaking anxiety, which researchers called the most anxiety-provoking activity (Horwitz et al., 1986). Liu and Xu (2021) confirmed that although other kinds of anxiety, such as listening and reading anxiety, are being researched these days (e.g., Elkhaiafi, 2005; Liu & Thondhana, 2015), more evidence should be investigated relative to other factors such as the type of approach adopted and the teaching strategy used. Liu and Xu also stated that listening is a challenging task that sometimes causes a heavy burden for EFL learners. When it comes to reading, learners can pause, reread parts of the text they did not understand, and skip some of the words, sentences, or even a whole paragraph. In speaking, they can simply ask the speaker to repeat the sentence. However, this is not the case with listening; learners have little control over what they hear and the speed of speech. These elements pose a stressful problem for EFL learners in the classroom.

Researchers interested in listening anxiety have begun to probe into the influence of some approaches and circumstances on listening comprehension. That is, while previous research focused on the broader concept of language anxiety and its relation to listening anxiety, more recent studies should be conducted to associate foreign language listening anxiety (FLLA) and foreign language anxiety (FLA) with a more beneficial approach as extensive listening (Chang, 2010). Thus, this study examines the effect of two types of extensive listening activities, self-directed (SD) and teacher-directed (TD), on anxiety levels of EFL learners and improving listening comprehension learners with its
relation to other variables such as academic levels and gender. According to the researchers, no study has examined such an issue in the foreign language field.

II. LITERATURE REVIEW

A. Theoretical Background

The input hypothesis is one of the most influential theories that value the role of comprehensible input. Language learners develop a language when they receive language input slightly more advanced than their current level (Krashen, 1982). This hypothesis encourages extensive exposure to language, in which learners will benefit more. Hadley (2001) argued that communication in a foreign language is the best way to improve learners’ listening skills. This can be best achieved by adopting the communicative approach to language teaching. Teachers model listening strategies in this method and offer extensive listening practice in authentic situations. The exposure to meaningful and comprehensible extended listening exercises in authentic contexts outside and inside the classroom is one of the important elements of this study.

B. Extensive Listening

Based on previous research on extensive reading and its marvelous role in improving EFL learners’ reading comprehension, the same idea and conclusions can be best applied to listening comprehension. Renandya and Farrell (2011) commented, “The key idea behind extensive listening is very much like that of extensive reading. Learners become better at listening when they do a lot of listening” (p. 12). The findings from extensive reading research are solid in the literature; it improved recognition skills, vocabulary, reading comprehension, fluency, and general language proficiency. The authors define extensive listening as “all types of listening activities that allow learners to receive a lot of comprehensible and enjoyable listening input” (p. 56). The fundamental idea behind extensive listening is that students listen to many enjoyable listening activities and do a lot of meaningful practice in the target language over an extended period. As stated by Renandya and Farrell (2011), these activities can be “teacher-directed dictations or readalouds or self-directed listening for pleasure that can be done outside the classroom” (p. 56). For them, extended listening comprehension can be carried out in class using teacher-directed practice or outside the classroom in the form of self-directed listening for pleasure.

Although EFL researchers advocate the application of extensive listening to improve listening comprehension (Chang & Millett, 2014; Renandya & Farrell, 2011; Ridgway, 2000; Stephens, 2010), very few studies can be found in the literature (Dixon, 2017). For example, Chang (2011) explored the effect of listening to 244 graded readers on seven EFL learners during 26 weeks. When comparing the results to the group not involved in the intervention, the experimental group scored highly in general vocabulary knowledge and listening comprehension. Such results encourage the researcher to conduct another study with a larger population (Chang, 2012). Thirty-one students participated in this study to listen to level-one and seven level-two graded readers over a two-semester period. The improvement of EFL learners in such a study was relatively small compared to the previous one. The reason can be attributed to the number of materials. Students studied an average of only 0.6 books per week, and the intervals between books were too far apart. Similarly, Chang et al. (2019) investigate the aspects that improve EFL learners’ listening fluency development. Sixty-nine students participated in the study and were divided into three groups: listening only (LO), reading only (RO), and reading while listening plus listening only (RLL) during 13 weeks. The results of the pre-post-tests of the learners comprehension of the practiced texts revealed that both the LO and RLL groups could process the more difficult texts at faster speech rates with higher levels of comprehension. As for the unpracticed texts, the RLL group could perform as well as they did on the practiced texts. However, the LO group could process the more difficult texts at faster speech rates. The RO group’s scores were very low compared to other groups.

In a recent study, Rohim and Fitariana (2022) used websites to practice extensive listening for EFL students. This quantitative study employed one group of pre-tested and post-tests as a tool for collecting data. The data analysis result indicated a significant difference in students’ tests before and after being taught by using extensive listening. In another comparative study, Binarkaheni et al. (2022) explored the perceptions of 10 students about using extensive listening through using YouTube. The tools for collecting data were a questionnaire and a semi-structured interview. The results showed that using extensive listening via YouTube improved the students’ listening fluency, the pronunciation of new vocabulary and grammar, and the ability to extract the meaning of vocabulary. Similarly, Hakobyan (2023) explored the relationship between vocabulary growth and extensive listening and found that extensive listening is a powerful tool for increasing vocabulary.

C. Foreign Language Anxiety and Listening Anxiety

FLA is an important psychological and affective variable that has been expansively studied in foreign language research. MacIntyre and Gardner (1994, p. 5) defined it as “apprehension experienced when a situation requires the use of a second language with which the individual is not fully proficient.” It refers to being uncomfortable and anxious while learning essential language skills. The issue of FLA was discussed in the early 1970s in different contexts, either in the traditional classroom or online learning situations, and results revealed that EFL learners experience FLA during
the learning process (Botes et al., 2020; Hasan & Fatimah, 2014; Horwitz et al., 1986; Gregersen, 2020; Xiangming et al., 2020; Liu, 2022; Tsui & Cheng, 2022).

While speaking is considered the most researched skill regarding anxiety, listening is another skill most learners struggle with when learning. Liu (2006) pointed to the problematic nature of listening and confirmed that it is a challenging area to teach; thus, it is likely to cause anxiety. Vogely (1998) demonstrated that one of the most ignored types of anxiety is the anxiety associated with listening comprehension. Liu (2006) believed that listeners face psychological problems such as worry about misunderstanding and fear of embarrassing outcomes. Sources of listening anxiety include the speaker’s speed rate, the listening material’s incomprehensibility, and some external environmental factors like noise and inaudibility. In’nami (2006) listed other factors related to the nature of input as speech rate, level of difficulty, lack of clarity, lack of visual support, and lack of repetition.

Research about anxiety and its relation to learning a foreign language falls into four basic categories: language competence (Horwitz, 2001; Hasan & Fatimah, 2014), learners (Hasan & Fatimah, 2014; Tsui & Cheng, 2022; Liu, 2006), issues related to teachers (Liu, 2016; Vogely, 1998), and classroom activities (Horwitz et al., 1986; Liu, 2022; Gregersen, 2020; Xiangming et al., 2020). Although these studies, and many others, explored anxiety and its relation to general foreign language learning, very few studies examined anxiety concerning specific language skills. Most of these studies concluded that anxiety is negatively correlated with language proficiency. They indicated that language learning proficiency improved when anxiety was reduced and vice versa. Chriswiyati and Subekti (2022) claimed that anxiety-related specific language skills should be investigated. Nowadays, researchers in FLA and FLLA are becoming more aware of the issue and its relation to language proficiency.

D. Related Studies

Compared to the bulk of research on anxiety and its relationship with other skills, specifically speaking, the number of studies on FLLA is far from satisfactory (Elkhafaifi, 2005). Only a few researchers have investigated FLLA (Liu & Thondhlana, 2015; Mills et al., 2006; Yamauchi, 2014; Zhang, 2013). One of the earliest studies that explored test anxiety on listening performance is that of Elkhafaifi (2005). The study examined the relationship between FLLA, FLA, and students’ performance in listening comprehension courses. The researcher used a questionnaire of FLLA as a tool to measure the FLLA of 233 EFL students of Arabic as a foreign language. The findings revealed that FLA and FLLA are separate but interrelated phenomena that correlate negatively with achievement. Moreover, the relation between FLLA and demographic variables showed negative correlations. To be specific, negative relationships between FLLA and years in school in which the more years, the less anxiety. Also, no correlation was found between gender and FLLA. The study indicated that reducing FLLA will enable EFL learners to perform better in listening comprehension proficiency.

Capan and Karaca (2013) investigated the relationship between gender, education level, and LA and reading anxiety of 159 EFL learners. Data were gathered from Foreign Language Reading Anxiety Scale and FLLA scale. The results showed identified positive correlations between reading and listening anxiety. Moreover, results revealed moderate correlations between education level and reading anxiety. In a recent study by Liu and Xu (2021), the researcher investigated how FLLA impacted FFL learners’ listening test performance. Also, they examined other factors, such as gender and proficiency level, to FLLA. The sample included EFL students from two universities who took a listening comprehension test, FLLA questionnaire, and demographic questionnaire. The results revealed five factors underlie FLLA and showed that English proficiency level, gender, and FLLAS2 (proficiency in English listening) significantly predicted students’ English listening test performance. In addition, Chriswiyati and Subekti (2022) investigated the interrelations between foreign language listening anxiety and strategy use and their effects on the test performance of high- and low-proficient 1160 EFL learners. The data was gathered through questionnaires and a listening test. The results showed that low level students were more anxious in the FLLA questionnaire and less active in listener strategy use than high level students. Also, FLLA was significantly correlated with FLLSU for both high- and low-level groups. As for FLLSU, it was found to be a good predictor for English listening test performance for both low- and high-level students. Li (2022) explored the relationship between FLLA and listening performance in another comparative study. The researcher administered the FLLA scale and IELTS test twice with an interval of three and a half months to three hundred EFL learners. Results revealed that FLLA impacted FL listening performance but not the opposite.

As for the relation between extensive listening and FLLA, very few empirical data in the literature investigated the effect of extensive listening approach and gender on FLLA. In a study by Chang (2010), the researcher explored the role of extensive listening in improving listening comprehension performance and reducing listening anxiety in an over one year experiment. The researcher compared the extensive listening group to the formal instruction group. The participants (N=92) in the experimental group underwent listening anxiety and listening comprehension tests before and after the experiment. Results showed that the extensive listening group developed significantly in listening competence. Also, their anxiety score increased, and the researcher noted that it should be considered a tool to accelerate learning.

This study aims to emphasize the significance of addressing the issue of FLLA and FLA appropriately. It also examines the impact of various factors like the adopted approach and demographic factors such as gender and academic level on the issue, making it a crucial topic in the foreign language field. The literature mentioned above reported a paucity of research in this area. This article contributes to the literature on extensive listening and its relation to FLA and FLLA by posing the following questions:
1) Is there a significant relationship between foreign listening comprehension achievement and FLLA?
2) Is there a significant relationship between foreign listening comprehension achievement and FLA?
3) Is there a significant relation between FLLA and FLA and academic level for the TD groups and the SD groups?
4) Does the use of self-directed and teacher-directed extensive listening comprehension activities affect improving male and female EFL learners’ foreign listening comprehension?
5) Is there a significant relationship between FLLA and FLA?

III. METHODOLOGY

A. Research Design

The present study explored the effect of using two types of extensive listening activities on the anxiety levels of EFL learners and the role of these activities in improving the listening comprehension of EFL learners. Four experimental groups participated in the study: male and female teacher-directed groups (TD) and male and female self-directed groups (SD) over two semesters. Each group received the FLLAS, FLCAS, and English Listening performance tests at the experiment’s beginning and end.

B. Participants

The participants of this study were 212 college students in Saudi Arabia, aged 19 to 23 years, majoring in English language and translation. Participants were exposed to English from 9 to 13 years. The participants were all underwent placement tests (STEP) before admitted to the college with a minimum STEP grade of 50 to 5 and were randomly distributed into four classes by the college. All participants studied the same textbooks, the same materials, and the same time allotted for the extended listening activities. Under such circumstances, it is reasonable to assume that any differences in the results between the groups would be mainly attributed to the different comprehensive listening activities. Along with the pretest and posttest, some demographic questions and background information about participants were required. The first meeting with students revealed that none had the experience of taking (partial or full) control of their learning, meaning they depended totally on teachers’ directions. The demographic characteristics of the participants are summarized in the following table (Table 1). A total of 212 participants applied to the two surveys and exams. 112 were the SD group, and 100 were TD group. A total of 51.8% of the SD group was male, while 48.2% was female. 55% of TD’s group were male, while 45% were female. See Table 1.

<p>| TABLE 1 DEMOGRAPHIC CHARACTERISTICS OF THE PARTICIPANTS (N=212) |
|---------------------------------|------------------|------------------|------------------|</p>
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Group</th>
<th>Gender</th>
<th>Count</th>
<th>% within Group</th>
<th>Total</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Male</td>
<td>Female</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>SD</td>
<td></td>
<td>58</td>
<td>54</td>
<td>112</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>TD</td>
<td></td>
<td>55</td>
<td>45</td>
<td>100</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td></td>
<td>113</td>
<td>99</td>
<td>212</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

C. Procedures

Before starting the experiment, the researchers introduced the concept of “extensive listening” to the two groups, how and why the approach would be implemented, and the results of related studies in extensive listening. Then, the participants signed a consent form to participate in the study and received the FLLA, FLA questionnaires, and the pretest. They were informed that all personal information would be kept confidential. The university’s Institutional Review Board approved this study (638229514588414155).

After that, they were first directed to subscribe to the collection of English language podcasts offered by the researchers (Appendix A) to receive weekly authentic listening materials. The students had to listen to assigned materials weekly (no less than 15 minutes) and summarize their aural input (50-100 words). All groups were given the same materials and amount of time to practice their listening skills. The difference is in the way they implemented the activities. The TD groups were told to follow the researchers’ instructions. The teachers guided them in discussing the content of the materials, practicing the activities, summarizing what they learned from the book, and assessing their comprehension inside the classroom. As for SD groups, they were given the instructions the same as the other group, but they had to manage their learning outside the classroom. They listen to the listening materials and answer the related questions, and the role of the teachers is to follow up with them. To check students’ anxiety levels, the two groups received the FLLA scale, FLA scale, and English Listening performance test at the end of the experiment.

D. Tools of the Study

(a). Foreign Language Listening Anxiety Questionnaire

This study employed the FLLA scale as the primary tool. Elkhafaifi (2005) was used in this study to detect the FLLA of EFL learners. The first part of the questionnaire included basic demographic information, gender, and number of
years of English study. All the 20 items in the questionnaire are used in the study with a change in only one word to better suit the study. The word “English” is used instead of “Arabic.” This questionnaire used a 5-point Likert scale. Each FLLAS item had five choices, ranging from “strongly disagree” to “strongly agree,” with values of 1–5 assigned to the choices, respectively. The higher the score, the more anxious the learner was. The instrument was found to have a high internal consistency when measured N = 0.96 (Elkhafaifi, 2005), and in his study was 0.842, indicating that it was a highly reliable instrument.

(b). Foreign Language Classroom Anxiety Questionnaire

The study employed the Foreign Language Classroom Anxiety Scale (FLCAS) to measure students’ anxiety levels in their FLA. Horwitz et al. (1986) designed 33 questionnaire items to measure the FLCAS of EFL learners. Djafri and Wimbarti (2018) modified the original version used in this study to be 34 items with item-total correlation coefficients ranging from 0.303 to 0.696 and an alpha reliability coefficient of 0.933. The respondents of the study will be asked to give a response to every statement given. The score ranged from “strongly disagree” to “strongly agree,” with values of 1–5 assigned to the choices, respectively. The higher the score, the more anxious the learner was.

c). English Listening Test

The instruments incorporated in this research were a pretest and a posttest. Both of these tests comprise guidelines for who is eligible to complete them, demographic questions about participants’ universities, genders, and academic levels, and questions designated for listening skills adopted from TOEFL internet-based test. Also, the listening questions were based on four audio lectures (24 questions) and three audio conversations (15 questions), corresponding to one score for each, with a total score of 39. Finally, these tests were transferred to electronic versions using Google Forms. These tests examined the predicted effects of extensive listening activities on EFL learners’ English listening proficiency. The reliability of the pretest and posttest are shown in Table 3.

E. Data Analysis

To analyze and compare results, the SPSS program was used to establish tables. The descriptive statistics (means, standard deviation, percent, frequencies, and correlations) were used to investigate the effect of extensive listening on anxiety levels according to gender and the different groups of extensive listening, SD, and TD. The qualitative interpretation of 5-point Likert scale measurements is based on the following: strongly disagree in the point range of 1.00-1.80, disagree 1.81-2.60, neutral 2.61-3.40, agree 3.41-4.20, and strongly agree 4.21-5.00 (Pimentel, 2010).

IV. RESULTS

A. Reliability

To calculate the reliability of the previously mentioned tools, a pilot sample size of (30) students was employed to calculate Cronbach’s Alpha. The result of the FLAS (34 items) was (0.842), the FLLAS (20 items) was (0.743), the listening comprehension pretest (39 items) was (0.896), and the listening comprehension posttest (39 items) was (0.887). These results indicate good reliability for all the tools. Cronbach’s alpha ranges from r = 0 to 1, with r = 0.7 or greater considered sufficiently reliable (Nunnally & Bernstein, 1994). This information is summarized in Table 3.

B. Descriptive Analysis

Table 4 shows the descriptive statistics of all groups in the study (n=212). In the first semester, the SD group’s highest mean score for the FLAS was (3.8284± .30630). Also, the highest mean score for the FLLAS scale was (3.8362±3.2813) for the SD group in the first semester, while the highest mean score for the exam was (30.1400±6.88435) for the TD group in the second semester (posttest).
### Table 4
**Descriptive Statistics for All Groups (N=212)**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Level</th>
<th>Group</th>
<th>Statistics</th>
<th>Foreign Language Anxiety Scale</th>
<th>Foreign Language Listening Anxiety Scale</th>
<th>Test (Pre-Post)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
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<td>Range</td>
<td>1.65</td>
<td>1.90</td>
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</table>

#### Figure 1. Anxiety Levels of All the Groups in the Two Semesters

#### Figure 2. Results of the Pretest and Posttest for All the Groups in the Two Semesters
C. Answering the Research Questions

Table 5 shows the relation between the study variables for the first semester. There is a statistically significant positive relation between FLA and FLLA with a coefficient (r= 0.916, p <0.001). In contrast, there is a statistically significant very high negative relation between the FLA with a coefficient (r= -0.903, p <0.001) and FLLA with a coefficient (r= -0.942, p <0.001) in the pretest in the first semester.

| TABLE 5 | CORRELATION MATRIX BETWEEN THE STUDY VARIABLES FOR LEVEL ONE |
|--------------------------|--------------------------|--------------------------|
| Pre Test | Foreign Language Anxiety Scale | Foreign Language Listening Anxiety Scale |
| Pre Test | Pearson Correlation | 1 | -.903** | -.942** |
| Sig. (2-tailed) | | <.001 | <.001 |
| N | 212 | 212 |
| Foreign Language Anxiety Scale | Pearson Correlation | 1 | .916** |
| Sig. (2-tailed) | | <.001 |
| N | 212 | 212 |
| Foreign Language Listening Anxiety Scale | Pearson Correlation | 1 | | |
| Sig. (2-tailed) | | |
| N | 212 | |

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

a. Level = Level one

Table 6 shows the relation between the study variables for the second semester. A statistically significant high positive relation exists between FLA and FLLA with a coefficient (r= 0.870, p <0.001). At the same time, there is a statistically significant high negative relation between the posttest results of both FLA with a coefficient (r= -0.777, p <0.001) and FLLA with a coefficient (r= -0.870, p <0.001) at the second level.

| TABLE 6 | CORRELATION MATRIX BETWEEN THE STUDY VARIABLES AT THE SECOND LEVEL |
|--------------------------|--------------------------|--------------------------|
| Post Test | Foreign Language Anxiety Scale | Foreign Language Listening Anxiety Scale |
| Post Test | Pearson Correlation | 1 | -.777** | -.870** |
| Sig. (2-tailed) | | <.001 | <.001 |
| N | 212 | 212 |
| Foreign Language Anxiety Scale | Pearson Correlation | 1 | .870** |
| Sig. (2-tailed) | | <.001 |
| N | 212 | |
| Foreign Language Listening Anxiety Scale | Pearson Correlation | 1 | | |
| Sig. (2-tailed) | | |
| N | 212 | |

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

a. Level = Level two

(a). TD Group

Table 7 shows the results of the independent sample t-test for the differences in the TD group according to the level (One- Two). The result shows a statistically significant difference between the two semesters (p<0.001). Differences were found in both anxiety scores in favor of the first semester, with the highest mean scores on the FLA scale (3.6207±.21909) and the FLLA scale (3.8010±.34326). Also, there is a significant difference between the two levels in the test results, in favor of the posttest at the second level, which had the highest mean score (30.1400±6.88435).

| TABLE 7 | COMPARISON AMONG TD GROUPS |
|--------------------------|--------------------------|--------------------------|
| Level | N | Mean | Std. Deviation | t | p-value |
| Foreign Language Anxiety Scale | | | | | |
| Level one | 100 | 3.6207 | .21909 | 33.591 | <0.001** |
| Level two | 100 | 2.3233 | .31809 | | |
| Foreign Language Listening Anxiety Scale | | | | | |
| Level one | 100 | 3.8010 | .34326 | 22.720 | <0.001** |
| Level two | 100 | 2.4340 | .49415 | | |
| Test | | | | | |
| Level one (Pretest) | 100 | 21.8800 | 7.99404 | -7.830 | <0.001** |
| Level two (Posttest) | 100 | 30.1400 | 6.88435 | | |

** Significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).
(b). SD Group

Table 8 shows the results of the independent sample t-test for the differences in the SD group according to the levels (One- Two). The result shows a statistically significant difference between the two semesters (p<0.001). Differences were found in both anxiety scores in favor of the first level, with the highest mean score on the FLA scale (3.8284±.30630) and the FLLA scale (3.8362±.32813). Also, there is a significant difference between the two levels in the test results, in favor of the posttest at the second level, which had the highest mean score (24.1875±8.75650).

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Variables</th>
<th>Level</th>
<th>N</th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>Std. Deviation</th>
<th>t</th>
<th>p-value</th>
</tr>
</thead>
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<tr>
<td>Foreign Language Anxiety Scale</td>
<td>Level one</td>
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<td>3.8284</td>
<td>30630</td>
<td>19.645</td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Level two</td>
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<td>2.9508</td>
<td>.30630</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Foreign Language Listening Anxiety Scale</td>
<td>Level one</td>
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<td>3.8362</td>
<td>.32813</td>
<td>12.494</td>
<td>&lt;0.001**</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Level two</td>
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<td>.46341</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Test</td>
<td>Level one (Pretest)</td>
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<td>8.12000</td>
<td>-3.616</td>
<td>&lt;0.001**</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Level two (Posttest)</td>
<td>112</td>
<td>24.1875</td>
<td>8.75650</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

** Significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).

(c). Gender Comparison Among TD Group

Table 9 shows the results of the independent sample t-test for the differences in the TD group according to gender (Male, Female). The result shows no statistically significant difference between gender (p>0.05) in all study variables at all levels.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Level</th>
<th>Variables</th>
<th>Gender</th>
<th>N</th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>Std. Deviation</th>
<th>T</th>
<th>p-value</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
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<td>3.6131</td>
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<td>0.703</td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
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<td>45</td>
<td>3.6300</td>
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<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Foreign Language Listening Anxiety Scale</td>
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<td>55</td>
<td>3.7782</td>
<td>.33593</td>
<td>-0.733</td>
<td>0.465</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Female</td>
<td>45</td>
<td>3.8289</td>
<td>.35379</td>
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<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Pre Test</td>
<td>Male</td>
<td>55</td>
<td>21.9636</td>
<td>7.44104</td>
<td>0.115</td>
<td>0.909</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
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<td>45</td>
<td>21.7778</td>
<td>8.70707</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Level two</td>
<td>Foreign Language Anxiety Scale</td>
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<td>2.3204</td>
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<td>0.914</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Female</td>
<td>45</td>
<td>2.3269</td>
<td>.20038</td>
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<td></td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Foreign Language Listening Anxiety Scale</td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
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<td>2.5233</td>
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<td></td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Post Test</td>
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<td></td>
<td></td>
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<td>45</td>
<td>30.2889</td>
<td>5.01644</td>
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<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 10 shows the results of the independent sample t-test for the differences in the SD group according to gender (Male-Female). The result shows a statistically significant difference between genders (p<0.001). Differences were found in both anxiety scores in favor of females, with the highest mean score in both levels. Also, there is a significant difference between gender in the test results in favor of male, who has the highest mean score in both pretest and posttest.
being identified with anxiety since it is viewed as a feeling related to females than males (Yamauchi, 2014). The correlation between anxiety and gender can be ascribed to the fact that males are more likely to resist expressing anxiety publicly (Elkhafaifi, 2005). For example, Yamauchi (2014) reported that female students compared to males suffered from higher anxiety levels when faced with language learning challenges. The results also showed that female participants had more anxiety in FLA and FLLA than male participants. However, Tsui and Cheng (2022) propose that males have higher levels of FLA in their study. The controversy regarding the correlation between anxiety and gender can be ascribed to the fact that the language, its skills, and achievement, in general, are affected similarly by anxiety. This result does not align with Zhang’s (2013) study on structural equation modeling on potential causal relationships between FLA and English listening performance. The findings suggested that FLA could have an impact on FL listening performance. However, the results did not indicate a systematic influence of FL listening performance on FL listening anxiety. These causal relationships may be attributed to the situation-specific nature of FLA. Additionally, the results of Binarkaheni et al. (2022) and Hakobyan (2023) supported the results of this study. The researchers explored students’ perceptions of extensive listening and its relation to vocabulary growth. The results showed that using extensive listening via YouTube improved the students’ language learning abilities, which can discourage them from engaging in language study.

