

Journal of Language Teaching and Research

ISSN 1798-4769

Volume 15, Number 4, July 2024

Contents

REGULAR PAPERS

- EFL Learners' Attitudes Towards Utilizing ChatGPT for Acquiring Writing Skills in Higher Education: A Case Study of Computing Students 1029
Suhair E. Al-Alami
- Pronunciation Pedagogy Revisited: Voices From Omani B. Ed. Students 1039
Konstantinos M. Pitychoutis
- An Investigation Into English Learners' Speech Acts Using a Semi-Automatic Annotation Tool 1051
Zhaoyi Pan
- Emotional Blackmail in *Breaking Bad* Series: A Pragma-Stylistic Study 1062
Afrah S. Najem and Nawal F. Abbas
- The Effect of Osborn's Model on Developing Students' Rhetoric Concepts 1072
Nour Mohammad Harara, Emad Farouq Amarneh, Raid N. Al Hammouri, Mahmoud Ali Rababah, Luqman Rababah, and Abdallah Hussein El-Omari
- University Students' Plagiarism Behaviours in Writing Instruction: A Systematic Review 1083
Edhy Rustan
- The Attitudes and Perceptions of Saudi EFL Learners Toward Using English Language Learning Mobile Apps for Learning English 1095
Hamad Mohammed Alluhaydan
- Transformative Impact of Teacher Activity Groups on Vietnamese K-12 Teachers' Professional Growth: A Study of Satisfaction 1105
Phuong Hoang Yen, Helen Lunney, Nguyen Anh Thi, Pham Trut Thuy, Nguyen Huong Tra, Huynh Thi Anh Thu, and Le Thanh Thao
- The Attitudes of Chinese College Students Towards Utilizing Blended Learning to Enhance Their English Speaking Skills 1117
Dongying Su and Nurhasmiza Sazalli
- Portrayal of Kazakhstan: Sentiment and Topics in Online Media (2022-2023) 1128
Batagoz Smagulova and Sholpan Zharkynbekova
- A Linguistic Investigation Into False Friends in Arabic and English: The Students of Al-Balqa Applied University as a Model 1137
Tamador Kh. Abu-Snoubar, Adnan M. Abumahfouz, Yasser I. Shboul, Issam M. Aldowkat, and Ahmad Z. Rahahleh
- The Alignment of Verb *Ada* and Its Existence to Understand the Existential Clause Structure of Balinese 1144
I Wayan Swandana, Ketut Artawa, I Nyoman Udayana, and Ketut Widya Purnawati
-

An Exploration of EFL Teachers' Perceptions of Using Game-Based Learning Tools in Virtual Classes in a Saudi Primary School Context <i>Ghidaa Mohammad Al-Harbi and Abeer Ahmed Madini</i>	1156
The Representation of Nature in Ibn-Khafaja's and Wordsworth's Poetry: A Comparative Stylistic Study of Selected Poems <i>Abdullah M. Ibrahim, María de las Mercedes Delgado Pérez, and Emad A. Abuhammam</i>	1169
Back-Translation as a Tool for Identifying Language Change <i>Made Susini and I Wayan Ana</i>	1178
Implementation of the Sociolinguistic Competence Strategies in Teaching and Learning English as a Foreign Language <i>Rasha Dorgham</i>	1189
The Effect of Using Verbal Thinking Skills on Enhancing Effective Verbal Communication Among Ninth-Grade Female Students in Jordan <i>Rateb Qasem Ashour and Iman Ali Muhaidat</i>	1200
The Languages of Men and Women in Indigenous Villages <i>Ni Wayan Kasni, I. Wayan Budiarta, and A. A. Gede Suarjaya</i>	1207
Translanguaging: A Promising Approach to Enhance English Learning in Saudi Arabia <i>Albatoool Ahmad Alhazmi</i>	1217
Family Names in Jordan and the USA: A Comparative Socio-Linguistic Study <i>Muneera M. Jaradat</i>	1227
Female Existentialism in <i>Monkey Grip</i> by Helen Garner <i