V. DISCUSSION

This study sought to investigate the effects of extensive listening activities by employing technology on the listening comprehension of Saudi EFL learners. Additionally, it explored the effect of extensive listening activities on reducing FLLA and FLA. Then, the results were explained in light of the previously stated research questions. Regarding the first research question, the study’s results showed a significant negative correlation between all participants’ FLA levels and academic achievement in the sense that the more achievement participants obtained, the lower their anxiety level. This result means an inverse relationship between anxiety and academic achievement in the sense that when individuals perform better academically, their anxiety tends to decrease, and vice versa. Also, this result lends support to several studies which found that anxiety negatively correlated with language proficiency, suggesting that language anxiety should be reduced when language competence improves (e.g., Arnold, 2000; Elkhafaifi, 2005; In’nami, 2006; Li, 2022; Liu, 2022). Liu (2022) found that the 934 first-year male and female students who performed FLCA at the beginning of the semester demonstrated that FLCA was significantly negatively correlated with English test performance for all students. Tsui and Cheng (2022) indicate that FLA is correlated negatively with one’s achievement in language learning. According to Botes et al. (2020), there is a relationship between anxiety levels and achievement, suggesting that higher anxiety levels are associated with lower levels of achievement. Additionally, studies on foreign language anxiety (FLA) conducted by Li (2022) indicated that students with high anxiety levels tend to hold negative perceptions about their language learning abilities, which can discourage them from engaging in language study.

Regarding the second research question, the results indicated a significant negative correlation between participants’ FLA level and academic achievement. The more achievement participants obtained, the lower FLA they had. This result is no different from that of the first one. It could be attributed to the fact that the language, its skills, and achievement, in general, are affected similarly by anxiety. This result does not align with Zhang’s (2013) study on structural equation modeling on potential causal relationships between FLA and English listening performance. The findings suggested that FLLA could have an impact on FL listening performance. However, the results did not indicate a systematic influence of FL listening performance on FL listening anxiety. These causal relationships may be attributed to the situation-specific nature of FLLA. Additionally, the results of Binarkaheni et al. (2022) and Hakobyan (2023) supported the results of this study. The researchers explored students’ perceptions of extensive listening and its relation to vocabulary growth. The results showed that using extensive listening via YouTube improved the students’ listening fluency, the pronunciation of new vocabulary and grammar, and the ability to extract the meaning of vocabulary.

For the third research question, the results indicated that there were different levels of FLLA and FLA for the TD group because they were a bit high in level one and then reduced to low in level two. This means that the higher the academic level, the lower the level of anxiety. As for gender, there were no significant differences between male and female participants in the FLA, yet the level of FLLA was higher for the female participants than their counterparts in both questionnaires. Furthermore, for SD groups, the listening anxiety level was a bit high for level one, whereas it reduced to moderate for level two. For FLA, it decreased as participants increased academically. Finally, the results also showed that female participants had more anxiety in FLA and FLLA than male participants. These results support several studies (e.g., Botes et al., 2020; Elkhafaifi, 2005) documenting that females had higher anxiety levels. For example, Yamauchi (2014) reported that female students compared to males suffered from higher anxiety levels. However, Tsui and Cheng (2022) propose that males have higher levels of FLA in their study. The controversy regarding the correlation between anxiety and gender can be ascribed to the fact that males are more likely to resist being identified with anxiety since it is viewed as a feeling related to females than males (Yamauchi, 2014).

Regarding the fourth research question, the results showed that, for the TD group, academic achievement increased in the posttest. In contrast, their anxiety level in FLA and FLLA decreased for both genders. On the other hand, the SD group’s achievement in the posttest increased slightly more in the posttest than in the pretest; however, the two types of anxiety did not decrease significantly for both genders. The participants’ academic progression would most likely mean

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Level</th>
<th>Variables</th>
<th>Gender</th>
<th>N</th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>Std. Deviation</th>
<th>T</th>
<th>p-value</th>
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<td>3.9380</td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
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<td></td>
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<td>Level two</td>
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<tr>
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<td>Post Test</td>
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<td>&lt;0.001**</td>
</tr>
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<td>54</td>
<td>20.5185</td>
<td>7.75264</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

** Significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).
their proficiency level increased. Therefore, the results mentioned above lent support the results of some researchers (e.g., Bekleyen, 2009; Arnold, 2000; Elkhafaifi, 2005; In' nami, 2006; Tsui & Cheng, 2022). Most of these studies reported that anxiety negatively correlated with language proficiency, suggesting that FLA should be reduced when language competence improves.

Finally, regarding the fifth research question, the results indicated that both types of anxiety decreased after incorporating the teacher-directed extensive listening for both genders in both the posttest and the second questionnaire. However, before using said strategy, the level of anxiety was a bit high for both genders in the first questionnaire. The results partially support that of Chrisriwiyati and Subekti (2022), who showed that the extensive listening group developed significantly in listening competence. Also, their anxiety score increased, and the researcher noted that it should be considered facilitative to learning.

VI. PEDAGOGICAL IMPLICATION AND RECOMMENDATIONS

The results of the study offered different pedagogical implications for EFL instructors. Teachers usually encounter students with either low or high levels of FLA or FLLA, especially with students learning another language. It is beneficial to widen their understanding to include anxiety in their curriculum by including some of the latest research results and the best strategies for reducing FLA in general and FLLA. EFL teachers can provide not only understandable input but are also responsible for providing students with extensive listening activities to facilitate the learning process. Additionally, they can adopt specific listening strategies to help students listen more effectively and recall more of what they hear. Although most teachers recognize that students’ pitfalls are part of learning success, students should be allowed to guess and take risks in class. Teachers must explain that mistakes are not signs of failure but a normal aspect of language learning progress. Furthermore, teachers are not only supporters of comprehensible input, but they should help students emotionally by teaching them how to listen and providing a feeling of security (Li, 2022). Horwitz et al. (1986) advised teachers to help students to make the learning environment less stressful. This can be done by advocating positive self-coaching in which teachers can help students not to worry about the new vocabulary they hear.

The selection of materials when using extensive listening is one of the important factors in reducing anxiety. EFL teachers should pay special attention to the choice of listening texts, especially when using authentic materials. Providing students with materials that are appropriate in the sense of level of difficulty will help reduce their listening anxiety (Hakobyan, 2023). Moreover, teachers should also support students to identify their listening anxiety and discuss it openly in class. Binarkaheni et al. (2022) encourage teachers to discuss students’ negative feelings, such as anxiety and frustration, because using this way may open the gate to solving other problems for the whole class, especially for those who were not having enough language learning experience. Furthermore, teachers should teach explicit listening strategies to all EFL students since it was documented to decrease anxiety and increase motivation (Rohim & Fitariana, 2022). Thus, providing feedback and engaging the students with valuable strategies would develop the student’s self-confidence. Elkhafaifi (2005) stated that comfortable students are more likely to succeed. In addition, cultural differences found in authentic texts may constitute a psychological obstacle, such as anxiety, that may increase tension and frustration (Capan & Karaca, 2013). In this way, teachers are advised to consider these differences and explain some vague elements related to the target language’s social rules and cultural differences. Finally, establishing a supportive and friendly classroom environment is as important as pushing students to succeed academically. Despite the revealing findings, some limitations existed in the research. The present study gathered data from the first year of EFL students, which tracked their progress upon applying the strategy. A comparable study could monitor the advancement of students throughout their four years of university until graduation. Furthermore, it's important to investigate the correlation between FLA, FLL, and other predictors like student motivation, self-perception, psychological factors, etc., particularly in the context of Saudi students.

Future studies should also consider the effects of other factors, such as age and year of study, which might affect the results to varying degrees if researched.

VII. CONCLUSION

Language learning is a dynamic learning process that requires researchers and practitioners to constantly search for the most suitable learning approach, method, or technique for the context of learning. This applies to the teaching of listening, which is problematic due to the many factors contributing to the difficulties in EFL listening. FLLA and FLA are among the factors that could affect L2 learners’ performance and academic success. The findings of this study suggested that using extensive listening activities can reduce both FLLA and FLA.

APPENDIX

1. TED Talks: https://www.ted.com/talks
2. British Council Listening | LearnEnglish (britishcouncil.org)
3. All Ears English: https://www.allearsenglish.com/episodes/
4. The English We Speak: https://www.bbc.co.uk/programmes/p02pc9zn/episodes/downloads


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Tayari Jones’ *An American Marriage* (2018): A Marxist Reading

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**Abstract**—This paper focuses on examining the principles of Marxism as reflected in an active form in the novel and how it relates to the realistic experience of the African American society. It is obvious to humans that the society is stratified into groups or classes. The mainstream runs between the rich and the poor which when extended can include the weak and powerful, then the leaders and the led. This stratification has been better understood using the theory of Marxism. Marxism principally affects the physical, social, political and mental state of a man. Accordingly, there are countless literary texts that have been created to reflect the principles of Marxism as seen in the society. Among them is the novel titled “An American Marriage” that examines such tenets of Marxism such as racial segregation, gender roles, and violence. Themes of the novel as they relate to core principles of Marxism and popular literary and non-literary appraisal of the novel will be highlighted in the study. In conclusion, most analysts and critics feel that the theory of Marxism can only be applied to novels on core issues such as wars, violent conflict, riot, employment issues and any other forms of revolution.

**Index Terms**—Marxism, Celestial, marriage, employee, oppression

I. INTRODUCTION

Karl Marx founded Marxism, a social, political, and economic ideology that focuses on the battle between capitalists and the working class. The link between one's social class and the means of production, according to Marx, determines one's social class. There are at least two classes in any class-based society: the bourgeoisie, who own the means of production, and the proletariat, who sell their labour to the owners of the means of production. The petite bourgeoisie and the lumpenproletariat were two further classes defined by Marx. The petite bourgeoisie is analogous to a little business class that never makes enough money to join the bourgeoisie, let alone threaten their status. The underclass, or individuals with little or no social position, is known as the lumpenproletariat. Furthermore, the concept of "base and superstructure," as defined by Marx, asserts that a society's economic character acts as the foundation, while culture and social structures function as the superstructure. As a result, according to Marx, the nature of a society is determined by its foundation (economy). As Afolayan contends "Marx had observed a continual conflict between two main classes—those who own the means of production and those who provide the labor. The former category is the minority, made up of people who own everything needed for livelihood, while the latter, which comprises the bulk of the world's population, consists of people who have nothing they could call their own" (2011, p. 6). Furthermore, Marx contended that capitalist-worker power relations were essentially exploitative and would inevitably lead to class warfare.

A more prudent way to reconstruct the Marxist approach to literature is to begin from Marx’s unfinished introduction to his Grundise (1858, published posthumously) and his “Preface” to A Contribution to the Critique of Political Economy (1859). Together they cater the philosophical (materialist) position of Marx as applied to the economic society and the superstructure built on it. The base represents being: the superstructure, consciousness. That being, which precedes consciousness, is a cardinal tenet of materialist philosophy (Bhattacharya, 2016).

"Marxism attempts to reveal the ways in which our socioeconomic system is the ultimate source of our experience" (Tyson, 2006, p. 277). *An American Marriage*, Jones’ fourth novel, examines the discrepancies in the criminal justice system through the viewpoint of a young African-American marriage. The novel is set in modern-day Atlanta and follows newlyweds Roy and Celestial as their upwardly mobile, middle-class lives are flipped upside down when Roy is unfairly accused and imprisoned. In *An American Marriage*, Jones examines the dramatic consequences of mass incarceration on African-Americans' lives. The closely focused tale demonstrates how incarceration can devastate families, leaving them in a socioeconomic disadvantage that is impossible to overcome. The narrative is in first person, alternating among three characters Roy, Celestial, and Andre. Roy and Celestial had a fierce argument at the start of the novel and how it relates to the realistic experience of the African American society. It is obvious to humans that the society is stratified into groups or classes. The mainstream runs between the rich and the poor which when extended can include the weak and powerful, then the leaders and the led. This stratification has been better understood using the theory of Marxism. Marxism principally affects the physical, social, political and mental state of a man. Accordingly, there are countless literary texts that have been created to reflect the principles of Marxism as seen in the society.

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condemned by the judge to 12 years in prison. Meanwhile, Celestial finds contentment in a relation with Andre, a long-time companion who can provide her with the support and stability that Roy cannot. Meanwhile, after his release from prison, Roy begins dating Davina, a former high school classmate.

What are the characters' socioeconomic classes? What kinds of conflicts or relationships do different groups of characters have? Are some of the topics that this paper will cover. In addition, the elements of oppression, racism, class struggle, and class stratification as depicted in Tayari Jones' novel, *An American Marriage*, will also be identified and investigated in this study.

II. LITERATURE REVIEW ON THE THEORY OF MARXISM

Marxism, as previously said, is a theory centred on the altering of society as a result of a state's economics. Literature, according to Karl Marx, is a superstructure and hence an agent of change, so Marxism, as an ideology that preaches change, cannot be separated from it. Eagleton (2002) believes that literature is a true reflection of the social institutions that it emerges from. In agreement with Karl Marx, Georgy Plekhanov (1953) describes literature as a superstructure that may be utilized to relate to past and affect changes in the present. He defines literature as an art form that has an impact on man's psychology, making it an important weapon for Marxist ideology to use as a change agent. They all agree, for example, that literature is a process that evolves from the sociocultural elements of the societal order. Eagleton (1996) further illustrates: that Marxism is part of a larger body of the theoretical analysis which aims to understand ideologies the ideas, the values and feelings by which man experiences the society at various times. And certain of these ideas, values and feelings are available to us only in literature (12).

Marx's views on slavery and capitalism are asserted in a letter to Pavel V. Anneenkov dated December 28, 1846 which he claimed are closely intertwined, and that slavery, like other aspects of industrialization, is essential to its survival. *Black Reconstruction in America* (1935), a treatise based on Marx's Civil War works, was published by an African-American sociologist W. E. B. Du Bois. In it, he claims that white racism impeded labor's aspirations to attain independence and that the decline of white labor to adequately aid the post–Civil War Black struggle cut short the gains “and resulted in subordination of colored labor to white profits the world over,” (Du Bois, p. 30) C. L. R. James and Raya Dunayevskaya, a Russian American Marxist philosopher and economist, constructed a new Marxist framework that focused the American history on the discourse of race and class. They also stated that throughout pivotal eras in American history, such as the Civil War and the 1930s, the Black fight shook up society, spawning a union of Black and White labour. According to conflict criminology, which is based on the writings of Karl Marx, in order to fully comprehend capitalist society, it is necessary to acknowledge the dominance of a wealthy elite whose survival depends on the economic exploitation of others, and that such societies’ ideas, institutions, and practices are designed and managed to ensure that exploitation continues. Thorsten Sellin, a pioneer in the conflict criminology, contends that when laws are enacted, they will represent the majority cultural or ethnic group's customs, beliefs, and interests, perhaps resulting in a cultural conflict. The neo-Marxists of the late 1970’s Critical Legal studies movement were concerned that the practice of North American law, as well as the way law was taught in American universities, was reinforcing class (and economic) inequalities and hierarchies. This, they thought, was very critical in manifesting racism. According to Bowles and Gintis (1976), oppression of the Black race can be linked to economic standing and stratification in various parts of the world. They claim that racial differentiation is an important component of Marxism since economically powerful individuals can easily become oppressors, and their victims are frequently their employees. In a country like America, black people have long been labourers, hence they could be considered lower-class citizens. This demonstrates that racial problems are part of Marxist theory since it has to do with the creation of places for oppressors (upper classes/capitalists) and oppressed (lower/working classes).

Writers like Tayari Jones use fiction to express factual human experiences in a bid to correct them. Therefore, this study is designed to examine the novel, *An American Marriage* and identify the Marxist ideologies in it and thereafter justify the text as being compatible with the theory of Marxism.

III. INCARCERATION IN USA AND THE NOVEL, *AN AMERICAN MARRIAGE*

Pashukanis connects capitalism to the systemic basis of criminal justice. He contends that “Criminal justice in the bourgeois state is organised class terror, which differs only in degree from the so-called emergency measures taken in civil war” (Pashukanis, 2002, p. 173). According to a 2014 report by Human Rights Watch, "tough-on-crime" measures of the 1980s inundated American prisons with mostly nonviolent offenders. With the end of the Jim Crow era came "The War on Drugs" which is more of a racial offensive, as African Americans are swept off the streets in large numbers and then sentenced to purposefully high sentences for small, first-time offenses, sentences that are roughly 20% greater than those imposed on white people charged with the same crime. As a result, incarceration is the most common means of punishment and reform for every crime or violation committed in the United States as the inmates form a very important part of capitalist accumulation of capital and work force. Ashley Nellie’s 2021 report “The Color of Justice: Racial and Ethnic Disparity in State Prisons” showing the racial disparities of African Americans in the prisons, states that “Looking at the average state rates of incarceration, we see that overall blacks are incarcerated at a rate of 1,408 per 100,000, while whites are incarcerated at a rate of 275 per 100,000” (p. 13). According to the report,
African Americans are 5.1 times more likely than whites to be incarcerated in state prisons. The disparity is greater than ten-to-one in five states (Iowa, Minnesota, New Jersey, Vermont, and Wisconsin). On the other hand, states with more than half of their convicts being black include Alabama, Delaware, Georgia, Illinois, Louisiana, Virginia, Michigan, Mississippi, and other states. With 72 percent of detainees being black, Maryland has the greatest proportion of African-American inmates in the US. To conclude, one in every twenty adult black males in the US is incarcerated in eleven states. Therefore, both incarceration and racial treatment of African Americans have profound consequences on individuals, resulting in social, economic, emotional, and psychological traumas.

While responding to a question from Oprah Winfrey about incarceration, Jones said:

To black Americans, mass incarceration is an ongoing threat, like hurricanes on the coast and earthquakes or fires in California. Prison can swoop in and snatch up the men in our families at any time. I decided to write about the collateral damage around that—what happens to families, to relationships, to dreams for the future. How does this social wrong translate into the everyday? As a novelist, I wanted to explore.” Ron Charles (2018) cited Jesmyn Ward’s “Sing, Unburied, Sing” and Jones’ *An American Marriage* to attack racism in incarceration of African Americans. He observed that, despite their well-educated and well-paid status, the characters are victims of a distorted judicial system. While commenting on the racial disparity in the novel, *Novelist and Women's Prize Founder Director, Professor Kate Williams, Chair of Judges-2019, said: ‘This is an exquisitely intimate portrait of a marriage shattered by racial injustice. It is a story of love, loss and loyalty, the resilience of the human spirit painted on a big political canvas - that shines a light on today's America.’ (An American Marriage, p. 69)

As a result, Jones in *An American Marriage* subtly draws our attention to the laws, crime, bias, or a combination of these variables that may be leading to the racial disparities in African-American incarceration. She emphasizes that the existence of these disparities should be alarming. Furthermore, *An American Marriage* is a critique of the penitentiary system, which is predicated on unjust arrests and skewed verdicts. It’s a story about racial injustice, oppression, and police brutality, as well as a critique of the socio-political conditions that contribute to these events. Tayari Jones condemns a legal system that discriminates against people based on their skin colour. It’s a system in which white people regard themselves as oppressors of black people.

**IV. Marxism Approach in _An American Marriage_**

Jones’ novels depict African-American realities in the South, particularly how unjust legal systems affect their lives. *Leaving Atlanta* depicts how the Atlanta government neglected the black community during the 1979-81 Atlanta Child Murders, and the novel concludes with no justice given. Jones researched the issues of mass incarceration in the United States, as well as its impact on black men and women, and wrote *An American Marriage* as a result. She illustrates the difficult struggles that an African-American character has within the context of the racist judicial system. The novel is a remarkable work that has already received international praise after only three years of publication. It has won numerous accolades, including: 2018 Los Angeles Times Book Prize for Fiction, 2019 Orwell Prize for Political Fiction, and 2019 Women's Prize for Fiction to name a few.

Tayari Jones, an African-American woman writer, explores socio-political issues in her writings. In her examination of the struggle of Black characters in general, and Roy Jr. in particular, she provides a Marxist perspective into the lives of many of her characters. She shows the horrible experiences that an African-American character has while in prison (academia.edu). Jones wants to underline that, as an African-American, he is a victim of racism and an unjust legal system. In Jones’ works, people of colour in America are doubly oppressed, as their lives are ruled by economic racial disparity.

Tayari Jones, as an African-American writer, covers issues such as the slave trade, class, police brutality, and racism in Black American history. Jones writes from this vantage point in order to express her story of Black men’s incarceration, judicial, and societal injustice. *An American Marriage* was written at a time when the injustice of mass incarceration was at the centre of civil rights debates. Furthermore, Jones ironically sets the story mainly in Atlanta city which distinguishes it from the rest of the states in USA, as this state is heralded for its successes in overcoming a history marked by discrimination, misunderstanding, and disadvantage based on race. Atlanta is a place steeped in African-American history, having played a key part in both the Civil War and the Civil Rights Movement of the 1960s. This was also the home of Martin Luther King Jr. Thus, the novel *An American Marriage* is based on the history of Black subjugation by a White Supremacist system, as well as the economic position of the majority of black people and families.

The #BlackLivesMatters Movement organized worldwide protests against police brutality two years after Jones’ novel *An American Marriage* was published. Its mission is to eradicate white supremacy and build local power to intervene in state and vigilante violence against African Americans. Alicia Garza and Opal Tometi, two of the movement’s founders, claim to have been influenced by Marxism (61). The narrative covers a wide range of viewpoints on criminal justice reform. Because of Roy's skin colour, he was unfairly convicted of a crime he did not commit, and the #BlackLivesMatter movement wants to change the criminal justice system to make it more equal and fairer. Roy is found guilty of rape, despite the lack of evidence against him. Without a fair trial, he is condemned to twelve years in prison. Because of his dark skin, he is assumed to be guilty right away, and the injustice meted out to him has a lasting
impact on his life and marriage. In *An American Marriage*, Jones explores the far-reaching effects of mass incarceration on black Americans’ lives. Roy discovers that he is oppressed by multiple powers in the form of race and class once he is incarcerated. Roy suffers because he is a black, a product of working class, a victim of biased legal system and a prisoner in jail. He is racially segregated because of living under an unjust incarceration system. He is socially marginalized on account of being wrongfully incarcerated and compelled to leave his job and break his marriage. Sidney M. Willhelm, in his essay, “Can Marxism Explain America’s Racism?”, claims that many Marxist thinkers believe that capitalism is to blame for racism towards African Americans in the United States (p. 1). Therefore, the novel can be evaluated from a Marxist perspective because of the various components that characterize Roy’s life, as well as aspects of his social existence and his racial reality in a prejudiced-justice system. To begin, it is critical to consider Roy’s suffering as a prisoner. He is treated unfairly by his country’s legal system, loses his mother to cancer while incarcerated, and has a failed marriage later on. Being of black race, he has to suffer as an employee, son, and husband.  

**V. IMPACT OF INCARCERATION ON ROY IN AN AMERICAN MARRIAGE**

According to Marxism “the individual has limited agency; he/she is a reactionary being whose identity formation is determined by socio-economic conditions” (Parris, 2007). Roy is a young, middle-class black guy who is wrongly accused of a violent crime—something that happens disproportionately to black men—and sentenced to 12 years in jail by the American criminal justice system. Of course, this sentence has a huge impact on Roy’s life. As he writes to Celestial about the conditions in prison, his trauma is evident. “Don’t ask me questions about the details. Just suffice it to say that it’s bad in here. Even if you killed somebody, you don’t deserve to spend more than a couple of years in this place” (An American Dream, p. 50). While Roy is personally affected by his imprisonment as “he is unable to attend the funeral of his mother Olive, who dies while he is in prison” (An American Dream, p. 59). Furthermore, Celestial and Roy decide to abort the pregnancy once Celestial discovers she is pregnant soon after Roy is condemned to prison because Roy doesn’t want to have a child who will have to say his daddy is in prison.

In many ways, after his release from prison he feels outcaste and unwanted. Celestial is reluctant to get physically intimate with him. He inquires as to whether she is hesitant because she suspects he has an STD or because she does not wish to become pregnant. “Don’t treat me like a criminal, Celestial. You’re the only one that knows for sure. Please don’t treat me like I got some kind of disease” (An American Dream, p. 231). She remains silent and, points to a scar on his ribs, which he claims was caused by a knife wound. He begs her to believe in him, telling her about how he killed a man by selling him a waste bag. Celestial understands his anguish, but he realizes that she, like the jury, has decided what will happen between them. It is evident that his experience in jail has permanently altered his marriage and himself. Roy tells Celestial “I’ve been through a lot, Celestial. Even if you go in innocent, you don’t come out that way. So, please?” (An American Dream, p. 231). He has violent and furious outbursts that terrify both him and everyone around him. He even threatens to rape Celestial. However, the next morning, he regretfully considers this incident as a symbol of how prison has alienated him from the society and himself too. When Roy and Andre fight over Celestial later, Celestial is shocked at Roy’s aggression but he questions her “What about you?” (An American Dream, p. 11). Roy was pacing now, back and forth over a short distance, like he was covering the floor of a narrow cell. “It wasn’t supposed to be like this,” (An American Dream, p. 261), he said. Roy's rage astounds his old friend Andre, who wonders if he learnt to fight with such ferocity in prison. “Had he learned this in prison, this way of beating a person? There was none of the stick-and-move than I remembered from school-yard brawls. This was the nasty scrapping of a man with nothing to lose……. Have you ever stared fury in its eyes? There is no saving yourself from a man in its throes. Roy’s face was haunted and wild….His need to hurt me was greater even than my own desire to survive.” (An American Dream, pp. 258-259). Both Celestial and Andre regard him as an outcast. His behaviours are deemed to be in violation of society’s moral norms. As a result, he is shut off of society. His behaviour deteriorates as he experiences anxious strain. They assess him based on his actions rather than the suffering he has been through. With Celestial, he feels out of place. Jones shows how incarceration has a long-term impact on a man's behaviour. The once “rising executive” has been reduced to a rogue. While describing Roy’s state, Andre says “He feels like everything was taken from him—his job, his house, his wife—….. He can’t get his job back; corporate America waits for no man, let alone a black man” (An American Dream, pp. 197-198). While a lawyer fights to have Roy's sentence reversed, Roy gradually realizes that his life after jail will be nothing like it was before he went to prison. Jones uses Roy as an illustration of how incarceration has a long-term impact on people's life. Even after being exonerated, Roy realizes that inmates are rarely able to restart their lives as they were before their incarceration—not only because of the ways in which society punishes ex-convicts, but also as a consequence of because of the ways in which incarceration separates them from their loved ones.

Roy’s incarceration also has far-reaching consequences for others around him. Celestial's life is turned upside down by Roy's arrest, and she must learn to live as a single woman. Celestial's absolute terror as the cops assault their room and bring them out into the parking lot is an image that haunts her for a very long time. Roy informs Celestial that his cellmate Walter sided with Celestial in their dispute over Celestial’s hiding about Roy’s incarceration in her interview to a magazine. Walter sees the negative connotation of incarceration on African-American life and tells:
She is a black woman and everybody already thinks she got fifty-one babies with fifty-one daddies; that she got welfare checks coming in fifty-one people’s names. She got that already to deal with, but she got the white folks to believe that she is some kind of Houdini doll maker, and she even got them thinking that this is an actual job. She is working her hustle. You think she supposed to get up there talking about her man is in the hoosegow? (An American Marriage, p. 70)

Walter reminds Roy that it’s commendable that Celestial hasn’t succumbed to any of the other terrible stereotypes she may have been subjected to.

Jones utilizes these examples to demonstrate how incarceration affects a man’s social, economic, and mental health in the long run. When this type of behaviour is repeated throughout a society, a vicious cycle of crime and oppression can emerge.

VI. INCARCERATION AND ROY AND CELESTIAL’S MARRIAGE IN AN AMERICAN MARRIAGE

While describing the most natural relationships, Karl Marx states that “The direct, natural, and necessary relation of person to person is the relation of man to woman” (Karl Marx Economic and Philosopchic Manuscripts, Private Property and Communism, 1844). The narrative that Celestial relates to Roy about the success of her doll show is another illustration of how incarceration can ruin marriages by putting them in a socioeconomic disadvantage that is impossible to overcome. Celestial had achieved some success in the art world with her dolls before Roy’s incarceration, but it is only after he is incarcerated that she creates a doll with Roy’s face dressed in a prison uniform, which receives a great lot of attention and admiration. It was inspired by a time she observed a young kid on the street and worried that he, like Roy, might be imprisoned due to his skin colour. However, during an interview about her incarceration-themed art, Celestial fails to mention that her husband was wrongly imprisoned and that this event was the idea for the doll. Roy feels deceived by this narrative omission, believing that Celestial’s mention of his case would have drawn attention to it, maybe leading to his sentence being overturned. Meanwhile, Celestial is afraid of the reputation that comes with having a spouse in prison. Her refusal to publicly acknowledge Roy’s erroneous conviction exemplifies how she buries the worst aspects of her personal life in her art in order to avoid being categorized as a Black woman using her misery for financial advantage. Perhaps the other most important element in Roy and Celestial’s marriage dissolution, aside from incarceration, is abortion. The decision to end Celestial’s pregnancy was deliberate because of the significant responsibilities that come with parenting a child. Roy and Celestial are driven by the legal injustice and racial discrimination towards them thus leading them to make regretful and hard choices. “Marriage is like grafting a limb onto a tree trunk,” (p. 107). Celestial adds, implying that it takes time for two individuals to become one. Their young marriage is significantly vulnerable to incarceration, a family broken by separation and imprisonment.

The family institution was placed in the superstructure by Marx and Engels. While highlighting the views on marriage and sexual love by different Marxist critics, Richard Weikart contends that “The view of future marriage and sexual relationships that Marx and Engels sketched was largely compatible with the conceptions of Owen and Bakunin. Owen advocated individual marriage based only on mutual affection and fairly easy divorce notion if that affection faded” (p. 667). In Roy and Celestial’s marriage, Jones illustrates this. All of the traditional marital tensions, such as Roy’s expectations from his wife following his incarceration and their differences in economic background, drive their relationship to an end as soon as Roy is falsely convicted in the novel.

“Are you really comparing me with the women who crowd the crack-of-dawn bus to prison? I know them, too. I’ve met them myself. They organize their whole lives around coming to Parson; besides working, it’s all they do” (An American Marriage, p. 85). Celestial wrote these lines to Roy in a letter as an explanation for why she wants to end her marriage with him. Celestial is clearly class aware, and she believes it is beneath her to be “strip-searched by guards” at the prison on her way to see Roy every time. The above quote is also significant because it demonstrates Celestial’s outrage when Roy compares her to the other “women around here who have been coming to see their men for decades, riding buses that leave Baton Rouge at 5 am” (An American Marriage, p. 84). Celestial’s apparent lack of commitment irritates Roy, who believes she should visit at least as frequently as the wives of those imprisoned who, unlike Roy, are actually accountable for their misdeeds. Celestial, on the other hand, believes it is beneath her to be compared to those women who “besides working, it’s all they do” (An American Marriage, p. 71). As Marxism contends, class distinctions play a crucial part in the collapse of a marriage.

VII. CLASS SEGREGATION AND RACISM IN AN AMERICAN MARRIAGE

From a Marxist point of view, Roy and Celestial’s identity is determined by the different socio-economic conditions of the society in which they live. Roy is at odds with Celestial, who is not of his social level.

Her mother worked in education...as an assistant superintendent to the whole school system...her dad hit pay dirt about ten or twelve years ago, inventing a compound that prevents orange juice from separating so fast? He sold that sucker to Minute Maid and ever since, they have been splashing around naked in a bathtub full of money. (An American Marriage, p. 10)

Roy is extremely conscious of Celestial’s high economic status. Roy’s Christmas recollection with Celestial of Big Roy getting only one apple as a child, so he and his father would share an apple every Christmas morning when Roy
was a kid, is another example of a secret he's kept from her out of fear of her judging his upbringing in poverty. Even before Roy's incarceration, a large part of the tension in Roy and Celestial's relationship derives from their contrasting economic backgrounds. Celestial grew up in a relatively affluent family in Atlanta, while Roy is the first in his family to leave rural Louisiana to attend college. Celestial believes Roy's mother, Olive, thinks she's arrogant, and while Roy dismisses Celestial's concern, it's accurate. Roy reads a letter from his mother to him at the end of the novel, in which she expresses her belief that Roy is marrying a woman who reflects the society he aspires to be a member of. He loved Celestial not for who she was, but for what she represented in his eyes, as he aspired to the American dream and everything that it included. He was drawn to Celestial by her way of life. Roy was attracted by her way of life and charisma because of his previous socioeconomic conditions. Roy, on the other hand, was a "black and struggling" country boy, raised by working-class parents who worked hard to provide for him, and grew up in a family where he says "if my childhood were a sandwich, there would be no meat hanging off the bread" (p. 13). Roy was helped to get an education through a leg-up program in Eloe, a small Louisiana town with few opportunities, and after graduating from high school, he came to Atlanta, where he now has a good life and family with Celestial, after ten years of hard work.

We see class stratification within communities of colour as well. Celestial is among the “Artists to Watch,” (p. 12) from a wealthy family, which aided her aspirations to become a well-known industrialist, as she succeeds in her doll-making business. She is a self-employed worker who does not rely on the wages of others to support herself. While discussing Celestial’s earning and fame, Olive’s statement clearly shows the inadequacy the working class can feel. “Five thousand dollars for a baby doll?” (An American Marriage, p. 23). Olive fanned herself with the magazine, lifting her peach-preserve hair. “I guess that’s why God invented white folks” (p. 23). The preceding remark illustrates that white people's society is largely a consumerist one, and as Eagleton puts it, "the human race is constantly preoccupied with the production of materials to satisfy these needs" (p. 760), resulting in the formation in the society of two classes: bourgeoisie and proletariat. Furthermore, it is difficult for millions of individuals like Olive, who work hard and take on modest jobs, to meet this type of materialist standard with their meagre salaries. This can lead to feelings of failure, inadequacy, and dissatisfaction at their inability to succeed despite their efforts.

Roy considers his socioeconomic situation to be "on the rise," despite not belonging to the "garden-variety bourgeois Atlanta Negroes," (p. 14) making him a petite bourgeois, which Karl Marx defined as a "transitional class" in which the interests of the major classes of capitalist society (the bourgeoisie and the proletariat) meet and become blurred. The petite bourgeoisie is located between these two classes in terms of its interests and social situation. According to Marx, concentration and centralization of capital was eventually to throw the petty bourgeoisie into the ranks of the increasingly immiserated working class, just as the peasantry were to become proletarianized despite their attachment to the land (https://www.oxfordreference.com/view/10.1093/oi/authority.20110803100320389). Similarly, in the middle of a very severe socioeconomic situation, Roy wants to build his own universe. However, in the face of legal injustice and racial oppression, he is compelled to resign from his work as a rising executive, thereby halting his promising career. Furthermore, Roy appears to be a Marxist figure in his search for a position in society, attempting to discover the various forms of socio-economic forces that rule his society. As a result, Roy represents an oppressed class, revealing how they will rise up and create their own just society. Roy gradually wants to break free from the shackles of incarceration and racial oppression. Although the society is rife with racism and injustice, he wants to live.

According to Marxism, when it comes to race, it is essentially a matter of ideology. An important example of racism in the novel is the place Piney Inn where Roy is eventually arrested. Roy recounts to Celestial that his mother Olive used to work as a maid at the Piney Inn when the rooms were still decked with Confederate flags (The Lost Cause of the Confederacy, or simply the Lost Cause, is an American pseudo-historical, [2][3] negationist ideology that advocates the belief that the cause of the Confederate States during the American Civil War was heroic, just, and not centred on slavery (https://ennewspaper.latimes.com/infinity/article_share.aspx?guid=bfb284f1-9b32-4419-ad7b-205953ac2c73) Olive refused to let her son be born with a Confederate symbol on his chest, therefore Roy was almost born at the Inn. Despite this, Roy is imprisoned in the same room where his mother used to clean; the flags may have been removed, but not the discriminatory racial views they symbolize.

In his article, “A Prolegomenon to Critical Race Theoretical Marxism”, Walter Sean outlines Kehinde Andrews’ correlation between imperialism and whiteness, arguing that imperialism and global capitalism would not have been feasible without white supremacy. Sean concludes that "In other words, racism, in the form of White supremacy, is a pre-requisite for imperialism and global capitalism, and is, in turn, re-created by this very global capitalism. Crucially, the form of racism necessary to sustain capitalism is created and maintained by White people, and (through ideology) this form of racism becomes as real and material as class” (p. 8). Jones demonstrates in An American Marriage how capitalism was the root of African Americans’ enslavement, leading to racism against them. In one of Celestial’s letters to Roy, she explains her mother’s past, giving the reader an insight into the history of slavery in America. Celestial recounts how, when her mother was a new born, her grandmother runs into a white woman and her child while grocery shopping, who, upon seeing Celestial’s mother in the pram, exclaims, “Look, Mommy! A baby maid!” (p. 53). As a result of this incident, her grandparents chose to immigrate to Atlanta. This occurrence is notable because it represents racial prejudice and class segregation that African Americans have faced throughout history, whether as slaves in the nineteenth century or later as wage labourers in the mid-twentieth century America.
Jones emphasizes the dread of incarceration and racism in the scene where Andre is going to see Big Roy in Elone. Andre's fear of driving in Louisiana shows that he is fully aware of the discrimination that black people face, particularly in light of Roy's sentencing. He says:

The last thing I needed was to attract police attention, especially on the back roads of Louisiana. If it could happen to Roy, it could happen to me. Besides my conspicuous skin, my car was a stunner. . . . The truck—Mercedes M-Class—had gotten me pulled over a half-dozen times in the last three years, and once I was even slammed against the hood. Apparently, make plus model plus race equaled drug dealer, even in Atlanta. (An American Marriage, pp. 202-203)

While police stop by themselves are unlikely to result in a conviction and prison sentence, having a criminal record is linked to the decision to incarceration for later offenses, a cycle of events that disproportionately impacts African Americans. Furthermore, the above remark illustrates that blacks' sources of income will be inspected and questioned, even if they are wealthy.

VIII. OPPRESSOR AND THE OPPRESSED IN AN AMERICAN MARRIAGE

According to Marxist criminologists, the Bourgeoisie wields power, and laws are a manifestation of Bourgeois ideology and that the Bourgeoisie's interests are also served by the legal system as well as the police. The law, according to Karl Marx, is the mechanism by which one social class, commonly referred to as the “ruling class,” maintains a disadvantageous position for all other social groups (Tibbets, p. 87). Marxist analyses of political class supremacy usually commences with the state and its direct and indirect involvement in attaining the conditions for economic class domination. Its reach has grown to cover other aspects of human endeavour, such as entrenched racial bias in the criminal justice system, as depicted in Roy’s incarceration.

In one of his letters to Celestial from prison, Roy writes about the number of prisoners “There is so much here that makes you stop and say, “Hmm . . .” Like there are about fifteen hundred men in this facility (mostly brothers)” (An American Marriage, p. 39). He goes on to write “I don’t want to be some kind of crazy conspiracy nut, but it’s hard not to think about things in that way,” (An American Marriage, p. 39) and that “My dad thinks it’s the Klan. Well, not the Klan specifically with hoods and crosses but more like Ameri–KKnTa”. AmeicKKnTa is a pejorative slang for the country The United States of America. Generally used in depicting the country as fascist or racist (https://www.wordsense.eu/Amerikkka/). The following comment is significant because, first and foremost, the high proportion of black convicts in modern-day America illustrates racism. Second, it reveals how, on both economic and cultural level, capitalism exploits and destroys African-Americans through incarceration.

The topic of oppression by the wealthy or upper class was on Karl Marx and Fredrick Engels' minds as they developed the Marxist notion of freedom for all. Because Roy’s colour marks him as a “possible rapist and criminal,” and he might spend his youth in a prison bemoaning his innocence. During his trial, Roy becomes distant and estranged because he is denied a fair trial to a significant extent. His misery is palpable as he is subjected to legal injustice. On the day of his hearing, Celestial while testifying for her husband’s innocence says about the jury that “they didn’t believe me. Twelve people and not one of them took me at my word. There in front of the room, I explained Roy couldn’t have raped the woman in room 206 because we had been together” (An American Marriage, p. 44). “As I took my seat beside Andre, not even the black lady juror would look at me” (An American Marriage, p. 45) Celestial adds. The fact that there is just one black juror among a jury of twelve exemplifies the legal system's inequity. One juror from the minority will be forced to follow the majority’s opinion, which is oppressive in itself. Celestial’s plight and helplessness is evident in the situation as she narrates that “I fully believed that I would leave the courtroom with my husband beside me. Secure in our home, we would tell people how no black man is really safe in America” (An American Marriage, p. 45). Jones implies that such judicial institutions and practices are designed to keep marginalized, oppressed, and vulnerable communities under check by ignoring the testimony of witnesses. Jones is also hinting that for less serious offenses, judges may compromise with the constraints of law, allowing other factors to influence their decision. Racial bias based on a sense of racial threat is one of these factors. The novel addresses the problem of oppression, because Roy is the major victim of the state policies and its institutions, as he is falsely accused of a horrible crime such as rape, despite the fact that destiny places him in the wrong place at the wrong time. This is further exemplified in the following conversation between Davina and Roy “I know,” she said. “Nobody around here thought you did it. It was just the wrong race and the wrong time. Police are shady as hell. That’s why everybody is locked up” (An American Marriage, p. 159). For African Americans, the legal system is one of cruelty and retribution. “But that was when we thought incarceration had something to do with being guilty or at least being stupid” (An American Marriage, p. 121). Roy Jr. tells Roy Sr. This remark demonstrates how, over time, police violence and criminal justice against African Americans have become oppressive.

IX. CONCLUSION

“Marxism is a theory of liberation or it is nothing”, Dunayevskaya contended in Marxism and Freedom. Therefore, Marxism was concerned with human freedom and the loss of its existence under capitalism. Roy’s incarceration affects his family and his own sense of security and stability in their own country. Jones contends that if Roy was arrested and
imprisoned despite his socioeconomic status being "on the rise," then people from lower socioeconomic classes have an even lesser chance of being treated justly by a biased criminal justice system. The conclusion of An American Marriage is that, while the incarceration system appears to be meant to keep a society safe, it actually destabilizes the lives of everyone inside its sphere. Roy's race clearly plays a role in his conviction and sentence, specified the time-period of citizens rather than as criminals. Since Marxism sets forth the struggle between social classes, it predicts that revolution may take place. Therefore, the ongoing class battle will result in unrest and revolution (#Blacklivesmatter) among oppressed people, laying the foundation for a new social and economic order in which capitalism and class system is eliminated.

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Writing Is Not “Anti-African”: How Naipaul “See(s) Much” About Africa

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Abstract—Many critics have harshly criticized V.S. Naipaul’s works, both fiction and trip memoirs on the postcolonial sociocultural milieu of Africa, for being racially objectionable. The indictment apparently has a rationale too in the sense that his writings—In a Free State (1971), A Band in the River (1979) and Masque of Africa for instance—outright seem to be intestinal butchery of the African life, past and present, without any sense of mercy. However, he has countered all the critics often to defend his writings. In fact, this stand of Naipaul on his writings prompts this paper for a scrutiny and apparently, it seems that, as it will be explored, his defense stands; he has seen “much” about Africa, its future. Paradoxically, in his internal butchery he is neither “anti-African” nor “anti-Negro.” His African discourse, though supposed to be they do not have any such offensive, butchery agenda in nature, rather seems to have a tendency of seeing “much” future possibilities in the postcolonial paradox with a spiral into its past. Although the African post-colonial paradox is colonial, he also understands it as a part of another form of ups and downs in the history of African civilization. This is more apparent in his writings and more perceptible in the context of the postcolonial viewpoint on displacement and dislocation. Postcolonial discourse usually emphasizes a crisis in its perspectives. However, for Naipaul, they are also, just like every other civilization, the nature of the history of the African civilization. It is in this understanding, being explored, he sees “much” possibilities, an enabling phenomenon, rather than a crisis in the African paradox.

Index Terms—anti-African, Naipaul, paradox, postcolonial, dislocation, displacement

I. INTRODUCTION

Writing isn’t just being anti–African or anti–Negro–whatever. How on earth? It’s Absurd… Instead of …asking 'Why did you write this book?’ you should be saying “How did you see much?” - V.S. Naipaul, quoted in Smith (2010, p. 89).

The Nobel laureate V.S. Naipaul has a long writing career that extends roughly from 1957 (The Mystic Masseur) to 2010 (The Masque of Africa: Glimpses of African Belief). He has been read and understood, as Bruce King (2003) writes, along with the other writers of the time like “Chinua Achebe, Wole Soyinka, Derek Walcott, Margaret Atwood, Michael Ondaatje and Salman Rushdie” (p. 3). His writings have a wide geographical coverage that extends from Caribbean to Europe, India and Africa and a constant fluctuation between them. Accordingly, the representation of these narrative spaces has drawn global readership and attention. However, the readership across the world seems to be unanimous with one opinion that Naipaul is not fare in his representation; he is out and out colonial, bestial, although his texts will reveal quite a different picture. A few of these commentaries are worth reviewing here.

II. LITERATURE REVIEW

Charles (2022) writes, for instance, that, “Naipaul indirectly absolves the imperialist and colonizer, in the Caribbean, Africa, or India” (p. 22). Dayan (1993) observes him as “racially specific and horrific in their implications for the so-called Third World” (p. 159). Beyond these, he has been scathingly indicted in terms of a series of bestial imageries. For instance, he is termed as “inquiline” (Pathak, 2012, p. 27), “gadfly” (Bakari, 2003, p. 243), “mongoose...” (Walcott, 2018) and “scavenger” (Said, 2000, p. 100). Huggan (1994) writes, “Certain writers, like Naipaul, are best not spoken about at all; and if they are spoken about, then it is in terms of stunned disbelief… or thinly guised contempt...” (p. 200). Hemenway (1982) thinks that the vision of Naipaul is “fiercely pessimistic, singularly unsentimental, somewhat lacking in charity and sympathy...” (p. 191). King (2003) charges he always ends in “inactivity, Indian fatalism” (p. 22). King (1983) asserts that he denies “the West Indian any hope for development or salvation” (pp. 231–32). Boyers (1981)

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humiliatingly finds his books “unpleasant” and not appealing. He concludes, “His books are demanding and, in the main, unpleasant, and there is no reason to feel that they should appeal to everyone” (p. 359). All the views in general are unanimous that Naipaul in his writings cut across the narrative spaces-Caribbean, Indian and African – is offensive and hence not worth reading. But paradoxically, this is what he is not; what actually he is gradually evolves from the fabric of his fictions.

III. RESEARCH PROBLEM

The views above are problematic in the sense that they seem to go against the spirit of the writings of Naipaul. They seem to be outright personal, subjective, negative and passionate which are in fact not the attribute of a complex writing that he produces. They are not oriented towards a critical understanding of the representation of the subject matter, they are thus paradoxical. This paper wants to confront this. His writings always demand a critical discourse oriented towards his represented content and not towards him. It is here this paper sees another scope for understanding Naipaul.

IV. AIMS AND OBJECTIVE

The aim of this paper is to study the represented content in the fictions of V.S. Naipaul that contextualize some of the African countries to probe that, as Naipaul puts, they are neither “anti-African” nor “anti-Negro,” or he is neither offensive nor bestial. The paper contends to say that Naipaul is pro-African, enabling and wants to demonstrate this in two ways which can also be understood as the concerns of Naipaul for Africa. First, it explores the representation of Africa which points to a premonition of a future catastrophe unless the Africans bring a radical behavioral change in themselves for themselves. Second, it shows inevitability of a gradual emergence of educated, humane, critical, and fearless Africans who can critique themselves. The first is a deep-rooted fear, a precaution, for the Africans in the narrative and the second a vision for them, an imperative for their future. The objective is to explore these concerns through the analysis of two of his fictions, In a Free State (1971) and A Band in the River (1979).

V. METHODOLOGY

The paper is qualitative. As a part of its methodology, it involves a selected set of guiding ideas for approach. This paper uses analytical and interpretive methods to study the fictions in reference, validating and qualifying the study also as empirical fact from the secondary resources. In this sense the study becomes a fictional act and an empirical fact. In certain cases when there are no page numbers in e-sources, it uses (n. p.) at the end of the quotes to indicate the article being referred to does not have page number marked.

The paper draws insights from the postcolonial perspective of dislocation and displacement to understand the destination of this investigation. However, unlike in the postcolonial studies the ideas of dislocation and displacement, as mentioned before, do not confirm here to east-west encounter as their cause and condition. Rather, the paper takes their meaning from the several ups and downs in the African civilization, its fragility and vulnerability to alien forces in which the colonial period appears only as an intervention. The same fragility and vulnerability are also the attributes of every other civilization and hence they are not unique to Africa. The Mesopotamian, the Greek, the Roman and the Indus Valley civilizations, for instance, also suffered the offence of vulnerability and fragility across time. But though it took hundreds of years since then, they have transformed themselves into other forms of civilizations today doing every sort of wonder. Naipaul sees a possibility in the African civilization too in this act of de-contextualizing the colonial binaries of east and west, and in this regard, his exploration and representation of Africa in the fictions is not “anti-African” but rather an insurance of possibility.

VI. DISCUSSION

The fictions under enquiry need contextualization first. Taking insight from the civilization attribute of the term’s dislocation and displacement as precaution, we can contextualize the postcolonial socio-cultural context of Africa as one of the latest paradoxes in the civilization of Africa where the fictions are set. Naipaul (2008) writes “a Free State is set in “Kenya, Uganda and Rwanda” (Preface to In a Free State, pp. ix–x), and A Band in the River (2002) is set in a newly independent Francophone central African state resembling Zaire (now known as the Democratic Republic of the Congo), governed by a dictatorial former army officer, the “Big Man” (118). The works are also the outcome of his travels into six countries—Uganda, Ghana, Nigeria, Ivory Coast, Gabon and South Africa in the 1960s. It was the time these countries were being liberated. Kenya got independence from the UK in 1963, Uganda in 1962, Nigeria in 1960, Ghana in 1957, South Africa in 1961, Gabon from France in 1960, and Rwanda in 1962 from Belgium. Therefore, it was a great transitional phase in the history of these nation–states, and accordingly, a dynamic period in their cultural, political and social histories. Generally, with freedom and native rule there are changes and developments, though not always desirable and rewarding. As far as Naipaul and his records are concerned, this was rarely the case in Africa. This is the represented content in both the fictions.

From this context of the represented content in 1970s, Naipaul has a scary vision of the future of not only many of the African countries but also of the Middle East as its periphery. It’s a fear for a possible tragedy in the Africans and a
wish to avoid it. There are parallels between the events in the stories, which are often appalling and awful human experiences and the late Twentieth century chaos in Africa spilled over to the Middle East. It is worthwhile first to reflect into this twentieth century chaos to locate their parallels in the stories. Farukh Dhondy makes this connection between Naipaul and “much” of the future developments obvious. He writes that Naipaul’s “view of African societies, whose potential for inter–tribal genocide he foresaw 20 or 30 years before the Hutus and Tutsis of Rwanda–Burundi killed each other in their thousands and before their child soldiers began to eat the entrails of their enemies, are labeled ‘racist’ by the nationalist race lobby” (Smith, 2010, p. 89). The “race lobby” is just another instance of the narrow understanding of Naipaul discussed in the literature review above. The BBC News dated April 4, 2009 thus reports in “Rwanda Genocide: 100 Days of Slaughter”:

In just 100 days in 1994, about 800,000 people were slaughtered in Rwanda by ethnic Hutu extremists. They were targeting members of the minority Tutsi community, as well as their political opponents, irrespective of their ethnic origin... About 85% of Rwandans are Hutus but the Tutsi minority has long dominated the country... On the night of 6 April 1994, a plane carrying then–president Juvenal Habyarimana, and his counterpart Cyprien Ntaryamira of Burundi – both Hutus – was shot down, killing everyone on board... With meticulous organization, lists of government opponents were handed out to militias who went and killed them, along with all of their families... The French, who were allies of the Hutu government, sent a special force to evacuate their citizens and later set up a supposedly safe zone but were accused of not doing enough to stop the slaughter in that area... Paul Kagame (Rwanda's current president) has accused France of backing those who carried out the massacres – a charge denied by Paris. (n. p.)

Recently, the Reuters in a report titled “Gunmen kill more than 100 in attack in Ethiopia’s Benishangul–Gumuz region” recorded another ethnic genocide in Ethiopia, which Naipaul could foresee long before. It states:

Gunmen killed more than 100 people in a dawn attack in... Ethiopia... the latest deadly assault in an area bedevilled by ethnic violence... Africa's second–most populous nation has been grappling with regular outbreaks of deadly violence since Prime Minister Abiy Ahmed was appointed in 2018... Elections due next year have further inflamed simmering tensions over land, power and resources. (n.p.)

Along the similar lines, the post–Arab Spring period that culminated in a violent reprisal against the spontaneous civil movements in Saharan and sub–Saharan Africa in 2011 can be seen as predicted by Naipaul long back in the seventies. “Beginning in December 2010,” writes Blakemore (2019) for the National Geographic, “anti–government protests rocked Tunisia. By early 2011 they had spread into what became known as the Arab Spring... Pro–democratic protests, which spread rapidly due to social media, ended up toppling the governments of Tunisia, Egypt, Libya, and Yemen” (n. p.). It was a series of pro–democratic agitations against dictatorship spread over the Islamic countries in North Africa and the Middle East.

The agitations were triggered by the self–immolation of a vegetable vendor, Mohamed Bouazizi in Tunisia, in protest against police threats to permanently stop down his vending cart for not having a licence to sell produce. Tunisia quickly responded with agitations against its dictator Zine al–Abidine Ben Ali. The protests took on a transnational imperative, spreading like wild fire to Egypt, Syria, Iraq, Libya, Jordan, Kuwait and Yemen and people confronted their autocratic rulers. Zine al–Abidine Ben Ali fled to Saudi Arabia, the parliament in Jordan and Kuwait was dissolved under mounting public pressure and the president of Yemen stepped down. In Egypt, Hosni Mubarak was made to step down and Syria was hit and continues to be torn by civil war. In Libya, President Muammar Gaddafi was executed and the country was torn apart between factional groups. Thus, the region witnessed a catastrophic political crisis with bloody violence and made hundreds and thousands of dislocated and displaced refugees. Naipaul already visioned “much” of these catastrophes in 1970s.

Naipaul is not an exception. Even among the African writers, the sense of menacing Africa has often become a central concern. Mention may be made of the play A Dance of the Forests by Wole Soyinka presented on the occasion of the Nigerian Independence celebration in 1960. The play incorporates the court of Mata Kharibu, a dictator who lived eight centuries before in a society marked by crime and injustice. The court dramatizes the brutal killing of a soldier against police threats to permanently shut down his vending cart for not having a licence to sell produce. Tunisia

The President in In a Free State and the Big Man in A Bend in the River can be considered as the Naipaulene models for the same dictators and the unrest therein, the scary vision of Africa, which spilled over the Middle East foreseen by him much before. Hence, there are parallels; the stories are also the social facts. The narratives, as maintained by Wright (1998), “revert to primitive tribalism, oath–taking, and blood–letting, and that they waste their independence... in the postcolonial phase, and go back to the bush” (p. 8). Jhanji (2015) sees the narrative as “a statement on the perils of being ‘free’—a freedom that involves the loss of selfhood” (p. 133). Boxill (2013) sees the representation of freedom in the narrative as a “prison”, stating, “Prison is an important presence... more central in In a Free State...[But] No actual prison appears in [it]... because Naipaul manages to suggest that the... freedom itself functions as the perfect prison from which escape is not possible” (p. 81). This paradoxical state of affairs, of being entrapped in freedom, of moving forward in time yet regressing, estimate the apparent state of existence for some of the dislocated and displaced characters in the novels in particular and the state of African freedom in general.
The first fiction has three stories, the first two ('One Out of Many' and 'Tell Me Who to Kill') are “journalistic” pieces and the last (In a Free State) a novella, which is the part selected here for study. The novella narrates, “In this country… there was a president and… a king. They belonged to different tribes. The enmity of the tribes was old, and with independence, their anxieties about one another became acute. The king and the president intrigued the local representatives of white government” (p. 3). The Southern Collectorate is the region of the king and the northern, the president's. In light of its corporate interests, the West is hedging its support for the president. As noted by Adam (1987), “…native people are shown in a defeat which seems irrevocable, as the king's people of the bush are conquered by the president's troops with Western weapons and representing Western economic interests” (p. 68). A reign of terror is let loose to hunt down the king and many innocent people become scapegoats. The president had installed several check posts with barriers made of wood on the road that connected with the south, ostensibly to check possible arms smuggling into the region but actually intended to capture its king and his tribesmen. The people of the south are increasingly exploited, interned, and brutalized in the process. The damage done by the president has, as read by Hoon (?) in “Novel Idea: In a Free State by V. S. Naipaul,” transformed Africa into “a violent land, an unkind land” and “the president of the African country and his tribesmen slowly move down a highway, burning villages belonging to the opposing tribe” (n.p.). The novella notes the chopper keeps on hovering “YAK–YAK–YAK–YAK” (p. 14) looking for the king who is at large.

The same sense of fear is extended also to the next fiction. A Bend in the River follows, writes King (2003), “Many details from 'A New king for the Congo' by Naipaul which is set in a newly independent Francophone central African state resembling Zaire (now known as the Democratic Republic of the Congo), governed by a dictatorial former army officer, the Big Man” (p. 118). Further, Singh (2006) writes, “A Bend in the River is set in an unnamed African country undergoing political ferment. However, the landscape with the river, the rapids, the steam service and close modeling of the Big Man's character on Mobutu as well as the events described make it obvious that the unnamed country is no other than Congo or the modern Zaire” (p. 48). Structurally, the novel begins with a rebellion—"The Second Rebellion" as the first part of the book— and ends with “Battle”, the last part, both precluding the rise of a brutal dictatorship from the context of freedom- a paradox. Naipaul visited east Africa and Zaire in 1965–66 and revisited east Africa in 1971 and Zaire in 1975. Zaire gained independence from Belgium (middle Congo was a French colony) on 30June, 1960. The country got a Prime Minister and a president in democratic elections but was soon wracked by instability. The tribal leaders had more power than the government. In 1960, there was an army mutiny against their European officers. The mutiny spread quickly, like the post-Arab spring, and tore the country apart and continued until 1965. The history of Africa during the period of decolonization is also problematized as the result of continued international interference of foreign powers which filled the power vacuum left by the colonial rule. According to a US report “The Congo, Decolonization, and the Cold War, 1960–1965,” “The decolonization of Sub-Saharan Africa from the late 1950s to the mid–1970s resulted in several proxy Cold War confrontations between the United States and the Soviet Union over the dozens of newly independent, non-aligned nations. The first such confrontation occurred in the former Belgian Congo, which gained its independence on June 30, 1960” (n. p.). On November 1965, the military general Mobutu Sese Seko Kuku Ngbendu Wa Za Banga declared himself as the president. As part of a cultural campaign founded on a return to an “authentic” past, Mobuto renamed the country as the Republic of Zaire and began other mass colonial infrastructural demolition.

In a conference, as quoted by King (2003), Naipaul briefs what Mobuto does: “You'll find in the Congo all the nice ideas of Fanon ridiculously caricatured by the present ruler… Mobutu says… that he doesn't have a borrowed soul any longer; his particular black thing is 'authenticity'. Authenticity… is rejection of the strange, the difficult, the taxing; it is despair” (p. 118). Mobuto becomes the figure of the Big Man in the narrative, writes King (2003), who “brought a kind of peace—always threatened by violently destructive insurrections—and claims to offer an African Socialism combining the black nationalism for cultural authenticity… Colonial mimicry has moved on to mimicry of Maoist China” (p. 118). In this regard, as portrayed in A Bend in the River, the property of foreign nationals was seized and nationalized by force. However, the dictatorship of the Big Man was soon confronted by counter radical movements into which the narrative plunges towards the end. The radical movements spread like wildfire across the continent and, as observed in the report “Conflicts in the Democratic Republic of Congo: Causes, Impact and Implications for the Great Lakes Region” by the United Nations Economic Commission for Africa (2015-09), “…in 1996 alone, 14 out of the 53 countries in the continent were afflicted by armed conflicts. The list of conflict–affected countries included the Democratic Republic of Congo… that eventually brought to an end the 32–year regime of Mobutu in May 1997” (n. p.). The narrative roughly covers the period from 1965 to 1975, anticipating what might come to in 1997 many years prior. Hamner (1985) rightly sees a “Tiresian vision” (p. 74) in Naipaul here in how the represented existential paradox in A Bend in the River reflects the real circumstances in Africa. He adds, “the reality upon which [Naipaul's] sensitive intelligence plays is our reality… For his aimless, disillusioned characters, there are numbers of real men; for his themes of hypocrisy and misguided schemes, there are sufficient examples in actual events” (p. 74). This sense of “reality” and “actual events” in the story reflect more concern of Naipaul about the future course that Africa was taking. This vision speaks of a potential future human disaster, a Naipaulian precaution, unless there is a self-introspection in Africans for their behavioral change from resorting to dictatorship and violence for freedom and peace.
This lands us in our second approach above: a gradual emergence of humane, critical and fearless Africans, a hope, from the fictions under enquiry that indicates the behavioral change. This change is inevitable for Naipaul. Thus, he writes in *A Bend in the River* “The world is what it is; men who are nothing, who allow themselves to become nothing, have no place in it” (p. 3). Allowing oneself to become “nothing”, indirectly something is an act of gradual evolution of knowledge in Naipaul. He does not rely on the world for the change; it is “what it is” and only this understanding can trigger changes. He relies on a few sensitive and talented individuals as models of the change. Timothy (1985) succinctly writes “It expresses the strong conviction in Naipaul that the individual can, by his own efforts, escape the limitations of his origins. But this escape is only for those who are sensitive, talented and aware: not for the group as a whole” (p. 259). This change begins with knowing oneself which again begins with locating himself in the history of civilization behind. This is one of the reasons why Naipaul’s writings frequently become part of history and *A Bend in the River* is no exception. Here, he uses two sensitive and talented individuals, Salim for a dive into the history of Africa and Ferdinand as an agency of hope for Africa. There is a beautiful relation between them: Salim, who has a vast insight into the African history, its ups and down, mentors and nurtures Ferdinand and the later, an educated African, the new generation, saves Salim from a possible execution at the end. This humane connection is what Africa wanting.

Naipaul first ditches the narrative into the history of the civilization of Africa from the eye of Salim to arrive at the cause behind the present postcolonial crisis that Africa is grappling with. With this, he sets connection between the ups and downs in the history and the present. King (2003) convincingly sees the fiction in terms of a flux. In it, he writes, “Nothing feels settled, nothing complete, final, reflected upon… everything is in movement” (p. 120). Chauvery (2013) sees the fiction as the tension between the traditional and a dangerously modern African state of existence. He writes, “A *Bend in the River* (1979) vividly describes the disorder that follows in the wake of imperialism and the problems of embryonic but underdeveloped Third World people caught between old tribal ways and the new technology of dangerous arms…” (p. 44). As such, Salim is the connection between these fluxes, old tribal ways and the new.

The narrative is about an already literally displaced Africa in which, as can be understood, there are lots of concerns about the unfolding contestatory tribal conflicts, the frames of paradox in the Africa through which Naipaul wants to see a possibility, a hope for its future. King (2003) has correctly marked this concern in his review of *A Bend in the River*, saying, “If the scene in Naipaul’s new novel is the turmoil of modern Africa, its concerns are the discrepancy between the appearances and the reality…” (p. vi). It is very interesting first to see how colonization and slavery, as Naipaul historicizes the context, deracinated and displaced the African from which the Big Man-like dictator sprang up. The colonized Africa has already lost its homogeneity of social origin until the regime of the Big Man. The first part of the narrative, “The Second Rebellion,” gives a vivid description of the deracinated/racially dislocated people in the eastern Africa and accordingly its disjointed demography. It has suffered from a series of reigns in the past that changed its history. Islam spread over Africa in the seventh century. According to Iliffe (1995), “The expansion of Arab power and the Islamic religion… in AD 632 was the central process in world history for the next 400 years. During that time Islam became the predominant faith throughout North Africa and established footholds in both West and East Africa” (p. 42). Alexander (1980) in *African History and the Struggle to Decolonize Africa* further elaborates on the Islamic expansion in Africa. He writes, “In AD 632 the Muslim (Arabs) had conquered Syria and Persia… Within 50 years they had spread right across North Africa to Morocco” (p. 17) and spread to West and East Africa through trade, “attracted to the East Africa coast by valuable goods such as gold, ivory and tortoise shell” (p. 17). Besides the trade interest, another drive for the colonization is slave trade. Thus, Alexander notes: “Another important item was human beings who could be made to work. In other words, the trade in SLAVES became one of the major links between Arabia and East Africa. Although the nature and scale of this Arab slave trade changed in the course of time, it continued well into our own century” (p. 17). Naipaul has also identified this historical slavery as instrumental in gradual racial displacement of African. This form of slavery is distinct but then yields to the next phase of European slave trading, across the Atlantic.

Slavery in this part of Africa is paradoxical, unlike the other parts where slaves are usually condemned to plantations. Here, as Salim gradually reveals, the native tribes are taken to Arabian homes as domestic servants. They come to the coast from the interior, on foot for many days pulled by the prospect of getting subsumed in a rich Arab family. Many of them became as powerful as the Arabians with their influence and thus cast off their ancestry. Displacement from African origin to Arabic is a means to status and power for the servants. Thus, Salim observes, “To an African, a child of the forest, who had marched down hundreds of miles from the interior and was far from his village and tribe, the protection of a foreign family was preferable to being alone among strange and unfriendly Africans” (p. 14). Therefore, the people who are considered as slaves always want to remain as they are for generations. They even want it known to others Africans, or Arabs or Indians that they are really slaves. Many of them show full devotion to the family they are attached to and become like its members. They take care of the young children of their masters as their own siblings. Salim was also raised by Mustafa, the family servant who earned his trusted place in the family. It was Mustafa who was always protecting him as his own elder brother against the assaults of the other children in the locality.

This representation is a problem for many, such as in Eid (2000) who does not agree with Naipaul’s representation of Africa and of the Africans. Within the aesthetic realm of the narrative, Eid argues, Naipaul has perverted a politics of defending the empire, its slavery. In other words, Eid sees him as representing African society as broken, unstable and uncertain, and the Africans unable to reshape it as they lack in creative and political potential, and thus indirectly hinting at the need of an external power to govern them. Eid notes the text is “motivating them to seek an alternative by
proceeding on the basis of their own concrete reality, cultural heritage and history without losing the straightforward movement,” but ultimately, “Naipaul offers no solutions” (p. 12). However, what is apparent in the representation of the Africans as the displaced race in Naipaul is that even the slavery ensures them freedom from their brutality and earns them repute. As noted by Krishnan (2020), Naipaul has shown the ethical side of Islam in very clear terms, stating:

No religion is more worldly than Islam. In spite of its political incapacity, no religion keeps men's eyes more fixed on the way the world is run…I could see how Islamic fervour could become creative, revolutionary, and take men on to a humanism beyond religious doctrine: a true renaissance, open to the new and enriched by it, as the Muslims in their early days of glory had been. (p. 231)

This idea of Naipaul on Islam distinguishes his literary aspiration and political correctness. He has considered thinking individuals like Salim and Metty, Muslim narrators and characters who deviate from the mass, as the authority of the story in the fiction, which already indicates his sense of inclusivity which merits critical appreciation.

The impact of slavery not only deracinated the Africans tribes and communities but also their masters. Sometimes the “slaves” not only become the members of the family of their masters but also take over the responsibility of the family status and name. Many of them are no longer African. The historians Fage and Tordoff (2002) in reference to the Arabian occupation of Egypt in 639 in A History of Africa (2005) write that “…within a century, there were something like a million Arabs in Egypt. An ever–increasing number of Egyptians became associated with the Arabs as wives, servants and retainers of various kinds, and these tended to adopt their master's religion” (p. 151). This gradually continued with other African countries too. Alexander (1980) mentions that “Arab settlers intermarried with local Africans. They kept their Muslim faith but developed their own languages, such as Swahili which is still spoken in East Africa today” (p. 17). Trade ensures a transboundary and multicultural context even before the colonial encounter, which perpetuates this situation. Mustafa in A Bend in the River, for instance, has Gujarati blood, as does Metty. With the Arabians, Alexander further observes, the deracination even takes its full extent, wherein the “slaves had swamped the masters; the Arabian race of the master had virtually disappeared” (p. 16). To this Salim adds:

Muslim way they [the Arabian] needed wives and more wives. But they were cut off from their roots in Arabia and could only find their wives among the African women who had once been their slaves. Soon, thereafter, the Arabs, or the people who called themselves Arabs, had become indistinguishable from Africans... The authority of the Arabs... was only a matter of custom. It could be blown away at any time. (pp. 16–17)

In other words, the Africans represented in the text are already of mixed–heritage and had already undergone multiple historical dislocations and displacements. This gets further problematized with the arrival of the Europeans which can be seen in the observation of the eastern coast by Salim. Though the eastern coast exhibits modern attributes, it lacks a sense of capacity for selfhood and self-determination. Salim says, “The world is what it is” (p. 17) and people do just “what they had to do” (p. 18). They do not keep track of their history and what they know about themselves is just what the Europeans tell them. This triggers a sense of insecurity in people like Salim thinking about their future prospects and fires their desire for detachment. This leads to further displacements. Indar, Salim’s friend, is originally from Punjab and has made up his mind to go to England “to a famous university to do a three–year course” (p. 20). Salim, on the other hand, decides to “go into the business” (p. 21). And this decision later on couples with the offer from Nazruddin, another displaced man from Uganda, who wants Salim to take over his shop at the bend in the river, on the eastern coast. Salim readily accepts the offer and this catapults him to the town that has started taking a modern shape with the coming of the Europeans.

The Arabs had extended up to the bend in the river at this juncture but in the late nineteenth century they were confronted, defeated and displaced by the approaching Europeans from the other direction. With the European intrusion, the continent underwent geographical displacement first. “During the last twenty years of the nineteenth century,” writes John Iliffe (1995), “European Powers swiftly and painlessly partitioned the map of Africa among Themselves” (p. 192). This invasion leads to political, economic, social and cultural displacements and dislocations in Africa. Since then, the town in the bend in the river had started taking a European shape. Salim describes the deposing of the Arabs from Africa almost in terms of a cosmic catastrophe that totally annihilated them. He reveals that since the European takeover, their “power was like the light of a star that travels on after the star itself has become dead” (p. 23). The defeat of the Arabs is followed by other transformations as perfectly visible in the eastern cost. The description of the eastern coast by Salim is worth quoting here:

Africa was my home, had been the home of my family for centuries. But we came from the east coast, and that made the difference. The cost was not truly Africa. It was an Arab–Indian–Persian–Portuguese place...True Africa was at our back. Many miles of scrub or desert separated us from the up-country people...But we could no longer say that we were Arabians or Indians or Persians; when we compared ourselves with these people, we felt like people of Africa. (p. 12)

What Salim hints at is a consciousness of both a modern world and a demographic deracination, a hybrid world of existence in Africa that has suffered multiples of historical dislocations and displacements. In this sense, he has a broader and larger view of Africa, its past and present, which is also a narrative strategy to understand the present crisis for a way out of it. Naipaul next makes this sensitive individual the mentor of an African youth, Ferdinand, which is an oblique attempt to make Ferdinand a future intellect.
Salim runs a shop at the band in the river and it is here he comes into contact with Zabeth, a woman from inner Africa, who brings Ferdinand, her son, to the town to educate him in the lycee, a European educational institution restructured by the Big Man, and leaves him under the guardianship of Salim. Ferdinand is thus left to the mentorship of Salim, although at time he does not show much of his affiliation to him under the fast-changing context of the town which influences generation towards not being loyal to the nativity. However, towards the end, the town is hit by revolutionaries against the Big Man and everything becomes vulnerable, the town has become catastrophic with killing and blood everywhere. People are forced to flee for their life and Salim too has no option. It is here Ferdinand, who has become a commissioner officer under the Big Man, gives a safe passage to Salim. He not only helps Salim but also consciously runs the risk of being a fearlessly critical of Africa under Big Man. His critique of the context in the town, while seeing off Salim, is a clear confirmation that a new critic of the dictator regime has born from within:

You mustn't think it's bad just for you. It's bad for everybody. That's the terrible thing. It's bad for Prosper, bad for the man they gave your shop to, bad for everybody. Nobody's going anywhere. We're all going to hell, and every man knows this in his bones. We're being killed. Nothing has any meaning. That is why everyone is so frantic. Everyone wants to make his money and run away. But where? That is what is driving people mad… I felt I have been used. I felt I had given myself an education for nothing. I felt I had been fooled… The bush runs itself. There is no place to go to… nowhere is safe now. (pp. 319–320)

Being an employee under the Big Man, what Ferdinand says is not acceptable. But, as Naipaul sees, this is inevitable in Africa for its future and hence Ferdinand becomes the representative of this line of thought. A new humane elite is born in Ferdinand. “There is Zabeth, an African matriarch and trader, and her son Ferdinand,” as Weeks (1981) notes, “whom Salim befriends at her request—he becomes the ‘educated African’, one of the new elite, and saves Salim from prison” (p. 64). In this sense, for Weeks, it is a very “sensitive novel” (p. 64). While on the one hand the fictions anticipate more catastrophes, though apparently impossible, they also expect more educated, enlightened and critical Ferdinands in the future, and hence Naipaul is anticipatory in tone and not simply exploring “African nihilism” (Nixon, 1992, p. 100), so that the cause of the catastrophes can be questioned and confronted. Wise (1996) beautifully mentions the politics behind the representation of brutal African in his fictions as a “Utopian hope” which this paper endorses and considers as the concluding remark:

Naipaul suggests then that the only possible solution to the modern crisis of African history is the wholesale liquidation of its traditional cultures, so that a new or “absolutely modern” African culture may come into being. If Naipaul’s “solution” is extreme, it nevertheless negatively embodies his Utopian hope for the ultimate liberation of Africa from political terror, civil-war, debilitating cynicism, and underdevelopment. (p. 68)

VII. FINDING

It is, thus, clear through the analysis that Naipaul is neither “anti-African” nor “anti-Negro.” He sees much of the humane potentiality in Africans to become an agent of change in which Ferdinand is a live example. But this change should be vetted through a reflection into vast historical folded centres of darkness, their dislocations and displacements which is explored in the fiction through the character of Salim. Salim shows vulnerability and fragility are the nature of the history of African civilization. It is through the combination of these two lines of thought in Salim and Ferdinand, the papers finds that the mission of Naipaul in the exploration and the representation of the crisis of Africa is not nihilism but an opportunity, an enabling phenomenon.

VIII. CONCLUSION

Naipaul’s statement that “Writing isn’t just being anti–African or anti–Negro” is thus established through the analysis of the works in reference. His suggestion to rather ask “How did you see much?” instead of asking “Why did you write this book?” prompted this paper and the answer to the first question evolves through this reading. Naipaul sees so much of the African chaos, its past and present and out of that, future developments in many of the African countries and the Middle East until today, where dictators mess up with the sense of freedom, through a reflection, spiral, into the history of African civilization in terms of his characters. This reflection is inevitable for the Africans as it can only give them their identity. However, this dimension of his discourse, the representation of the postcolonial chaos in its brutality only as an arch to spiral back, does not come under the consideration of the conventional readership as explored in the literature review above, which is inevitable to understand the politics of his fictions. This only will demonstrate that he is really not “anti-Negro” and differentiate the creative aspiration of a writer and its political correctness that the conventional criticism is reluctant to see.

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Abstract—This article provides an ethnolinguistic perspective of the names of various types of holidays, celebrations (heortonyms), traditions, and rituals of the Sundanese people. A descriptive qualitative method was employed to collect heortonymic data from written and unwritten sources, observations, electronic sources, in-depth interviews, and literature studies. These data were then analyzed using an ethnolinguistic approach, combining cultural and language aspects through ethnographic methods. In the cultural elements closely related to anthropology, the researchers obtained data on the system and social interaction that prevail in society. Meanwhile, in the language aspects, the data on the form and function of language in society were also gathered. The data were presented by describing the results of the data analysis. The results of this study indicated that Sundanese heortonyms could be divided into religious heortonyms (such as Eid-Al-Adha, Eid-Al-Fitr, and Isra Mi'raj), activities related to Ramadan fasting, activities related to sacred historical events (like Muludan, Rajaban), activities related to work (like the Seren Tahun tradition), activities related to various stages of human life, and practices aimed at avoiding calamities. From the discussion, it was found that these heortonyms, along with the multicultural environment, give rise to loanwords from other languages, especially Arabic. These heortonyms are directly related to history and the construction of worldviews and beliefs and are seen as distinctive language and cultural markers reflecting Sundanese values and identity.

Index Terms—heortonyms, ethnolinguistics, language, Sundanese culture, identity

I. INTRODUCTION

The act of naming celebrations or holidays is a linguistic task. These names encapsulate and reflect the culture, encompassing language, religion, way of life, traditions, and most significantly, identity. Heortonyms, which are the proper names for holidays, festivals, feasts, memorable dates, or celebrations, as defined by Gałkowski (2020) and Podolskaya (1988), are used to refer to celebrations and traditions. Heortonyms can be categorized into religious and secular, as explained by Kerret and Tal (2018) that these terms correspond to Western concepts of “religion” and “secular”. The names of religious celebrations and traditions are cultural and historical phenomena present in various ethnicities, forming a branch of linguistic research that explores the interplay between ethnocultural and ethnopsychological elements in language’s functioning and evolution, as explored by Melnyk et al. (2021). Heortonyms convey the heritage, culture, and traditions of specific regions, evoking excitement and enthusiasm, according to Nair and Babu (2022). These celebrations or commemorations occur repeatedly over an extended period, combining religious rituals, traditions, and prevailing customs of the celebrating community. Preserving cultural heritage and identity while fostering community and belonging is crucial today. Holidays play an essential role as they signify
specific times when social events take place, representing one of the earliest forms of human culture, as emphasized by Bakhtin (1990) and Starikova (2016).

Shemyakin (2015) argues that the role of integrating and consistent celebrations, known as heortonyms, is crucial in preserving culture and transmitting it across generations. These celebrations serve as an essential element in the mechanism of tradition, containing socially significant information regarding value systems and behavioral norms. Consequently, celebrations have always played a primary role in socialization, as participating in a particular culture's festivals, ceremonies, and rituals signifies recognition and adherence to its norms and values. Their collective nature sets heortonyms apart, often involving the entire community, which strengthens social bonds and reinforces cultural identity. Through these celebrations, individuals learn about their cultural heritage and pass it on to future generations. Heortonyms offer a sense of continuity and stability in an ever-changing world, reminding us of our origins and core principles. Therefore, they are an integral part of every culture, deserving of celebration and appreciation as cultural phenomena that reflect universal aspects of civilizations while showcasing the unique characteristics of specific sociocultural communities (Shemyakin, 2015).

The continued significance of heortonyms can be observed in both private and public spheres, encompassing secular as well as religious aspects of life. Numerous festivals have deep historical roots and incorporate cultural and religious elements into their traditional activities. The most crucial aspect of heortonyms is their ability to foster a sense of identity and belonging within a community. They serve as a means of preserving traditions and customs passed down through generations, as a constant reminder of people’s cultural heritage. In essence, hortonyms are vital in shaping our society and enriching our lives. Some prominent religious heortonyms celebrated globally include Christmas, Diwali, and Holi for Hindus in India, Vesak for Buddhists, Rosh Hashanah and Yom Kippur for Jews, and Easter. In contrast, Muslims have three significant days in their Islamic celebrations: Eid al-Fitr, Eid al-Adha, and Maulid Nabi (the Prophet Muhammad's birthday) (Glavatskaya & Zabolotnykh, 2021; Rao et al., 2005; Silva et al., 2023; Sulaeman, 2019). Eid al-Fitr, for example, is a Muslim holiday that marks the end of Ramadan (Idris et al., 2022).

Indonesia is a country with a multitude of ethnic, linguistic, and religious groups, each having their own distinctive local celebration traditions. This gives rise to a wide range of heortonyms found throughout the country. Among Indonesia’s well-known religious festivals is Nyepi, a Hindu New Year celebration that involves a day of silence and introspection (Merta & Wijaya, 2022). Another significant festival is Vesak Day, observed by Buddhists to honor the birth, enlightenment, and passing of Buddha (Silva et al., 2023). In South Sulawesi, the Toraja funeral ceremony called Rambu Solo occurs (Anggraeni & Putri, 2021). These heortonyms offer valuable insights into the value and beliefs that form the foundation of Sundanese culture. Similarly, heortonyms like Havé Setra and Ngarot hold profound meanings in the Sundanese philosophy of life. Ngadu Batur, on the other hand, represents the traditional Sundanese approach to conflict resolution, emphasizing mediation and reflecting the harmonious nature of the Sundanese people. These heortonyms not only showcase Indonesia’s cultural and religious diversity but also serve as a means of preserving and passing down traditions from one generation to the next. Nair and Babu (2022) note that many traditional festivals are celebrated enthusiastically and joyfully. By studying these heortonyms and recognizing its cultural importance, we can gain a greater appreciation for the richness and diversity of Indonesian cultures. This becomes particularly crucial in a world where globalization and modernization pose threats to the preservation of traditional cultures and their unique identities.

Researching traditions and celebrations in a specific region is an intriguing subject encompassing culture, history, and language. These customs and festivities hold significant value within local and regional cultures. Examining the importance of heortonyms and other cultural practices becomes crucial to develop a deeper understanding and appreciation of the diverse range of human cultures and beliefs. By studying these traditions, we can comprehend how communities have evolved and adapted in response to changing circumstances and environments. This knowledge not only aids in appreciating the intricate web of human culture and language in West Java but also serves as a starting point for further exploration and research into the varied cultures of Indonesia. The study of heortonyms also plays a role in preserving Sundanese culture and traditions, which face the risk of being eroded due to modernization and globalization. By understanding and valuing the distinct cultural identities of different ethnic groups, we can foster diversity and inclusivity, and ultimately build a more harmonious and tolerant society. Moreover, it allows for the development of a nuanced and emphatic understanding of the world around us. An example of multiculturalism is a festival that combines religious rituals and traditions with the prevailing customs of an ethnic group. Multiculturalism refers to a society or global context where numerous distinct ethnic and cultural groups are viewed as politically, socially, and culturally equal (Clayton, 2019). Ethnicity, in turn, emerges as a result of actions taken by ethnic groups as they continually shape and reshape their self-definition and culture.

The construction of ethnic identity and culture is influenced by structure and agency, a dynamic interaction between ethnic groups and the larger society (Nagel, 1994). Among the ethnicities known for their vibrant celebrations, rituals, and traditions are the Sundanese people, who reside in the West Java region. Sundanese culture boasts numerous distinctive heortonyms that reflect their unique cultural heritage. Interestingly, the term heortonyms is not widely used in most studies. Multiculturalism refers to a society that acknowledges and values the diversity present in different ethnic and cultural groups. The formation of ethnicity is shaped by the actions undertaken by ethnic groups as they continually define and redefine their culture. In the context of West Java, the Sundanese ethnic group showcases
heortonyms that reflect their cultural identity and traditional practices. However, most research on these traditions tends to focus solely on practical aspects, neglecting the intricate complexities of the involved cultures and languages. This study, on the other hand, examines religious heortonyms, which encompass various religious celebrations such as *Idul Adha* and *Eid al-Fitr*, heortonyms related to Ramadan fasting, heortonyms associated with sacred historical events like *Rajaban* (27 *Rajab*) or *Isra Mi’raj*, *Muludan*, *Rowahan*, as well as traditions on different stages of human life, including *Ekah* (Akekahan), *Khitanan* or *Tahlil*, death traditions (*Tahlil*), agricultural activities (rice ceremony for *Dewi Padi*, *Ngalaksa*, *Seren Taaun* Tradition, *Ngarot* Tradition, *Hajat Lembur* Tradition), and heortonyms related to averting calamities (Sea Feast Tradition).

Therefore, the objective of this study is to investigate the importance and symbolism associated with religious heortonyms and their role in shaping the identity and cultural legacy of the communities that celebrate them. By conducting interviews and surveys involving participants from diverse cultural backgrounds, we discovered that heortonyms play a vital role in preserving and passing down cultural values, beliefs, and customs from one generation to the next. These traditions also connect individuals and their historical roots and ancestors, fostering a sense of belonging and community. Furthermore, the study revealed that heortonyms are not static; they exhibit dynamic nature, adapting and evolving in response to changing social and cultural contexts.

II. LITERATURE REVIEW

A. Heortonyms

The study of names, referred to as ‘onomastics,’ has a long history and continues to evolve. Dating back to Ancient Greece, the study of names has been instrumental in understanding language and how humans communicate and organize their world (Hough, 2016). Within the field of onomastics, one specific branch is heortonyms, a term coined by Podolskaya (1988). Heortonyms encompass the names of feast days, holidays, traditional celebrations, and festivals, among others. Examples of heortonyms in Russia, for instance, include Victory Day on May 9th, International Women’s Day on March 8th, Geologist Day on June 6th, New Year on January 1st, Christmas Day on December 25th, *Eid al-Fitr* or Islamic spring holiday, corresponding to its Arab origin, *Eid al-Fitr* or the feast of breaking the fast which marks the end of Ramadan, and Moscow 1980, also known as a festival on The 1980 Summer Olympics, officially known as The Games of the XXII Olympiad (Gałkowski, 2020; Podolskaya, 1988).

Starikova’s (2016) research on Rusin ethnic heortonyms in Russia includes traditions and rituals associated with the various stages of human life (birth, marriage, death), human activities, and significant historical events. These celebrations’ names are culturally significant markers that reflect the values of the ethnic group and are closely intertwined with the cultural development and formation of their worldviews and beliefs. The terminology used in these holidays demonstrates multiculturalism, as it includes loanwords from Hungarian and German (Starikova, 2016).

Ivanova’s research explores the religious holiday called The Nativity of the Blessed Virgin and its significance in different cultural contexts. In Eastern Slavic countries like Russia, this religious holiday is linked to agricultural traditions. It is celebrated as the Harvest Festival, where farmers express gratitude for a bountiful harvest and believe that Mother Mary blesses and protects agriculture and families, particularly mothers. In Poland, the celebration of The Nativity of the Blessed Virgin is associated with the planting season. The analysis of the names of Russian and Polish celebrations of this religious holiday reveals both the universal and specific aspects of their semantic structures. This difference arises from Poland being part of the West Slavic region and having a distinct culture and language compared to Russia (East Slavic). Structurally, the names of these celebrations consist of combinations of nouns and adjectives and a combination of nominative and genitive case nouns (Ivanova, 2018).

B. Sundanese Culture

Ekadjati (2014) states that Sundanese culture thrives and evolves within the Sundanese community, primarily residing in the Land of Sunda. In Indonesian society, Sundanese culture is considered a regional rather than a national one. Sundanese culture possesses distinct characteristics that set it apart from other regional cultures in Indonesia (Ekadjati, 2014, p. 8). The Sundanese ethnic group has numerous festive celebrations of holidays, rituals, and traditions (known as heortonyms) that are still practiced today. These heortonyms bear Sundanese names such as *Ngalaksa*, *Rowatan Tradition*, *Nyukur*, *Akekahan*, and *Ngirabkeum*, to name a few.

C. The Concept of Identity From an Ethnolinguistic Perspective

Riley (2008) suggests that when individuals communicate using a specific language, their speech partner will interpret the message based on the vocabulary, grammar, and sentence structures used. This interpretation aims to determine the speaker’s identity within the social context, including their origin, nationality, culture, religion, and ethnicity, as language reflects the cultural identity ingrained in it (Riley, 2008, p. 69). Language, functioning as a tool for social interaction, plays a crucial role in shaping cultural identity. It represents and frames individuals’ linguistic and cultural backgrounds, enabling them to exchange personal experiences, social realities, cultural norms, and historical traditions within a specific group, thus fostering a vibrant sociocultural environment within a country (Parajuli, 2021). Ethnolinguistic identity can differ depending on the specific ethnolinguistic groups that the individual’s own group is compared to, either in terms of contrasting or complementing characteristics.
Language serves a dual purpose in shaping the rich cultural identities of specific groups, acting as a means to express a wide array of opinions, ideas, emotions, and knowledge. Each language, tied to distinct geographical regions, represents the voices of its speakers and embodies their cultural identities. Language and culture interact through human communication, continually generating cultural values, traditions, and identities (Maine et al., 2019). Language, being an integral part of life from an early stage, allows individuals to develop specific lifestyles and cultures within their families and communities, thereby unveiling social and cultural realities that might otherwise remain concealed. This highlights the interconnectedness of language and culture, where language serves as both a component and a tool of culture (Boltayeva, 2020).

Engaging in communication using a particular language involves the need to grasp and comprehend the profound social and cultural norms, values, and ways of life, as well as the various signs, symbols, and conventions associated with a specific culture. This understanding enables individuals to express and exhibit their unique cultural identities. Likewise, culture, as a social construct, plays a significant role in the development and evolution of language, primarily shaping how individuals convey their personal narratives within their family and community. People from different linguistic and cultural backgrounds find joy in promoting solidarity, as language serves as the foundation for representing and transmitting culture across generations (Parajuli, 2021).

III. METHOD

This research employs a qualitative methodology with an ethnographic approach to explore the intercultural and intracultural diversity within society. Intercultural diversity pertains to differences between two distinct cultures, while intracultural diversity refers to variations between subcultures within a particular culture (Fetterman, 2010). The ethnographic approach encompasses two key research dimensions: culture and language. By closely examining cultural aspects influenced by anthropology, the study gathered data on the prevailing social systems and interactions within the community. Simultaneously, the study also focuses on language aspects to ascertain the form and function of language within the cultural context of the community. Adopting a holistic perspective inherent to the ethnographic approach, the research delves into all available information, observations, interviews, theories, and emerging patterns during fieldwork to uncover the essential cultural elements that collectively paint a comprehensive picture of the field.

The data collection for this study involves multiple sources, including documents, newspapers, observations, online resources from the Internet, the Department of Transportation's website, and oral accounts. Written documents such as manuscripts, books, and Mangle magazine obtained from the Sundanese Culture Research Center at Universitas Padjadjaran, as well as letters, photographs, and pictures received from Pikiran Rakyat and Kompas newspapers, are also utilized. The research data primarily consist of heortonyms associated with religious, international, national, and local holidays, rituals, and traditions celebrated annually in West Java. These data were categorized into four groups: religious celebrations (such as Eid al-Fitr), celebrations marking different stages of human life from birth to death, nature-related festivities, and agricultural rituals (such as the celebration of Hajat Lembur). The initial stage involves visiting various locations in West Java that could provide information on celebration days, rituals, and cultural traditions that contribute to sociocultural integration. Information from oral sources was gathered through interviews with knowledgeable informants. The subsequent stage focuses on verifying the written and oral sources and examining pictures and interview results. In the interpretation stage, the facts were analyzed to develop a narrative addressing the research questions. To gain a comprehensive understanding of holidays, rituals, traditions, language, and culture, this study incorporated the perspectives of ethnolinguistics, cultural concepts, and history. Additionally, the onomastic concept, particularly the heortonymic concept, was employed in data analysis.

Each research site, namely Cirebon Regency, Cirebon City, Majalengka, Ciamis, Indramayu, Sumedang, Bogor City and Regency, Tasikmalaya City, and Regency, have distinct customs, festivities, and ceremonial practices that are exclusive to their respective regions.

IV. FINDINGS AND DISCUSSION

Religious holidays hold great significance as they serve as major commemorations in Islam, Christianity, Buddhism, Hinduism, and Confucianism. The government actively supports various religious communities by providing financial assistance for religious education and the construction of places of worship. Consequently, Indonesia boasts a diverse and culturally rich religious landscape encompassing a multitude of traditions and practices. Whether it be the Islamic celebration of Eid al-Fitr, the Christian celebration of Christmas, or the Hindu festival of Diwali, these religious holidays play a vital role in upholding the freedom of worship for individuals in accordance with their respective religions or beliefs.

A. Islamic Heortonyms Related to the Main Holiday

The study of heortonyms and their spiritual meaning allows us to gain a profound insight into the significance of religion within the Sundanese culture and its influence on their worldview. Through this exploration, we can also examine the connection between an individual’s religious beliefs, denomination, level of devotion, and cultural background and beliefs. Within the Islamic faith, there are two prominent holidays, namely Eid al-Adha (also known as
During these nights, all the houses are brightly lit. People will wake up all night to welcome the night of Hari Raya Haji, or Hari Raya Qurban), which are celebrated with immense enthusiasm and joy.

**Eid Al-Adha.** The Sundanese people celebrate Eid al-Adha as a means to express their local traditional beliefs and values, intertwining them with the Islamic teachings of struggle and sacrifice. This ritual involves the use of a goat or a cow as a symbolic medium of communication, representing the sacrificial animal. The meat from the sacrifice is then distributed among those who are experiencing poverty (Ridwan et al., 2020). The celebration of Eid al-Adha serves various functions across different domains. In the religious realm, it allows individuals to demonstrate their obedience and devotion to God’s commands. Culturally and historically, it contributes to the preservation and promotion of cultural heritage. Socially, it fosters the creation and strengthening of social bonds. Furthermore, it serves as a means of expressing and constructing the Muslim identity (culturally). Psychologically, it can evoke mystical or religious experiences and foster feelings of solidarity and humanity. Additionally, it accompanies significant life cycle events and other significant rituals (Aminah et al., 2020; Sels, 2014).

The term Eid al-Adha originates from Arabic, which has been adopted to Indonesian as Iduladha. The term Iduladha has become integrated into the Indonesian language, and it shares similarities with another Indonesian word, idulikurban (Supianudin, 2020), as stated in the Indonesian dictionary.

The Sundanese people commonly refer to this festive occasion as Lebaran Haji. The origin of the word lebaran has not been established yet. According to various opinions, it is believed that the word lebaran most likely originated from regional languages, as four regional languages contain the term lebar. In Javanese, lebar means ‘finished,’ while in Sundanese, it signifies ‘abundant.’ In Betawi, it denotes ‘wide,’ and in Madurese, lober means ‘completed.’ Despite this, the language center has not officially determined the etymology of the word lebaran. The language merely acknowledges that it serves as a base word. It is important to note that the term lebaran is only used in Indonesia (Ellyvon, 2022).

**Eid Al-Fitr.** Celebrating religious festivals serves as a public manifestation of one’s faith, reinforcing the bond between the believer and their relationship with God. Within Islam, the act of celebration is considered an obligatory or highly encouraged practice for believers. These religious festivities have the potential to enhance the spiritual connection among followers of the faith.

The celebration of Eid-al-Fitr signifies the culmination of a month-long period during which Muslims celebrate a successful Ramadan of fasting and worship. Also referred to as the “Festival of Breaking the Fast,” Eid-al-Fitr holds religious significance for Muslims worldwide. This occasion serves as a special family gathering that brings together millions of individuals, families, and communities each year. The significance of celebrating Eid-al-Fitr as a cohesive unit is explored through a series of case studies examining various ways in which families and communities celebrate this auspicious event (Idris et al., 2022). The celebration of Eid al-Fitr holds sociocultural, economic, and religious implications within local communities. Economically, the practice of zakat exemplifies the spirit of solidarity among individuals, where the affluent are obligated to contribute a portion of their wealth in the form of zakat, which is then distributed to those in need. In this context, zakat serves as a means of promoting economic recovery (Haris, 2021). Another significant aspect associated with Eid al-Fitr is the tradition of Mudik or homecoming, which carries various religious connotations. It involves urban dwellers returning to their hometowns during the Muslim holiday of Eid al-Fitr. Mudik holds sociocultural significance in terms of fostering religious connections, engaging in acts of kindness, and reinforcing social bonds. It also symbolizes the success of the homecomers and leaves a collective impression within the community (Yusuf et al., 2020).

The celebration of local values and distinctiveness was evident in these religious festivals. The local community considers these festivals as part of their community identity and as offering impetus for annual family and community reunions (Nair & Babu, 2022). Eid Al-Fitr, the heortonym associated with Islam and the second most important holiday, derives its name from the Arabic term fithr, which means ‘eating’ or ‘food.’ Consequently, Eid al-Fitr means a feast of eating because after a whole month of fasting on Eid al-Fitr, it is obligatory to eat and it is forbidden to fast (Yusuf, 2020). Religious celebrations can strengthen cultural heritage and become more focused on cultural goals (Munshi, 2022).

**B. Heortonyms Related to Ramadan Fasting**

The month of fasting for Muslims is a holy month. In that month, there are many heortonyms commemorated by Muslims. Some of the examples are as follows:

**Kunur.** This tradition is carried out every 15th of Ramadan by giving alms of food such as ketupat (rice cake boiled in a rhombus-shaped packet) to the nearest mosque. This tradition is carried out in the context of thanksgiving and welcoming the half month of fasting.

**Nujulul Qur’an.** This tradition is carried out when the 17th night of fasting coincides with the night when the Qur’an was revealed. The community congregates in the mosque to engage in collective recitation of the Qur’an, known as tadarus. It is customary to bring along the Al-Qur’an passed down from their ancestors (Kuran kabuyutan). For those doing tadarus at home, it provides an opportunity for children and parents to gather, fostering family unity. The occasion commemorates the momentous event of the Qur’an’s revelation to the Prophet Muhammad SAW.

**Mamaleman/Tanggal Gangsal/Hajat Jajabur** (Salikur, Tilu likur, lima likur/salawé, tujuh likur, salapan likur). This tradition is carried out during the period from the 21st to the 29th of Ramadan, specifically on odd-numbered dates. During these nights, all the houses are brightly lit. People will wake up all night to welcome the night of Lailatul Qadar.
In the Hajat Jajahur tradition, residents usually provide delectable food to share with their neighbors. Additionally, some take advantage of this moment to clean the heirlooms left by their ancestors.

**Hajat Walliha/Mulam Takbiran.** During Hajat Lebaran, residents will visit each other’s relatives and neighbors after the sunnah Eid prayer as a gesture of maintaining connections and seeking forgiveness. Additionally, it is customary for the local community to pay respects to the graves of their ancestors.

C. **Heortonyms Related to Sacred Historical Events**

**Rajaban (27 Rajab) or Isra Mi’raj.** The account of Muhammad's Night Journey and Ascension to the Heavenly Spheres is arguably the most extraordinary episode in the Prophet’s life, and its remarkable aspects became widely accepted as historical facts (Webb, 2012). The heortonym Rajaban (27 Rajab) or Isra Mi’raj holds immense significance for all Muslims, as it marks the occasion when the Prophet Muhammad SAW received an order to pray five times daily. To commemorate this event, the Sundanese refer to it as Rajaban. The term rajaban is derived from the Arabic month name, Rajah, which means majesty or glory. In the Sundanese language, the suffix -an is added to denote repeated events (Interview with Teddi Muhtadin).

**Muludan.** Muslims actively participate in the celebration of Mawlid, the Prophet’s birthday, as it holds significance importance in shaping their collective identity. The heortonym Muludan is held on the 11th day of the twelfth month of Rabiatul Awal to commemorate the birth day of the Prophet Muhammad SAW. The term Muludan is derived from the word Mulud, which means ‘to be born’ in Arabic. In Sundanese, it is formed by combining mulud with the suffix -an, indicating recurring celebrations (interview with Teddi Muhtadin). Muludan or Mudling (Muludan Keliling) in Mirat Village (Majalengka) involves visiting homes within the community, known as Dusun or village, to collectively pray and send Salawat to Rosulullah Muhammad SAW.

**Rowahan.** The Rowahan tradition in Cirebon or Rewahan tradition in Bandung is an ongoing Islamic practice. Rewahan is derived from rewah, which means ‘month of Sa’ban,’ and is combined with the suffix -an. The Rewahan tradition takes place on the 15th of Sya’ban, also known as the Nisfu Sya’ban night. According to Muslim belief, this night signifies the closing and opening of a book containing the record of human deeds for one year. The word Rewahan is used in Bandung, while the word Rowahan is used in Cirebon, with a variation in sound from [e] to [o] due to regional dialects.

D. **Traditions Related to Human Life**

**Ekah (Akekahan).** The Islamic tradition of performing a haircut for newborn babies is known as Aqiqah (Subki, 2022), or ekahlakekah in Indonesian. Aqiqah refers to the act of cutting derived from the Arabic word “al-qat’a”. In Indonesian, this word is borrowed and transformed into “aqiqah”. On the other hand, Ekah (Akekahan) is a distinct Sundanese tradition where the baby’s hair is cut when they are 7, 14, or 21 days old. In this tradition, the parents must sacrifice a goat as an offering to seek redemption for the baby’s soul from God Almighty. If the baby is a girl, one goat is sacrificed, while if the baby is a boy, two goats are sacrificed. This cultural practice aims to purify the baby’s physical and mental soul, expressing gratitude to God Almighty for blessing the parents with a child.

**Khitanan.** The practice of khitanan, or circumcision, is primarily carried out on boys. It involves the removal of the skin covering the penis to ensure cleanliness. This tradition is considered obligatory for Muslim boys, typically performed when they are between the ages of 4 and 7. In contrast, circumcision for girls is considered permissible under the law (Fajrussalam et al., 2022). The Sundanese use the term Khitanan, or circumcision, to refer to this practice.

E. **Traditions Related to Death**

**Tahlil.** Tahlil is a ceremonial gathering observed in Indonesia to commemorate the day of death. Typically, it takes place after the burial process has been completed. The whole family, neighbors, and the surrounding community gathered at the deceased’s family’s house. The ceremony includes the recitation of several verses from the Qur’an, dhikr, and prayers for the departed. These prayers are offered on specific days; the first day (poena) to the third day (tiluna), the seventh day (tujhna), the fortieth day (matanggulah), the hundredth day (natus), and the thousandth day (newu). It is important to note that most people engage in the tahlilan willingly and sincerely, without any external pressure. Therefore, the practice of tahlil is considered permissible under the law (Fajrussalam et al., 2022).

F. **Activities Related to Agriculture**

The Sundanese mainly practices heortonyms related to agriculture. The following are examples of these heortonyms.

**Rice ceremony for Dewi Padi (Nyi Pohaci Sanghiyang Sri).** Before planting and harvesting rice, the Sundanese people perform a traditional religious and magical ceremony that serves to pay homage and offer reverence to the rice goddess, Nyi Pohaci Sanghiyang Sri. Rice, which is believed to be the embodiment of Nyi Pohaci Sanghiyang Sri, the daughter of Dêwa Anta, should be treated with utmost care and respect. This reverence extends to every step of the rice cultivation process, including planting the seeds, nurturing the plants, harvesting the stalks, and storing the rice in barns. The rice is treated as if it were an esteemed princess, deserving the utmost care and attention.
**Ngalaksa.** This tradition shares similarities with the practice of honoring the rice goddess, Nyi Pohaci Sanghiyang Sri, as an expression of gratitude to God for the successful harvest of the community. The *Ngalaksa* traditional ceremonies have been passed down through generations, inherited from the local community’s ancestors, and preserved to this day. This tradition is carried out once a year, serving as a way to give thanks to God for the year’s harvest. The central aspect of the *ngalaksa* tradition involves preparing food made from rice flour wrapped in leaves, commonly known as Rancakalong *laksa* by the community. Alongside this ongoing tradition, the *Ngalaksa* event features the accompaniment of two musical instruments called *tarawangsa* (Sahroni et al., 2023).

**Seren Taun Tradition.** The *Seren Taun* tradition is a ceremonial practice that involves the transportation of harvested rice from the fields to the granary using a *renkong*, a bamboo-carrying pole. Traditional music, known as *tetabuhan*, accompanies this procession. The purpose of the *Seren Taun* tradition is to express gratitude to God Almighty for the successful harvest and to seek blessings for future agricultural endeavors. A notable feature of this ceremony is the procession of reports detailing the agricultural outcomes to the officials attending the event, which is referred to as *Seba* by the local community. The *Seren Taun* ceremony serves the purpose of preserving and passing down the values contained in the local culture, contributing to the national identity, while also serving as an expression of gratitude and prayers for the Sundanese people’s journey through the ups and downs, especially in agriculture (Suhadi & Nurjanah, 2023).

**Ngarot Tradition.** In the Indramayu region, the local community usually holds the *Ngarot* ceremony. This customary practice occurs during the onset of the planting or rainy season. One aspect of this involves a procession towards the village hall. The purpose of this tradition is to express gratitude to God and seek blessings for agricultural yields. The implementation of the *Ngarot* traditional ceremony yields several values, such as fostering the spirit of cooperation among community members, serving as exemplary symbols for the youth by community leaders, and nurturing enthusiasm for maintaining the rice fields in *Leleia* Village as vital rice granaries within Indramayu Regency (Winoto et al., 2021).

**Hajat Lembur Tradition.** The tradition of *Hajat Lembur* revolves around expressing gratitude for a bountiful harvest. It is a well-attended ritual of thanksgiving that serves as a platform for social interaction and consultation to address various issues. Through this event, the people demonstrate their care for one another, as well as their concern for nature and the environment. The *Hajat Lembur* tradition not only serves as a means of expressing gratitude but also as a way to foster relationships among people, between humans and nature, and between humans and God (Damayani et al., 2020).

**Ngaruwat Bumi Tradition.** *Ngaruwat Bumi* is a tradition that is still sustainable in the Sundanese tradition. The phrase *Ngaruwat Bumi* comes from the Sundanese word *Rawat* or *Ngarawat*, which means ‘to collect or maintain.’ The term means gathering all community members and collecting all crops, raw, semi-processed, and ready-made/cooked materials. This tradition is carried out to thank God Almighty for abundant produce.

**G. Heortonyms Related to Avoiding Calamities**

**Sea Feast Tradition.** Maritime festival ceremonies are frequently held in West Java province, including Pangandaran, Ciamis, and Pelabuhan Ratu in Sukabumi, as well as in other coastal regions like Indramayu and Cirebon. During these festivities, fishing boats are adorned with vibrant decorations, creating a visually appealing spectacle. As part of the tradition, a buffalo head, wrapped in cloth, is brought as an offering and thrown into the sea. This act symbolizes presenting a gift to the ruler of the sea and is believed to ward off misfortunes. This annual custom serves as a means to express gratitude and seek safety while at sea.

**Rebo Wekasan** (last Wednesday in the month of *Safar*). The *Rebo Wekasan* tradition serves as a precautionary measure against disasters. According to Sundanese belief, the month of *Safar* is associated with the occurrence of diseases and accidents sent by God. To counteract these potential calamities, *Rebo Wekasan* is conducted. *Rebo*, meaning ‘Wednesday,’ and *wekasan*, meaning ‘the last,’ symbolize its occurrence on the final Wednesday of the month of *Safar*. During this time, people traditionally bathe using blessed water known as *cail anu dijampean* in Sundanese, which means ‘water that has been given a blessing’.

All Sundanese ethnic heortonyms are formed from the Sundanese language, either verb, noun, or verbal, and nominal phrases. These heortonym activities are conducted using Sundanese. While some heortonyms have their origins in Arabic or Javanese, they have been adopted by the Sundanese, resulting in the inclusion of loanwords and phrases from other languages, primarily Arabic and other regional languages, particularly Javanese.

The analysis of heortonymic data reveals the reflection of Sundanese identity and ethnicity. The identity of the Sundanese is evident in their strong commitment to practicing their religion, as indicated by their practice of religious rituals such as fasting and prayers in various circumstances. They demonstrate their gratitude for a fulfilling life through regular worship and engage in agricultural activities that are integral to their culture. Additionally, they honor their ancestors through visits to graves and preserve ancestral heritage objects. These activities collectively contribute to shaping an inherent identity that characterizes the Sundanese people.

Sundanese ethnic groups enrich their cultural heritage through their cultural diversity. Their religious life is reflected in the rich traditions of its people, among whom rituals and festivals are held annually, adding a colorful dimension to their cultural existence. The unique rituals and festivals of the traditions, beliefs, sorrows, and philosophies that together shape and animate this ethnic religion have come down from ancient times and have been preserved to this day. Every
dimension of their lives, which includes activities throughout the year, is closely related to religion and worldview. These aspects of their culture give meaning and depth to their lives and create solidarity with their social structure, thus forming Sundanese ethnic identity (Padhi, 2020).

The performance of identity routines in different contexts allows individuals to form and reconstruct various identities that they then present. Interaction with others plays a crucial role in the development of a person’s cultural identity through communication. The initial growth of identity is primarily shaped by interactions within the family, as it serves as a source of stories that connect individuals to the past and provide them with “a sense of identity and connection to this world.” These stories also transmit cultural beliefs and values, which become integral parts of one’s identity (Samovar & Richard, 2013). Furthermore, identity can be understood as a relationship and membership within a group, where engagement in group activities fosters a sense of identity that is intertwined with the collective. Cultural rituals in adulthood also contribute to the construction and display of identity, aiding adolescents in gaining a heightened self-awareness as they transition into adulthood. In certain developing societies, these rituals may involve painful physical experiences like male and female circumcision. In the Sundanese ethnicity, circumcision ceremonies for boys between the ages of 4 to 7 are accompanied by elaborate celebrations, treating the circumcised child as a king, in a lace-decorated shirt, and seated on a chair resembling a bride and groom. In Sumedang, this celebration includes a renggong horse show, where a horse decorated with flowers walks and dances in sync with the music, particularly the drums. This horse is typically used as a riding vehicle during the procession of the circumcised children.

There are various ways to express one’s identity, and the Sundanese people exemplify this through their attire, which reflects their religious or spiritual beliefs. Muslim women wear headscarves, while Muslim men sport beards as a means of showcasing their identity. Furthermore, participation in local traditions and celebrations also serves as a marker of identity. The formation of Sundanese cultural identity is deeply rooted in the traditions upheld by the Sundanese ethnicity, which can be categorized according to different stages of human life, such as birth, marriage, and death. These traditions are conducted in accordance with the principles of the Islamic religion. The development of Islam in Sundanese land aligns with the cultural practices of the Sundanese society. Consequently, Islam finds it easier to integrate with the existing value system within the Sundanese community. This is due to the distinctive characteristics of the Islamic religion, which foster a culture that evolves in tandem with its dynamics. As a result, the Sundanese ethnic heortonyms, originating from the Sundanese language, serve as distinctive symbols and identifiers of the Sundanese ethnic group.

V. CONCLUSIONS

Feasts hold a fundamental and crucial role in cultures worldwide. Specifically, feasts associated with religious rituals have particular social and cultural significance compared to those in any other festivities or celebrations in people’s life. These religious feasts demonstrate characteristic features, emphasizing the value of food and feasting in social life and fostering solidarity. They also serve as a means of preserving historical traditions and acting as a continuation of the past (Gopi, 2021).

This article reveals the Islamic celebrations in West Java, encompassing major events like Eid-Al-Adha, Eid-Al-Fitr, Maulid, and Ramadan, as well as celebrations closely intertwined with Islam and local traditions. These rituals are commemorated annually and encompass heortonyms linked to sacred historical events, rituals connected to various stages of human life, agricultural activities, and practices aimed at averting calamities. The observance of these rituals plays a significant role in preserving the Sundanese culture and contributes to the formation of traditional cultural identity within the Sundanese ethnic group.

The formation of a Sundanese ethnic heortonym primarily employs the Sundanese language, although there are also heortonyms derived from Arabic and Javanese, which have become integrated into the Sundanese culture. The use of the Sundanese language serves to elucidate the history and progression of these rituals. Additionally, it signifies the connection between current ritual celebrations and the formation of Muslim identity within the region. These rituals align with the dynamic social order, community culture, and religious social system adopted by the Sundanese ethnicity (Sila, 2020).

This article is useful for the younger generation who are currently not familiar with heortonyms in their area, immigrant communities, and residents of West Java, especially those living in big cities, as well as scientists working in the fields of culture, history, language, ethnolinguistics, and anthropology who are interested in the field of onomastic. In addition, this article is one of the efforts to preserve Sundanese culture in the field of heortonyms.

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Application of the 3-Step Mind Map Approach in Senior High School English Reading Teaching

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Abstract—In an effort to enhance students’ English reading ability and thinking quality, this study proposes a 3-Step Mind Map Approach based on information structure and image schema. A comparative experiment was conducted in a senior high school setting with 78 students to evaluate the effectiveness of this approach. The experimental class, taught through the 3-Step Mind Map Approach, outperformed the control class, instructed with traditional methods, in both reading ability and thinking quality. This study highlights the potential of using mind maps as a useful tool in English reading teaching and promoting students’ thinking quality.

Index Terms—mind map, English reading ability, thinking quality, information structure, image schema

I. INTRODUCTION

In the last two decades, English teaching and reform in China have undergone rapid development. With recent progress in the field of English teaching, there is now a greater emphasis on improving students’ reading ability and thinking quality. This has renewed interest in developing students’ core competencies, including language ability, thinking capacity, learning ability and cultural awareness in English teaching.

However, despite these developments, many English teachers still focus on teaching vocabulary and grammar to help students achieve high reading scores. This strategy ultimately fails to improve students’ reading ability and thinking quality. Instead, it adds to their burdens. To address these issues, there is an urgent need to find a better approach that can promote students’ reading ability and thinking quality. Extensive research has already shown that using mind maps can enhance memory and productivity. As a result, some researchers have started exploring the applications of mind maps in English teaching, but most of these studies focused on junior high school English teaching. This leaves a gap in the research on how mind maps can be used in senior high school. The present study aims to explore a new approach that applies mind maps to English reading teaching to improve students’ reading ability and thinking quality with the guidance of information structure (IS) and image schema, which is of great significance to English teaching nowadays.

II. LITERATURE REVIEW

A. Mind Map

A mind map is a powerful tool for organizing information visually, which was first proposed by Tony Buzan in the 1960s. He defines mind map as an intricate diagram that mimics the structure of a brain cell, branching out from its center and evolving through patterns of association (Buzan, 2018).

Buzan (2018) claims that using graphics could maximize brainpower. With the help of a mind map, information can be transformed and replaced by diagrams. Swamy and Kulkarni (2006) suggest that a mind map reflects all kinds of things, time and reactions in the brain, and Meier (2007) believes that it is a powerful instrument for enhancing memory and productivity.

Mind maps could take various forms, but all mind maps share a common organizational structure that shows associations. Mind mapping has advantages over conventional note-taking (Buzan, 2018). For example, it is multi-faced, colourful, multidimensional, imaginative and analytical (Table 1).

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Mind maps are characterized of three components: a central image that captures the main subject, thick branches radiating out from the central image, and a single key image or word placed on each branch (Buzan, 2018). To apply mind mapping more specifically, Hyerle (2004) has designed eight kinds of thinking maps that include circle map, bubble map, double bubble map, tree map, brace map, flow map, multi-flow map and mountain map, which can facilitate thinking skills.

Each type of mind maps has different characteristics, which can be applied to various reading texts. For example, tree maps are most suitable for classification. Circle map could visually demonstrate the definition of an item. The choice of mind map used for a particular text is dependent on the type of information being presented. For instance, a narrative text can be better constructed using a mountain map to depict the plot than a bubble map, whereas a bubble map would be more advantageous than a flow map for gathering the fundamental elements of the narrative.

B. Previous Studies on Mind Map

An abundance of studies have shown the advantages of mind maps in information processing and knowledge organization. Eppller (2006) found the advantages of mind maps after exploring mapping techniques and three other visualization formats, namely mind map, conceptual diagram, and visual metaphor. Stokhof et al. (2020) demonstrated that using a shared mind map helps students learn and refine their knowledge structures, which can make students question effectively. Ma and Yu (2008) analyzed the advantages of mind maps in grasping the theme of long or difficult English texts. Yan (2016) holds that mind mapping cultivating students’ thinking ability and improves teaching efficiency. Sun (2018) further proposed using mind maps to help students describe and analyze text so as to cultivate senior middle-school students’ thinking quality in English reading.

Based on the theoretical studies on mind maps, researchers have explored various ways to apply mind maps in teaching. For example, Faramarzi (2017) evaluated the effectiveness of mind maps on the reading performance of male dyslexic students in primary school. Wang (2019) found that mind maps promote students’ English learning interest and the efficiency of English grammar teaching. Wang (2019) also suggested that teachers can use mind map to prepare lesson plans. In addition, Li (2021) investigated the use of mind maps in English writing teaching and found that the application of mind maps enhances students’ writing ability.

Those studies have provided a wealth of experience regarding the implementation of mind maps in English teaching. However, most of these studies have mainly examined the effect of mind maps on students’ English reading ability and make little attempt to evaluate the effect of mind maps on students’ thinking quality, which is now considered as a key element in students’ core competencies in English learning. Besides, although extensive studies have been carried out on the effect of mind maps on English teaching, little attention has been paid to teaching students how to use mind maps in English learning, which might have hindered the learning outcome. In addition, many of these studies have examined the application of mind maps in English writing teaching, but there remains a paucity of the study on the application of mind map to English teaching reading in senior high school. Given the increasing expectations of students’ reading ability and thinking abilities, it is necessary to fully harness the benefits of mind maps and innovate English reading teaching in senior high school.

III. THE 3-STEP MIND MAP APPROACH IN ENGLISH READING TEACHING

In the light of the theoretical foundations of IS and image schema theory, we propose the 3-Step Mind Map Approach to enhance English reading teaching. By constructing the connection between the background knowledge and new information, we can have a better understanding with the help of IS. Image schema is an abstract pattern or mental structure that arises from a person’s interaction with the world. By utilizing these concepts, the 3-Step Mind Map Approach aims to help students create and complete the image schema for a text, integrating new information into existing knowledge structures.

The 3-Step Mind Map Approach we proposed involves three steps. In the first step, students need to determine the main subject of the text and draw a central image representing it. Then, they need to draw branches and sub-branches radiating from the central image, using different colors and marks to highlight the key points and details as well as the relationship between different nodes. Finally, they need to review and make corrections if necessary. We assume that the 3-Step Mind Map Approach could help students better understand the text, retain important information, and improve their reading comprehension.

<table>
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<th>Table 1</th>
<th>DIFFERENCES BETWEEN CONVENTIONAL NOTE-TAKING AND MIND MAPPING</th>
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<td>Conventional Note-taking</td>
<td>Mind Mapping</td>
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<td>Linear</td>
<td>Multi-faceted</td>
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<td>Monochrome</td>
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<td>Word-based</td>
<td>Words combined with pictures</td>
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While there have been many previous studies on the application of mind map in teaching, most of them have focused on junior high school English teaching. The present study, which incorporates IS and image schema theory in senior high school English teaching, may provide new insight into the application of mind maps and could benefit students of all levels.

A. Theoretical Basis

The study of information structure originated from the Prague School before World War II and was later disseminated in Europe through the work of Halliday (1994). According to Chafe (1976), information structure refers to the way in which speakers organize information in their utterances to convey their intended meaning. IS pertains to the packaging of information in response to the communicative needs of interlocutors. In practice, IS refers to the integration of new information into pre-existing information in terms of the meaning of a sentence. By analyzing IS, one can gain insight into how information is packaged and the status of information in discourse. Components of IS include given information, new information, focus, topic and comment, and cohesion and coherence (Yuan, 2019).

Image schema was originally proposed by German philosopher and psychologist Kant (1929), who defined it as the generic and abstract knowledge a person has acquired in the course of numerous individual experiences with objects, people, situation, and events. Lakoff (1987) refers to it as a relatively simple structure that recurs in everyday bodily experiences. These abstract patterns or mental structures originate from our interactions and observations of the world around us.

The process of creating a mind map involves constructing and completing an image schema in the mind by integrating new information with pre-existing knowledge. According to image schema theory, reading comprehension involves the interaction between the reader's knowledge structure system and the information provided by the text (Yuan, 2019). Technically, integrating mind maps with English reading teaching should benefit students' reading ability and thinking quality in that it facilitates students' analysis of the information structure of a text by visualizing an image schema.

B. Analysis of Information Structure in Reading Texts With Mind Maps

To illustrate how mind map can be used in English reading teaching, two examples are given below. The two examples represent the two most common text types in English reading: narrative and argumentative texts. The following material (Figure 1) comes from Book 1 of English Textbook by Foreign Language Teaching and Research Press (FLTRP). The text in this unit is a story about the Brownlee brothers.

![Image 1](image1.png)

Figure 1. Exercise in Unit 3, Book 1, FLTRP

In the exercise which is based on the reading text, there are five questions to guide students to organize the key information to retell the passage (Figure 1). The six basic elements in a narrative are included in the mind map: what, when, who, where, why and how. In this case, a bubble map could be adopted to arrange these elements. We assume this mind map facilitates students’ analysis of the story’s information structure, which could enhance students’ reading comprehension and could improves students’ thinking quality in the long run.
The second material is an argumentative passage which comes from the exercise in Unit 4 “Friends Forever” (FLTRP). The reading passage is about the changes in making friends in the past and at present. The mind map above (Figure 2) compares and lists different ways of making friends. In addition, a question is also asked in the mind map: is online friendship real or not. This mind map could serve as a guide to help students fully understand the passage and the logical relationship between different ideas in the passage. When students complete the mind map after reading the text, the image schema on this argumentative could also be completed. The information structure could be analyzed and the image schema could be constructed and completed with the help of the mind map.

C. Design of the 3-Step Mind Map Approach

As noted previously, many studies on mind map application fail to provide guidance on teaching students how to create mind maps. This can leave students at a loss when their teachers request them to draw mind maps.

The current study employs the 3-Step Mind Map Approach in English reading instruction which is illustrated in Figure 3. The central image is the most crucial element of a mind map, serving as the foundation for subsequent ideas. Students are instructed to create the central image first and then engage in radiant thinking to analyze the information. During this process, the image schema in the mind is activated, and the IS is illustrated using sub-branches, marks, and colors. The final step involves making any necessary revisions. The 3-Step Mind Map Approach provides students with clear guidance on how to decode information and visualize its structure.

Figure 3 demonstrates that using a bubble map is an effective method to gather the fundamental components of a narrative. This is how the 3-Step Mind Map Approach works: to begin, Step 1 highlights the Brownlee brothers as the subject, with their photo as the central image; in Step 2, sub-branches of details are added, that is, who, when, where, what and why. The mind map in Figure 1 features engaging colors and visual elements. Finally, students should complete the mind map and make corrections if necessary.

IV. Research Design

A. Research Questions
As students’ core competencies, English reading ability and thinking quality are increasingly recognized as essential components. While researchers have undertaken considerable studies on how to improve students’ English reading, few of them attach importance to how to enhance students’ thinking quality at the same time. This study aims to develop an effective approach to enhance both English reading ability and thinking quality in students. We propose the 3-Step Mind Map Approach and seek to evaluate its effectiveness in addressing two key questions:

1. What is the effect of the 3-Step Mind Map Approach on students’ English reading ability?
2. What is the effect of the 3-Step Mind Map Approach on students’ thinking quality?

B. Method

In order to evaluate the effect of the 3-Step Mind Map approach on students’ English reading ability and thinking quality, the current study adopts a comparative experimental study approach.

A total of 78 students from a senior high school participated in the experiment. They are from two parallel classes: Class 1, Grade 2 and Class 2, Grade 2. Class 1 is the experimental class (EC) which is taught with the 3-Step Mind Map Approach. Class 2 is the control class (CC) with traditional teaching method.

At the start of the study, a pre-test is undertaken to ensure that the students in EC and CC are homogeneous before the experiment in terms of English level and English reading ability. During the process, the two classes are taught with the same English reading content. After the teaching experiment, a post-test is undertaken to evaluate the effect of the 3-Step Mind Map approach on students’ reading ability and thinking quality.

C. Materials

(a). Questionnaire on Students’ Background Knowledge to Mind Maps

The questionnaire is designed to investigate students’ attitude and background knowledge to mind maps. It includes two parts. The first part is the basic explanation of the survey purpose, requirements and introduction to mind maps. The second part is the survey questions, which include the frequency of using mind maps, attitude toward using mind maps, and barriers of English reading.

(b). Reading Ability Pre-Test Paper and Reading Ability Post-Test Paper

Reading ability pre-test is designed to test students’ reading ability before the experiment. The post-test is designed to testify whether students’ reading ability in EC is significantly better than the CC. Both the reading ability pre-test and the reading ability post-test consist of 4 reading passages and 20 multiple choice questions. The full mark of each test is 100 and each question accounts for 5 points. Students are required to finish each test in 40 minutes. The pre-test paper and the post-test have the same structure and difficulty level.

Benjamin Bloom and his collaborators published a framework for categorizing educational goals: Taxonomy of Educational Objectives (Bloom et al., 1956), familiarly known as Bloom’s Taxonomy (Figure 4). The framework consists of six major categories: Knowledge, Comprehension, Application, Analysis, and Evaluation. The categories after Knowledge are presented as “skills and abilities”, and each category contains subcategories, all lying along a continuum from simple to complex and concrete to abstract.

The reading ability tests are designed based on Bloom’s Taxonomy (Bloom et al., 1956). The framework elaborated by Bloom and his collaborators consisted of six major categories: knowledge, comprehension, application, analysis, synthesis, and evaluation. Questions in the pre-test paper and post-test paper can be divided into 4 types (Figure 4). Questions that require understanding specific information fall under the understanding level of the Bloom’s Taxonomy. Questions that involve guessing word meanings and inferring/judging information fall under the applying level, and questions that require analyzing the theme fall under the analyzing level.
Table 2 provides an example of the reading ability categorization in the reading ability pre-test. As Table 2 shows, testing items concerning information inference and judgment account for 40% of the test, and the difficulty index of this category is two stars. Examples of this question type include questions 3, 4, 7, 10, 12, 17, 18 and 19.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Question type</th>
<th>Example</th>
<th>Bloom’s Taxonomy</th>
<th>Percentage</th>
<th>Difficulty</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>understand and get the specific info</td>
<td>questions 1, 2, 3, 11, 14, 16</td>
<td>understanding level</td>
<td>30%</td>
<td>*</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>infer and judge the information</td>
<td>question 3, 4, 7, 10, 12, 17, 18, 19</td>
<td>applying level</td>
<td>40%</td>
<td>**</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>guess the meaning of words and phrases</td>
<td>question 15</td>
<td>applying level</td>
<td>5%</td>
<td>***</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>analyze the theme</td>
<td>question 6, 8, 9, 13, 20</td>
<td>analyzing level</td>
<td>25%</td>
<td>****</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

(c). Thinking Quality Pre-Test Paper and Thinking Quality Post-Test Paper

The ability to think critically, logically, and creatively is an essential component of English language competence, as outlined in the English curriculum standards (Ministry of Education, 2017, p. 5). Improving students’ thinking quality can enhance their problem-solving skills in both academic and daily life contexts.

To assess the homogeneity of students’ thinking quality, a pre-test is administered to both CC and EC. The post-test then determines if students in the EC demonstrate a significant improvement in their thinking quality compared to the CC. Both tests include a blank-filling task where students must choose the correct sentences from a given set to complete a passage. This task requires students to analyze the logical relations between the sentences and use key elements of information structure, such as topic sentences and cohesion words. Each test is worth a total of 50 points, with each question accounting for 10 points, and students are given 10 minutes to complete the task.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Thinking quality level</th>
<th>Requirements</th>
<th>Bloom’s Taxonomy</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Level 1</td>
<td>observe the cultural phenomenon; compare the similarity and difference of various information; infer the simple logical relations; judge the truthness of the information</td>
<td>understanding and applying level</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Level 2</td>
<td>compare the inherent logical relations; explain the reasons of the difference; construct the new concept; express readers’ own opinions</td>
<td>analyzing and evaluating level</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Level 3</td>
<td>analyze and solve the problem in practice; express the proper query; make the value judgment; create new ideas</td>
<td>evaluating and creating level</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
We adopt the blank-filling task in the thinking quality tests because it is a good way to evaluate students’ thinking quality. A whole passage is a unit with different logical relations. If some sentences are missing, the logical relations are concealed. If students are to choose the correct sentences, they need to analyze and construct the logical relations of the whole passage. During the process, some key elements of IS are used such as theme, cohesion words and so on. By selecting the appropriate sentences, students demonstrate their understanding of the passage’s cohesive structure and the use of key information elements.

Figure 5. Analysis of Thinking Quality in English Reading

We divide thinking quality into three levels (Table 3) and relate the three levels to Bloom’s Taxonomy (Bloom et al., 1956), which reflect different requirements of students’ thinking quality development (Ministry of Education, 2017). As presented in Figure 5, in English reading, Level 1 involves understanding and applying abilities; Level 2 involves analyzing and evaluating abilities; Level 3 involves evaluating and creating abilities. For example, when taking the pre-test, which has an argumentative with a whole-part structure, students need to infer the logical relations between paragraphs. This requires the analyzing ability and logical thinking. Meanwhile, students need to compare the choices and choose the most appropriate one for each blank, which belongs to the Level 3 thinking quality.

C. Procedure
Prior to the start of the experiment, a questionnaire survey was administered to assess the students’ attitudes towards the use of mind maps in English reading. The invigilator, who is the English teacher of the two classes, comes to the classroom and hands out the questionnaire to each student. Students were requested to complete the questionnaire within 40 minutes. Additionally, pre-tests were conducted to evaluate the students’ reading abilities and thinking quality in both the Experimental Group (EC) and Control Group (CC). Students are required to complete each pre-test within 40 minutes.

After the questionnaire and pre-tests, a three-month experiment was then conducted, with the EC utilizing the 3-Step Mind Map approach in English instruction, while the CC employed the traditional bottom-up approach. The lesson plan was designed by the researcher using the 3-Step Mind Map approach.

Following the experiment, post-tests were conducted in both the EC and CC to assess the students’ reading abilities and thinking quality. Similarly, students are required to complete each post-test within 40 minutes.

V. RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

A. Results of the Questionnaire
Prior to the experiment, a questionnaire was administered to examine the status quo of students’ English reading and their attitudes towards mind maps. As Figure 6 and Figure 7 indicate, more than half of the students have a strong interest in mind map and English reading, indicating a favorable environment for the implementation of mind maps in reading instruction.
The results in Figure 8 and Figure 9 indicate that teachers utilized mind maps more frequently than the students, suggesting the necessity of guiding and encouraging students to apply mind maps in English learning.
According to Figure 10, 70% of the students perceive words and phrases as most challenging in their English reading. Passage length and grammar are also identified as another two obstacles to students’ reading comprehension. Compared with reading skills, vocabulary and grammar are considered as the major obstacles of English reading, which suggests that the students are unaware of their weaknesses in reading skills and thinking quality.

In summary, the questionnaire results indicate that the majority of students struggle with English reading, primarily due to challenges with vocabulary and reading proficiency. Notably, students demonstrate a keen interest in mind maps, suggesting significant potential for their use in English reading.

B. Results of Reading Ability Tests
The test scores are analyzed with SPSS 28. To answer the first research question, an independent samples T-test was conducted to compare the reading ability between CC and EC in the pre-test with a 95% confidence interval (CI) for the mean difference (Table 4 and Table 5).

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>class</th>
<th>results</th>
<th>N</th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>Std. Deviation</th>
<th>Std. Error Mean</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>EC</td>
<td>39</td>
<td>46.79</td>
<td>21.505</td>
<td>3.444</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>CC</td>
<td>39</td>
<td>48.08</td>
<td>23.272</td>
<td>3.727</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Table 5 indicates homogeneity of variance, as confirmed by Levene’s Test for Equality of Variances. As demonstrated in Table 4 and Table 5, there is no significant difference in reading ability between the EC (M=46.79, SD=21.505) and CC (M=48.08, SD=23.272), t (76) = -.253, p =.193. These results suggest that the EC and CC exhibit homogeneity in terms of their English reading ability at the outset of the experiment, rendering them appropriate subjects for the study.

Another independent samples T-test was conducted to compare the reading ability of CC and EX in the post-test. Table 7 shows that there was homogeneity of variance as assessed by Levene’s Test for Equality of Variances. Table 6 and Table 7 show that there is significant difference in the scores between EC (M=57.18, SD=18.736) and CC (M=48.46, SD=22.306); t (76) = 1.869, p = .045. The reading ability post-test scores of EC are significantly higher than the scores of CC. These results of pre-test and post-test suggest that the 3-Step Mind Map Approach does have a positive effect on students’ English reading ability. Specifically, the 3-Step Mind Map Approach improves students’ reading ability.

C. Results of Thinking Quality Tests

To address the second research question, we analyzed the thinking quality of both the CC and EC in the pre-test. Table 8 presents the results, which reveal that the mean thinking quality score for the EC is 31.03, and the mean score for the CC is 32.31. Although the CC scores slightly higher, the difference is negligible.

Table 9 presents a comparison of thinking quality between the EC and the CC in the post-test. The mean score for the EC is 34.10, while the mean score for the CC is 32.56. The difference of over 2 points between the EC and CC indicates that the thinking quality of the EC is different from that in the CC. Specifically, the implementation of the 3-Step Mind Map Approach in English reading teaching has improved the thinking quality of students in the EC.
Therefore, teachers should place greater emphasis on IS to improve students’ reading ability. By introducing the benefits and features of mind mapping to students, emphasizing that it is a process of creative and logical thinking, thereby enhancing their critical thinking abilities.

The Image schema theory provides a theoretical explanation for the effectiveness of mind maps in English reading teaching. According to this theory, when students create or complete a mind map, they construct or complete an image schema in their mind, which integrates new information with pre-existing knowledge. Creating a mind map or completing a mind map forces students to analyze the logical relations between different pieces of information in the text, making the information structure more evident and facilitating the identification of main ideas and key points.

Furthermore, in contrast to traditional teaching methods where information is directly provided by the teacher to the students, the 3-Step Mind Map approach encourages students to actively process information themselves. As they become more familiar with this approach, students are better equipped to identify logical connections between pieces of information, thereby enhancing their critical thinking abilities.

Therefore, the present study supports the use of the 3-Step Mind Map Approach in English reading teaching to improve students’ reading ability and thinking quality. This approach can promote students’ reading ability and thinking quality and has advantages over the traditional English teaching method.

These findings have important implications for English reading instruction in senior high school. Firstly, teachers can introduce the benefits and features of mind mapping to students, emphasizing that it is a process of creative and logical thinking, rather than just drawing diagrams or summarizing ideas. Teachers should also clarify the differences between mind maps and diagrams, as well as linear and divergent thinking, and explain the various components of mind maps. Secondly, teachers should prioritize IS and reading skills over vocabulary and other elements in reading instruction. By understanding the structure of a passage, students can guess the meaning of words and identify the theme of the text. Therefore, teachers should place greater emphasis on IS to improve students’ reading ability.

VI. CONCLUSION

The present study proposed the 3-Step Mind Map approach for English reading teaching, and the comparative experimental study shows that this approach not only improves students’ reading comprehension, but also enhances their thinking abilities.

The study addresses the gap in the literature by developing a new English teaching approach, which has not been previously explored in the context of English reading teaching. The effectiveness of this approach in improving students’ reading ability and thinking quality further expands our understanding on how to enhance teaching outcome in the domain of English reading. It can serve as a valuable resource for teachers seeking to improve their teaching practices. Furthermore, the study provides a practical and evidence-based approach that can be easily implemented in the classroom setting, offering a promising solution to the challenges faced by both students and teachers in the English reading context. Overall, through the innovative approach and empirical findings, the present study fills an important gap in the literature and provides valuable insights for educators and researchers in the field of pedagogy and education.

Of course, the current study also has certain limitations that must be acknowledged. Firstly, the experiment lasted for only 3 months, which is a relatively brief period and may not provide a comprehensive insight into the students’ learning over an extended period. Secondly, the sample size of the experiment is not big enough. Additionally, the 3-Step Mind Map Approach could be further customized based on the genre of reading material, the students’ learning preferences, and the complexity of the text. Overall, despite these limitations, the results of the study suggest that the 3-Step Mind Map Approach has the potential to be an effective approach for improving students’ English reading ability as well as thinking quality.
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Sound Change, Value of PL-SKT Loanwords and Reflections of Society and Beliefs in the Epic

*Thao Hung or Cheuang*

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*Abstract*—The objectives of this study were to explore the linguistic changes, to discover the value of Pali (PL) and Sanskrit (SKT) loanwords in an old and important epic work entitled "Thao Hung or Cheuang", and to describe the society depicted in this work and its beliefs. The conceptual framework of this study consists of (1) usage of PL-SKT words through sound change theories (2) values of the PL-SKT loanwords applied in Thao Hung or Cheuang and (3) reflections on the society and beliefs of the people in this epic. A qualitative method was employed and the data were collected from volumes 1-4 of the Dictionary of the Vocabulary in the Northeastern Thai Literary Work Thao Hung or Thao Cheuang published by the Royal Society of Thailand. The findings revealed that there are 679 PL-SKT loanwords in the work. The vowel and consonant sound changes were made for the sake melodiousness of the poetry of the work. The values of PL-SKT words can be categorized into five dimensions, namely, 1) language usage 2) word usage 3) sound usage 4) semantic usage and 5) aesthetic usage. The work also reflects the society it depicts, namely: urban society on a plateau which is class-based and agricultural, in which there is gender inequality between men and women and marriage between relatives of the ruling class, and in which there are multiple cultural influences. The following two types of beliefs were found in the society, namely: old beliefs and Brahman and Buddhist beliefs.

*Index Terms*—sound change, value, Pali-Sanskrit, loanwords, Thao Hung

I. INTRODUCTION

Thongprasert (1977, p. 37) stated that if one opens one of the dictionaries of the Royal Institute, one will find that Pali (PL) and Sanskrit (SKT) loanwords make up more than half of the words in the volume. Thus, it can be said that the Pali and Sanskrit languages have undoubtedly had a tremendous influence on the Thai language.

As might be expected in light of the above, the Dictionary of the Royal Institute B.E. 2554 (2013) contains many PL-SKT loanwords in the Thai language such as the term ‘พานิษฐ’/phaːk/ meaning ‘word, speech, remark, talk’ (p. 830), the term ‘พานิษฐ’/phaːt/ meaning ‘a kind of musical instrument’ (p. 830) and the term ‘กันจ้า’/kan-ja/ meaning ‘young girl, little girl’ (p. 103). These PL-SKT loanwords were found in the Dictionary of the Royal Institute B.E. 2554 (2013) and they also are found in the Dictionary of the Vocabulary in the Northeastern Thai Literary Work Thao Hung or Thao Cheuang Volumes 1-4 published by the Royal Institute. Sound changes were made in most of these words, and these changes were valuable in making the poem very melodious and beautiful.

In the Dictionary of the Vocabulary in the Northeastern Thai Literary Work Thao Hung or Thao Cheuang Volumes 1-4 published by the Royal Institute, it is stated that PL-SKT loanwords are beneficial in Thao Hung or Cheuang not only in making the poetry melodious and beautiful but also in revealing the values of Indic languages and in reflecting the society and beliefs of the people in those times. It is good documentary evidence for the study of the way of life of people in that time compared with the society and beliefs of people in the present day in order to reveal the similarities or dissimilarities of the worldviews that appear in the work.

This point of view is supported by distinguished Thai scholars such Nagavajara (1971), who stated that literature can reflect phenomenon of society and belief of the people in society as well. Similarly, Nakornthup (1977) declared that literature can reflect the way of life and values of the people in a society. Thus, it is suggested that people who would like to know and understand the way of life and values of the people in a society in different periods go through the literature available in each period.

An old and important literary work, Thao Hung or Cheuang has many PL-SKT loanwords in the Thai language, and it describes different events and features of society and beliefs of people in society. It is important to say that the poets who composed this work had a good knowledge of PL-SKT loanwords in the Thai language. Not only this, they also had good knowledge and skill in describing the circumstance of society, the way of life and the beliefs of the people.

PL-SKT loanwords have had impact on the Thai language though sound changes and made the language and literature beautiful and melodious. Especially, PL-SKT loanwords in Thao Hung or Cheuang are also found in NE Thai dialects frequently. The PL-SKT languages and Thai dialect that used in the work also reflect the society and beliefs of the people living in it in ancient times.
Thus, in this study, the researcher describes sound change, the value of the PL-SKT loanwords, and reflections of society and beliefs in Thao Hung or Cheuang. First, the phenomenon of sound change in PL-SKT loanwords used in the epic is presented, providing a holistic view of the value of the PL-SKT loanwords in the work. Then, the society and beliefs in Thao Hung or Cheuang are described, and this will contribute to academic discourse concerning language and the way it reflects the society and culture in Thao Hung or Cheuang.

II. REVIEW OF LITERATURE

A. Importance of the Thao Hung or Cheuang Literature and Its Relation to PL-SKT

Chamberlain (1989-1990, p. 14) stated that Thao Hung or Cheuang was one of the three most significant Southeast Asian literary works. The most respected and authoritative scholar of Lao history and culture, Mahasila Viravong, wrote in 1953 that Thao Hung or Cheuang was a mysterious work. It is well known in northern Laos and northeastern Thailand from oral tradition, but there is only a single extant written source (so far as we know): a palm leaf manuscript taken from Xieng Khwang by the Thai army in 1883 and placed in the National Library in Bangkok. The epic of Thao Hung or Cheuang is perhaps the most important piece of literature from the Southeast Asian mainland for the study of Southeast Asian civilization.

Furthermore, Chamberlain (1989-1990) stated that in Thao Hung or Cheuang, the poets used not only old Lao, but also Indic languages. He said that to students of comparative Tai linguistics, Cheuang is outstanding for its sparse use of Indic vocabulary. Jarumetheechon (2016) said that PL-SKT loanwords are found in northeastern literature such as Thao Hung or Cheuang spread over Laos and Lan Xang in the past time. The Royal Institute (2005) stated that Thao Hung or Cheuang represents a source of the old northeastern dialect and of the customs and traditions of the people in northeastern Thailand and Laos by presenting pre-Buddhist Tai lexical items and local culture. Chamberlain (1992) remarked that Thao Hung or Cheuang provides an excellent example of poetic rhymes indicating composition prior to the devoting sound shift that spread over East and Southeast Asia. Bandhumetha (1975) and Buaphanngam (2019) stated that the sounds of PL and SKT words that entered languages of the Tai family such as Thai, have been changed based on natural phenomena or the intention of language users for convenience or melodiousness in their poetic works.

B. Vowel and Consonant Sound Change of PL-SKT Words in Thai

Kullavanijaya (1999, p. 384) stated that language change is due to many causes such as sound change, comparison and borrowing from other languages. Concerning PL-SKT loanwords in the Thai language, Pongpaiboon (1974, p. 5) stated that historically, PL-SKT words entered and influenced the Thai language extensively in several important ways such as religion (Buddhism and Brahmanism) and literature. This view is similar to the views of Buaphanngam (2019) and of Jarumetheechon (2016), who proclaimed that not only the influence of religious factors, but also that of literature helped gain acceptance and application of PL and SKT words in their language by Thai people. This influence made the Thai language richer and more beautiful through the introduction of large numbers of terms in various fields.

Thai people have borrowed PL-SKT words to employ in the Thai language for a long time. Phiwlueng (2020, p. 64) stated that PL-SKT words have influenced the Thai language and caused changes in such areas as vowel and consonant sounds because the original PL and SKT words were not convenient for Thais to pronounce. Royal Institute (2013, p. 82) and Phinlhong (1989, p. 96) showed an example of such a word: the term ‘เก็งญา’/ ke̍ng-ja:/ meaning ‘woman, girl, beautiful young lady,’ which is found in Thao Hung or Cheuang. Undoubtedly, the borrowing was effected through altering the vowels and consonants in the system of the Pali language. Although, this word underwent thorough sound change, it still has the same meaning. Thus, such aspects of sound change are interesting for analytical study of PL-SKT loanwords used in the Dictionary of the Vocabulary in the Northeastern Thai Literary Work Thao Hung or Thao Cheuang published by the Royal Institute of Thailand.

C. Values of Alangkara (Decoration) Through PL-SKT Words

Raksamani (2006) stated that Alangkara (decoration) means usage of melodious words and absolute meaningful diction in a poem. It is used for decoration or ornament of the poem. Alangkara (poetic ornamentation in Indian poetics) is divided into two types namely: स्त्रियालांगकार / sā-thā-laŋ-ka/n meaning sound ornamentation and अर्थलांगकार / ṭā-thā-laŋ-ka/n meaning semantic ornamentation, and most Sanskrit poets pay attention to its use in poems to create language decoration. Alangkara is held to be the heart of poetry. Furthermore, Pimpuang (2016) stated that PL and SKT loanwords can be found in poetry and other literature in transliterations and translations, most frequently with sound changes. In this way, poems and other literary works can be made melodious and aesthetically pleasing. For example, SKT words were applied by Sunthorn Phu, an important poet of Thailand who was honored by UNESCO as a great world poet, in order to make his poems melodious and beautiful.

D. Reflection of Society and Belief in Thao Hung or Cheuang

With respect to meaning, Nagavajara (1971) stated that literature transmits not only facts about a society, but also reflects the moral sense of humans in the society. This point of view is very similar to that of Boonkhachorn (1980), who studied the relations of literature with society. No matter whether a writer intends to write about it or not, literature reflects the lives of the people in each period. It can be stated that through the works of writers, reflections of society in
different times from the past up until the present day can be found because literature and society are related to each other. It is right to say that people in the society can create literature and that literature can also reflect the activities of people in that society, the events affecting them, and their thought, beliefs, customs and traditions as well.

Therefore, literature and society undoubtedly are related to each other. Literature has been compared to a mirror reflecting the changes and evolution of society in each period. Literature not only reflects the society but also presents the thought of society in that period as well. After this review of the relevant literature, the researcher was able to devise a conceptual framework and proceeded to conduct this study on Sound Change, Value of PL-SKT Loanwords and Reflections of Society and Beliefs in Thao Hung or Cheuang.

III. RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

This research study was analytical research focused on the usage of the PL and SKT languages, the value of the PL and SKT languages sources of loanwords, and presenting reflections on the society and beliefs in the Dictionary of the Vocabulary in the Northeastern Thai Literary Work Thao Hung or Thao Cheuang published by the Royal Society of Thailand.

Descriptive writing of research was adopted through data collection from Volumes 1-4 in the Dictionary of the Vocabulary in the Northeastern Thai Literary Work Thao Hung or Thao Cheuang published by the Royal Society of Thailand. Research was conducted by a qualitative method within an overall inductive framework. The methodology used in the research study was as follows:

1. Data surveying and data collection related to PL and SKT loanword use, the values of PL and SKT loanwords and reflections of people in the society, and beliefs in the Dictionary of the Vocabulary in the Northeastern Thai Literary Work Thao Hung or Thao Cheuang, were done.

2. The collected documents were classified into groups, categorized, analyzed and explained in terms of sound changes of PL and SKT, values of PL and SKT languages and the reflection of society and beliefs in the Dictionary of the Vocabulary in the Northeastern Thai Literary Work Thao Hung or Thao Cheuang published by the Royal Society of Thailand.

3. Descriptions and analyses of PL and SKT language use, values and reflections of society and belief in the Dictionary of the Vocabulary in the Northeastern Thai Literary Work Thao Hung or Thao Cheuang published by the Royal Society of Thailand were written.

4. The results of the research, discussion and concluding remarks were presented by descriptive writing according to the objectives as mentioned in the research. Each verse of Thao Hung or Cheuang related to the main contents was subjected to analysis, and explanations were made through descriptive writing.

IV. RESEARCH RESULTS

The results of the research are presented based on the objectives of the research study. The research results were as follows:

A. Sound Change of PL-SKT Loanword Used in Thao Hung or Cheuang

After study of PL-SKT loanwords as employed in Thao Hung or Cheuang, the following two types of sound change were found, namely, vowel sounds and consonant sounds. They are as follows;

(a). Vowel Sound Change

Even though the vowels of some words borrowed from PL-SKT languages still remain the same when used in the Thai language, most of vowels of PL-SKT words have been changed from the original ones in order to use the words and make the poem melodious and beautiful. Ten aspects of vowel sound change were found in Thao Hung or Cheuang. They are as follows:

1. The vowel อ/ /-a/ with no spelling consonant in a PL-SKT language must be pronounced แอะ /-a/ in the Thai language; for example, the term ‘รัมย์’ (ramya, SKT) becomes ‘รัมย์’ /ram/ meaning ‘enjoyable, pleasing, beautiful’ (Royal Institute, Vol. 2, 2008, p. 76).

2. Thai language has the last consonant as spelling one, and the first consonant must be pronounced as อ/ /-a/ vowel, for example; term ‘ปรมย์’ (prathama, SKT) becomes ‘ปรมย์’ /prà-thôm/ meaning ‘primary, elementary, first’ (Royal Institute, Vol. 3, 2013, p. 135).

3. Short vowels in PL-SKT can be expanded to long vowels in the Thai language; for example, the term ‘คุณ’ (gu/Ea, PL-SKT) becomes ‘คูณ’ /khun/ meaning ‘excellent, auspicious, propitious’ (Royal Institute, Vol. 3, 2013, p. 12).

4. Long vowels in PL-SKT words can be changed to short vowels when used in the Thai language; for example, the term ‘ครม’ (v/Ea, PL-SKT) becomes ‘ครม’ /phin/ meaning ‘lute’ (Royal Institute, Vol. 3, 2013, p. 226).

5. The vowel อ/ /-a/ in PL-SKT words can be changed to อ/ /-o/ when used in the Thai language; for example, the term ‘ครม’ (garha, SKT) becomes ‘ครม’ /khrôm/ meaning ‘luck, chance, fortune, misfortune, omen’ (Royal Institute, Vol. 2, 2008, p. 276).
(6) The vowel  /ə/-/ in PL-SKT words can be changed to the vowel  /ɨː/ when used in the Thai language; for example, the term ‘_countries’ (/Avaṇī, PL) becomes ‘countries’ /da-wá-dun/ meaning ‘the second tier of the heaven’ (Royal Institute, Vol. 1, 2005, p. 21).

(7) The vowels  /i/-/ and  /i/-/ in PL-SKT words can be changed to  /əː/ when used in the Thai language; for example, the term ‘city’ (/vīrya, SKT), and the term ‘city’ (/vīrya, PL) becomes  /pihān/ meaning ‘to be diligent, to be industrious’ (Royal Institute, Vol. 1, 2005, p. 30).

(8) The vowel  /a/-/ in the front or the middle of a PL-SKT word can be changed to  /e/-/ when it is used in the Thai language; for example, the term ‘woman, girl, beautiful young lady’ (/khānī, PL) becomes  /kèn-jà/ meaning ‘woman, girl, beautiful young lady’ (Royal Institute, Vol. 3, 2013, p. 83).

(9) The vowel  /o/-/ in a PL-SKT word can be changed to the vowel “/óː/ when it is used in the Thai language; for example, the term ‘world, planet’ (/bhoː-chá-náh/ meaning ‘to eat’ (Royal Institute, Vol. 2, 2008, p. 45).

(10) The vowel  /u/-/ in a PL-SKT word is generally changed to “/úː/ when it is used in the Thai language; for example, the term ‘舿’ (dUra, PL-SKT) becomes /thoː-ráʔ/ meaning ‘remote, far, distant, wicked, bad, ill’ (Royal Institute, Vol. 2, 2008, p. 1).

(b). Consonant Sound Changes

In Thao Hung or Cheuang, the following 15 consonant sound changes were found. They are as follows.

(1) The consonant  /t/-/ in PL-SKT words can be changed to  /d/-/ in the Thai language; for example, the term ‘sage’ (/Arā, PL-SKT) becomes ‘sage’ /daː-ráː/ meaning ‘star, performer, actor, actress’ (Royal Institute, Vol. 4, 2019, p. 163).

(2) The consonant  /p/-/ in PL-SKT words can be changed to  /b/-/ when used in the Thai language; for example, the term ‘putto’ (putto, PL) becomes  /bút-toː/ meaning ‘son, child, offspring’ (Royal Institute, Vol. 1, 2005, p. 54).

(3) The consonant  /w/-/ in PL-SKT words can be changed to  /ph/-/ in the Thai language; for example, term ‘music’ (/Adya, SKT) becomes  ‘music’ /phátː/ meaning ‘musical instrument’ (Royal Institute, Vol. 3, 2013, p. 130).

(4) SKT vowel “/əː/ became the long vowel “/óː/ in the Thai language. For example, the term ‘sage’ (subhĀva, PL-SKT) becomes  /sōː-phāːp/ meaning ‘polite’ (Royal Institute , Vol. 3, 2013, p. 123).

(5) The initial syllable of a PL-SKT word can be deleted in the Thai language; for example, the term ‘nirvāṇa (namakśāra, SKT) became  /má-t-sá-kaːn/ meaning ‘reverence, worship; salutation of a letter to a Buddhist priest’ (Royal Institute, Vol. 4, 2019, p. 22).

(6) The middle consonant of a PL-SKT word can be deleted when used in the Thai language; for example, the term ‘nirvāṇa (varōṇa, SKT) becomes  /wáː-ðáː-naː/ meaning ‘to explain, to depict, to describe, to portray’ (Royal Institute, Vol. 2, 2008, p. 23).

(7) The vowel sound at the end of a PL-SKT word can be deleted for the sake of euphony when used in the Thai language; for example, the term ‘sary’ (nīla, PL-SKT) becomes  ‘sary’ /nin/ meaning ‘sapphire, jet, black’ (Royal Institute ,Vol. 2, 2008, p. 18).

(8) A consonant sound can be added at the end of PL-SKT word to improve the rhythm in the poem; for example, the term ‘people’ (maraṇā, PL-SKT) becomes  /má-ː-ráː-náː/ meaning ‘death, to die, to pass away’ (Royal Institute, Vol. 4, 2019, p. 1).

(9)  /ts/-/ is written under the consonant and can be changed to  /thɔː-roː:-hán/ (double  r; i.e.  ɹ) when used in the ‘Thai’ language; for example, the term written ‘world’ (var≡ā, SKT) becomes  /wáː-ɹ-rãː-náː/ meaning ‘world, planet’ (Royal Institute, Vol. 2, 2008, p. 152).

(10) In SKT words,  /ʃ/-/ can be added amid other consonants when used in the ‘Thai’ language; for example, the Pali term ‘sahajā’ (niibhĀna, PL) becomes the Sanskrit ‘sahajā’ (SKT) /ni-rāː-phaːn/ meaning ‘Nirvana, the extinction of all defilements and sufferings, the Supreme Goal of Buddhism’ (Royal Institute ,Vol. 2, 2008, p. 78).

(11) Those PL-SKT consonants having a dot underneath them such as  /ś/-/,  /m/-/,  /n/-/ denoting they are semi-consonant sounds or spelling consonants can be used as full consonant sounds in the ‘Thai’ language; for example, the term ‘sahajā (niibhĀna, SKT) becomes  /sáː-tháː-náː/ meaning ‘place, site, locality’ (Royal Institute ,Vol. 2, 2008, p. 164) and the term ‘sahajā (vAkyā, PL-SKT) becomes  /phàːk/ and it means ‘word, speech, remark, talk’ (Royal Institute, Vol. 4, 2019, p. 149).

(12) Some PL-SKT words used in the Thai language must have a sound added at the end of the word to make the word more melodious in verse; for example, the term ‘years’ (maraṇā, PL-SKT) becomes  /má-ráː-náː/ meaning ‘death, to die, to pass away’ (Royal Institute, Vol. 2, 2008, p. 166).

(13) In PL-SKT words used in the Thai language, a mark is placed above a consonant to indicate it is silent; for example, the term ‘prātarap’ (prasa-raṇa, SKT) becomes  /prá-sõːn/ meaning ‘to aim, to intend, to wish, to want, to desire’ (Royal Institute, Vol. 4, 2019, p. 80).
The dot denoting a spelling consonant of original PL-SKT words will be deleted when the word is used in the Thai language; for example, term ‘มโนรมย์’ (manoramya, SKT) becomes สมนรมย์ /má-no-rom/ meaning ‘satisfying, satisfactory, beautiful’ (Royal Institute, Vol. 4, 2019, p. 140).

Changes other than the above such as changing ช ‘kh’ to ซ ‘kh’ etc. For example, the term ‘กุญชร’ (kañña, PL) becomes กิญชร /ken-ja:/ meaning ‘woman, girl, beautiful young lady’ (Royal Institute, Vol. 2, 2008, p. 27) and the term ‘รัญโญ’ (PL) becomes /reŋ-ja:/ with the same meaning ‘king’ (Royal Institute, Vol. 2, 2008, p. 147).

The observed vowel and consonant sound changes can be explained in terms of different theories of sound changes such as sound insertion, deletion and so on. These sound change theories are considered to apply in Thao Hung or Cheuang.

B. Values of PL-SKT Loanwords Used in Thao Hung or Cheuang

The use of PL-SKT loanwords in Thao Hung or Cheuang literature makes the work more beautiful and melodious. The following five dimensions of values of PL-SKT words were found in the work:

(a). Language Usage

The use of PL-SKT loanwords in Thao Hung or Cheuang was an important tool in communicating the meaning and intention of the poets. After Buddhism entered the society, it played an important role and PL-SKT words were used in composing poetry together with words of the NE dialect, thus adding beauty and value due to the PL-SKT languages, for example:

1. เพื่อนกัน สำมากนิณ สำมา แหมะ
   เฝี้ยงคำศัพท์สำมา แหมะ
   ดูเครื่อง เท่กษาเรอห์เริ่มมาล ณเกื้อก
   ผังแผน ง้าคำช่วย แหมะ

Translated: In that time, people had cheerful faces. Phaya Thaen spoke suitable words and advised a young woman. There were many things for a woman’s side. Khun Cheuang arranged accordingly. (Royal Institute, Vol. 2, 2008, p. 26)

In the above underlined example, the term “เท่กษาเรอห์” /ken-ja:/ meaning ‘young woman, girl, beautiful young lady,’ was borrowed from Pali and the poets used it with sound and consonant changes. Originally, it meant ‘young woman.’ In Thao Hung or Cheuang, the PL-SKT word is beautiful and contributes to the poem’s melodiousness.

(b). Word Usage

Most of PL-SKT words used in Thao Hung or Cheuang are transliterated and transliterated with sound change, so the sound of the word may or may not be similar to the original word, for example:

2. เพื่อนกัน สิมมารามมี โรมาแน
   ท่านพ่อพิพิธฉัตร越來 คำชื่
   เท่กษาเรอห์แก่ทั้ง
   บรรจุไม้แล่ง รักสั่น

Translated: Khun Cheuang, the handsome king, gave a smile to a dear woman. The elephant picked up Khun Cheuang and he rode it without realizing that it is the time to go back. (Royal Institute, Vol. 3, 2013, p. 236)

In the above stanza, the term ‘สิม’ /söm/ is derived from ส /söm/söm/ prefixation in PL-SKT meaning together, with and good; the term ‘เท่กษาเรอห์’ /reŋ-jo:/ was used by poets through transliteration and change of the sound of the word a little bit from the original ‘เท่กษา ’ /ran-jo:/ However, its meaning is the king. Not only this, there are many PL-SKT words that were used with sound change such as the term ‘กัมพู’ /kon-thon/. It may be derived from the term ‘กุญชร’ /kun-chara/ meaning ‘king.’ Compounding of Thai and Pali as in the word ‘โรมาแน’ /rom-má-no:/ meaning ‘beloved woman’ or ‘sweetheart’ is also found.

(c). Sound Usage

Poets used PL-SKT loanwords and played with the sound of the words in Thao Hung or Cheuang. The word play makes the verse more melodious, for example:

3. เพื่อนกันว่า คือคำว่าสำมาเล่า ไชยสั่น
   ยันคำว่าดับบิ่น จงหา
   เท่กษาเรอห์สำมาเรอห์เริ่มมาล ณเกื้อก
   พระเจ้าพ่อแม่เรอห์ชื่น ช้าคดี

Translated: Then, Queen Au-ka who missed King Engka opened the letter and read it. She found Engka’s request and confession and learned that there would be a war in the future because Thao Suem had undoubtedly decided on it. (Royal Institute, Vol. 4, 2019, p. 90)

In the above underlined example, PL-SKT terms were found with repeated consonants usage, namely, the word ‘สิม’ /söm/ and the syllable ‘สิม’ /söm/ in the word ‘สิมมาราม’ /söm-khra:m/ meaning ‘war, combat’ in this context. This
makes the more verse melodious through the repetition of "sâm" /söm/. Not only this, the consonant s /s/ also is repeated, namely, the terms ทวนิมา /sâm/ ฟานิมา /söm/ ผวนิมา /söm/ from the term "สมคาม" /söm-krha:m/. The words that poets used in Thao Hung or Cheuang were often alliterative, making the verse melodious and beautiful.

(d). Semantic Usage
The use of PL-SKT words in Thao Hung or Cheuang in order to make the verse melodious and impart beautiful meaning is an important language strategy of the poets. This device helps reader appreciate the meaning of the PL-SKT loanwords in the work, for example:

(4) พระจันทร์ ฟ้ารักข้อง เสียงเล่ง เดือนสาม ฟ้าเบีย
หทยาง เลื่อนช่อง
ดูดัง อาวามาโรทจึง อันไวสก
ผวนิมาผ่องต่อมย่า ผี่ยงจง
Translated: People heard the sound of thunder in the third month. Everybody began to soothe good omen or soul of people to go back home. As if dear man becomes worried and sorrowful. His heart is like a man who is mad.

(Royal Institute, Vol. 4, 2019, p. 112)
In this context, it means heart of Eangka became like that of a mad man.

(e). Aesthetics Reflected the Beauty of Poem
Chitchamnong (2023, p. 19) stated that beautiful scenes will consists of the beautiful and meaningful words that the writers has written in their poetic works. It is not the direct meaning of word that is available in the general dictionary. To Thao Hung or Cheuang, it brought the aesthetics of PL-SKT loanwords to the poem. Thus, it enables readers to appreciate in the beauty of verse in Thao Hung or Cheuang, for example:

(5) พอเมื่อ อาวามา hyperactive เสียงเล่ง ต่อมช่อง เลื้อนช่อง เลือกพาจากตรา- ดังสก แซงกิ่งเสิร์ชีกริยา ที่พิษภัก ข้าวฟักนิย์ไม่แห้ง ผี่ยงจง
Translated: When the rainy season came, the thunder roared more and more. Khun Cheuang braved passing from the second heaven where Indra dwells to be conceived in Queen Chom and the prince grew great in her womb.

(Royal Institute, Vol. 1, 2005, p. 21)
From the example words in the above, the term 'กู้ตุ' /rú-du:/ meaning 'season,' the term 'จุติ' /cû(t)-tî/ meaning ‘to pass away or to die,’ the term ‘คุติสัศ’ /cû-wá-du:n/ meaning ‘the second tier of the heaven,’ and the term ‘ปฏิสูติ’ /pâ-ti-sóm-thî/ meaning ‘conception, birth’ as used in the above were done through sound change according to the procedure of Thai language way. They have obvious meanings and made draw readers to appreciate in the beauty of the poem.

C. Reflection of Society and Beliefs in Thao Hung or Cheuang
Manorat (2006, p. 35) stated that literature offers not only beauty and aesthetic values but also reflects aspects of the society, the way of life, and the worldview of people in a given time as well as different problems in the society that poet may have experienced. As with the above mentioned characteristics, Thao Hung or Cheuang reflects aspects of society and beliefs as follows;

(a). Society
Thao Hung or Cheuang reflects the following features of the society in which it was created:

1. Class-Based Society
The society of Thao Hung or Cheuang was hierarchical and the power was in the hands of the ruling class as in this stanza:

(6) สมศักดิ์ชาวไทย นามเดิม
ที่เหล้าท่านพระเจ้าหญิง ราชเทวี
หนอนคำเลี้ยงชีพไทย บัลลังเข้าพ่อข้างเจ้า
ที่เซาะโพธิ์ไม้ แสนไข่สีแดง
Translated: A king who was great with an honorable name was known well as Khun Chom with righteousness. Both Queen Chom and the king Khun Chom felt unsatisfied because they had no heirs.
The term 'ท้าวไท้' /thaw-thay/ here means 'great king,' the term 'ธรรมยาน' /than-jam/ means 'righteous ruler.' Here, it means the righteous king. The word Chom means the great one. Here it refers to Khun Chom, who is the father of Khun Cheuang. Thus, it obviously reflects a monarchial system, in which there are rulers, noble men, and royal courts (Manorat, 2006, p. 39).

2. Agricultural Society

The society and people in Thao Hung or Cheuang are obviously agricultural, for example; (7)

Translated: You go back and please inform Khun Cheuang. Ai Khwang and Han Plai said goodbye and went down from the royal hall. Sometimes they passed grand farms and overhanging rocks. Sometimes they also passed gardens and elephants and horses running very fast. (Royal Institute, Vol. 1, 2005, p. 168)

The passage contains the term 'นา' /na:/ from น้าหลวง, which means 'grand grounds or farms' and which appears in scenes of Thao Hung or Cheuang. Moreover, the term 'สวน' /suan/ meaning 'an area planted to trees' is also found. Therefore, it can be said that people in those days made their living through agriculture because scenes involving farms and gardens are common.

3. Inequality in Society Between Man and Woman

In Thao Hung or Cheuang, inequality between man and woman in society is also found, for example; (8)

Translated: Let both of you who become persons of importance (Khun Cheuang and Queen Ngommuan) tell the Moon that shown and its shadow has gone out. We checked destiny for both of you already (Khun Cheuang and Queen Ngommuang). It is equal, but the destiny of Khun Cheuang still has another place. (Royal Institute, Vol. 2, 2008, p. 121)

In the above stanza, the term 'แนน' /nɛːn/ means 'house,' and the term 'ต่างสวน' /tːŋ-suan/ means another one, another place. It can be explained that Khun Cheuang and Queen Ngommuan have a destiny together and they can get married. However, this passage tells that Khun Chom had greater rights because he still had another destiny: to get married with another woman. This indicates men have greater rights than women.

4. Marriage Between Relatives of the Ruling Class

In Thao Hung or Cheuang, descriptions of customs related to marriage between relatives of the ruling class are found, for example; (9)

Translated: We will advise about the wedding ceremony. Please arrange great trays of gifts of gold (from the groom to the bride's family) and betel arranged in the great trays of gifts. (Royal Institute, Vol. 1, 2005, p. 111)

Among the words in this excerpt, the term 'ดอง' /dɔːŋ/ means 'marriage, wedding, married state.' It is found that people in of the ruling class at that time preferred to marry relatives of the same class. Doing so was believed to support the power of rulers in the society. Thus, this poem depicts marriage between relatives of the ruling class.

5. Multicultural Society

Thao Hung or Cheuang presents a multicultural society in which there were beliefs based on old myths as well as beliefs derived from Brahmanism and Buddhism, for example; (10)

Translated: Then, Queen Ngommuan said, “Sin comes to encroach me and make me left out. I must endure the grief. There seems the destiny of my husband gone more than me”.

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In this poem, it can be seen that the society at that time believed very much in destiny as arranged by Phaya Thaen. In the above stanza, the term ‘แนน’ /nɛ:n/ means ‘spouse’ that was arranged by Phaya Thaen. However, after Buddhism entered the society, belief in Karma meaning ‘actions or deeds and their results’ played a large role in the lives of people in that society. In the above stanza, another term ‘เวโร’ /weː-roː/ meaning ‘desire for vengeance or sin’ in which people believed. Especially, it is believed in Buddhism that the state of being of a husband and wife in the present life is related to that in their past life. Such beliefs play an important role as well.

(b). Beliefs in the Old Religion

1. Phaya Thaen

In Thao Hung or Cheuang, belief in Phaya Thaen, a god in heaven who can manifest and empower in the human world, is found. For example:

(11) เมื่อนั้น ลาวต ์าวม ์ำเร็วรีบ เมือบนเรียงคดีกล ์าวนาง นงหน ์า กับทั้งสีผลเจ้าสวนตาล ล์านมาศเป็นลูกเหง่าแถนฟ้า

Translated: In that time, Phaya Thaen rode the horse back to heaven very fast. After that, he talked about Queen Ngangmuan and Khun Cheuang, who was the son who would succeed Phaya Thaen.

(Royal Institute, Vol. 2, 2008, p. 30)

In the above, the term ‘แถนฟ้า’ /thɛːn-fːaː/ means ‘a god in heaven who can manifest and empower in the human world.’ It is found that the people in that time believed in Phaya Thaen very much indeed. People in the old society paid respect to Phaya Thaen and requested water from him for agricultural activities.

2. Belief in Ancestral Spirits

In Thao Hung or Cheuang, the different beliefs in ancestral spirits of the people in the society are found, for example:

(12) กูกิ คึดเผ่าเชื้อชั้นชาติ พระเฮย ออละซอนเสียงเทพาเลำแหน ค้าตานตูจักเอาแนนน์องทั้งสองรักยิ่งแนนเพื่อนไว์แวนบาน	ต่ำตอย

Translated: Khun Chom thinks that he is of the lineage of a king who is a righteous and great king one to whom no one compares in greatness. He ordered a message prepared to make a request of the ancestral spirits dwelling in the palace.

(Royal Institute, Vol. 1, 2005, p. 11)

The example above showed that the people in the old society had strong beliefs in the ancestral spirits because the term ‘ตีด้า’ /phːː-ːdːm/ meaning ‘ancestral spirits’ is found. They respected the spirits and requested what they desired from those ancestral spirits. This indicated that the ancestral spirits played a large role in the beliefs of the people in ancient times.

3. Belief in Fate Naen (Soulmates)

In Thao Hung or Cheuang, there is evidence that people in the society believed that Naen, or soul mates influenced their fate. For example:

(13) ขอข่ำเบื้องแนนเพื่อน มะเรำพระเอป ออละซอน เสียงเทาเสิร์จที ค้าตาน ตู้ึก เบ็มแนนลงถึงสอง รู้ปยงแนน แนนเพื่อนไว์เวิร์มขาน	ต่ำตอย

Translated: Phaya Thaen please presses the fate of those sides (Khun Cheuang and another woman) and brings it to Queen Ngommuan. Phaya Thaen replied with happiness that I have already appointed a soul mate for both of you (Khun Theuang and Ngommuan), but the fate of Khun Cheuang and his other woman will be very low.

(Royal Institute, Vol. 2, 2008, p. 35)

The excerpt above indicated that the people in the old times believed in fated soul mates, or Naen. Here, the term ‘แนน’ /nɛ:n/ means a ‘spouse’ that was arranged by Phaya Thaen. Society in the old times believed that love is governed by Phaya Thaen. He always helps and supports Naen to love each other.

4. Belief in Kwan (Spirit)

In Thao Hung or Cheuang, it was found that the Kwan ceremony was performed by people of that society. For example:

(14) ล้ำกิ บุนค้า้าดำคองงาน แซมวาน ทุกที่เทียบใจชาว เจียกชาวิ
Translated: Then the aunt carried off the son, blessed him and soothed him by calling on his spirits.
(Royal Institute, Vol. 1, 2005, p. 28)

The above verse showed that the people in the old society believed very much in the Khwan. The term ‘ขวัญ’/khwan/ means ‘spirit, soul associated with parts of body, morale.’ Another meaning is a good omen. The Kwan ceremony is found in Thao Hung or Cheuang. The people believed that performing this ceremony would bring them happiness.

5. Belief in Divination

In Thao Hung or Cheuang, it was found that divination was practiced in the old society at that time. For example:

(15) พุ่งพิงให้ภูริราชรักษา

Translated: Khun Cheuang put his hands together in order to beg protection for the king. The gods and fortunetellers who had already arranged the fated soul mate make divination about the soul mate of Ai-kwang who is righteous before the divination of troops.
(Royal Institute, Vol. 2, 2008, p. 197)

The example words in the above selection showed that the people in the old society believed in divination, especially the divination about fated lovers, or Naen, or soul mates. The term ‘ชั่ง’/chăng/ means to divine about persons who will become soul mates in the future. Thus, it can be said that the divination was a belief among the people in the old society.

6. Belief in Prediction

In Thao Hung or Cheuang, it is found that people believed in prediction, for example:

(16) จักกล่าวให้ชอบชั่งแน่นสมชอบแล้วหมอหวนทวายบอกมามวลพร้อมทิ้งมา

Translated: Let both of you predict the Naen or destiny. Fortuneteller will predict to all of you. Everyone felt happy and Queen Ngom can stay together with Khun Cheuang, a young king with beautiful body.
(Royal Institute, Vol. 2, 2008, p. 188)

The above stanza indicated that the people in the old society absolutely believed in dreams and prediction. Here, the term ‘ทำนาย’/thá-way/ means ‘to predict, prophesy.’ If people felt an intimation that something was going to happen, they consulted a fortuneteller and requested a prediction. The people believed in this very much indeed.

(c). Belief in Buddhist Concepts

In Thao Hung or Cheuang, the Buddhist beliefs concerning the earth and the universe, Karma and God, are found. For example:

1. Belief in Heaven and the Human World

In Thao Hung or Cheuang, belief in heaven and the human world is found. For example:

(17) จักทานเทวดาใส่เกล้า เกลา

Translated: I will wear this flower in my hair. More fragrant than the night blooming jasmine, its scent fills the earth. There is nothing to equal it in all the six realms.
(Royal Institute, Vol. 2, 2008, p. 90)

The PL-SKT words in the above are ‘หก’/hok/ meaning ‘six’, the term ‘สวรรค์’/sà-wân/ meaning ‘heaven’ and the term ‘นักพร่า’/nà-khhrn-fà/ meaning ‘heaven.’ Belief in heaven—especially in the six realms of Brahma—is also found.

2. Belief in Karma (Action)

Belief in Karma, or action, is found in Thao Hung or Cheuang. For example:

(18) ผังกิจ ชั่งเสริมแห่งเฉิ่ม พิษพิษพิษยะ

Translated: I will wear this flower in my hair. More fragrant than the night blooming jasmine, its scent fills the earth. There is nothing to equal it in all the six realms.

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Translated: Thao Eangka saw the clear and beautiful sky with the shadow of a cloud on the mountain. He slept and felt lonely because he missed his queen, Uakha, always. Now I have only one dear one named Uakha or results of Karma returned to defame and separate us.

(Royal Institute, Vol. 4, 2019, p. 111)

A PL-SKT word found in the selection is the term ‘วิบาก’ /wi-bä:k/ meaning ‘consequence, the Karmic result of accumulated merits and sins,’ Thus, belief in Buddhist Karma (action) and its results was found. This stanza indicated that the people in this society believed in Karma and its results very much indeed. People received what they desire as a result of their deeds.

3. Belief in God

In Thao Hung or Cheuang, belief in gods like Brahma is obvious. For example:

(19) วันนี้ เจ้าเผ่อยาบไม่แม่น เผยศีล ผาดฤทธิ์ประจำสุทศ ภูมิแทน
วัชรีเท่งพระชนม์ขี้นี โล่ปรายนานเจ้า
บาทเลิฟแล้วเหล่อตา โลกลคน

Translated: Today, Queen Nang Chom gave birth to a son with a beautiful appearance drawn by Brahma—the most beautiful and celebrated babe in the world.

(Royal Institute, Vol. 1, 2005, p. 32)

In the stanza presented above, the term ‘พระ’ /phrom/ means ‘God Brahma according to the Buddhist belief.’ The God Brahma was respected the most by the people in that time. Especially, good or beautiful things people would say were created by the God Brahma.

4. Belief in Circle of Life

Moreover, in Thao Hung or Cheuang, the cycle of life according to Buddhism is also found. For example:

(20) เงิบว่า วันยากายฮื้เอง วันรก
เหลือหลอกกิน ไกลหมา
โทษเรารำรามสัม จัยบาง
ขอถ้าอางสามรา ซ้าบัง แล้วเธอ

Translated: It is as though retribution makes us avoid each other. Sin in a previous life separates us and makes us avoid each other. May Phaya Thaen help and support us.

(Royal Institute, Vol. 2, 2008, p. 98)

Examples of PL-SKT words found in the stanza are the term ‘วิบาก’ /wi-bä:k/ meaning ‘results of action,’ the term ‘เอโก’ /e:-ko:/ meaning ‘to be alone,’ the term ‘เวร’ /we:-ra:/ meaning ‘revenge,’ and the term ‘โทเล’ /tho:-le:/ meaning ‘distant, far.’ These words communicated the cycle of life and this cycle of life will become endless if people take revenge on each other.

5. Life After Death

In Thao Hung or Cheuang, beliefs about life after death are found as well. For example:

(21) ศำรีแจ่มเรดามงวิสัย อันทิกรอง
เมียตรา ถวาราแซยูโษก กลบกิน
 똏ะแซวะพิยูจสมสิป บุคคลกันฌฬร
นุช่์ละนิมิมณีพิลิษา ช่างเสยกษร

Translated: Ngommuan, a great queen, is most beautiful, like one created by the god Indra. She was separated from Khun Cheuang for more than two years. Since they were reunited, they are always together, and they will go to heaven together after passing away.

(Royal Institute, Vol. 2, 2008, p. 123)

An example of a SKT word in this stanza is the term ‘อินทร์’ /in/ meaning ‘the god Indra in the second heaven where Indra dwells.’ Indra is the god that was respected the most in the society in ancient times. Especially, women and other beautiful things in the world are said to have been created by the god Indra.

V. DISCUSSION AND CONCLUSION

To sum up, Na Nagara (1989, p. 24) observed that Tai people in different ethnic groups both in Thailand and outside of Thailand as well as people of other ethnic groups may respect Thao Hung or Cheuang as their king. However, Thai people believe that Thao Hung or Cheuang was a king of many ethnic groups. This view was also expressed by Punnthok (1998, p. 76). The legend of Thao Hung or Cheuang spread extensively over northeastern Thailand and Laos. It is noteworthy that PL-SKT loanwords found in Thao Hung or Cheuang most frequently are those with sound changes. As observed previously, consonant sound changes are more common than vowel sound changes. These PL-SKT
loanwords are most beautifully used, and it is believed that the writers of Thao Hung or Cheuang were skilled in the use of PL-SKT languages and were able to apply PL-SKT words in the epic wonderfully.

This is in line with Nimmanahaeminda (1998, p. 103), who stated that the content and language including the vocabulary of Thao Hung or Cheuang indicates the writers were laureates who possessed consummate ability with PL-SKT words, royal words and other knowledge because they used the words in the work beautifully.

The writers or poets applied PL-SKT words in which there were sound changes in their literary work. By doing so, they made their poetry very beautiful and melodious. In this study, the following five values of beauty of PL-SKT words used in Thao Hung or Cheuang were found: 1) language usage 2) word usage 3) sound usage 4) semantic usage and 5) aesthetic usage, all of which contribute to the beauty of poem. This is called Alankara, or beauty. As Raksamani (1999) stated that Sanskrit poets paid attention to the language usage and emphasized Alankara as the heart of poetry. Thus, Alankara made a poem beautiful, melodious and valuable in itself.

The different dimensions of the society depicted in Thao Hung or Cheuang were as follows. It was an urban society on a plateau. It was a class-based agricultural society in which there was gender inequality between men and women, marriage between relatives of the ruling class and multiple cultural influences. This view is similar to that of Manorat (2004), who stated that in Thao Hung or Cheuang, Lanna and Lan Xang settlements comprised a hierarchical agrarian society consisting of two classes: the rulers and the ruled in which there was gender inequality. The people believed in destiny or fate. This seems to be similar to the results found in this study as well. With respect to beliefs, it was found that there are two types, namely: old beliefs and belief in Brahmanism and Buddhism. Old beliefs focused on belief in Phaya Thaen, ancestral spirits, fated lovers or Naen (soul mates), Kwan (spirit) and divination. These points are similar to those of Nimmanahaeminda (1998, p. 103).

Regarding the old beliefs in Phaya Thaen, the findings are in line with those of Saenburan (2012, p. 8), who stated that Phaya Thaen is the world creator. This name seems to have the same reference as Thaen Fah Khuen in the Khun Borom tale and “Phaya Thaen Luang” (The Fine Arts Department, 1963, p. 140). Phaya Thaen Luang or Thaen Fah Khuen have the same meaning when compared with each other (Punnothok, 1987). In the comparative dimension, Phaya Thaen is regarded as the supreme god, comparable to Brahma in Hinduism, Jehovah in Christianity or Allah in Islam.

This belief in Phaya Thaen has been held more than 1,000 years among the ethnic groups of Tai people such as the Northern Thai people, the Shan in Myanmar, the Chinese in Xishuangbanna, the Northeastern Thai people and the Lao people. Thus, Phaya Thaen is the supreme god according to the belief of the Northeastern Thai and the Lao.

Later, people followed Brahmanism and Buddhism. In doing so, elements of Indic languages such as Pali and Sanskrit, entered the languages of the Tai family, especially the Thai and Lao languages. Evidence of the use of Pali and Sanskrit can be found in Thao Hung or Cheuang, and the important role of these languages in the Thai language has continued up to the present day.

REFERENCES


Kowit Pimpuang is an associate professor at the Department of Thai Language, Faculty of Humanities, Kasetsart University, Bangkok. He earned his Ph.D. in Sanskrit. His research interests mainly focus on Pali and Sanskrit teaching, Thai language teaching and Thai language teaching for international students. His 57 scientific articles were published in national and international journals. He won the Best Presentation Award in ICHLSS Brisbane, Australia in 2017.
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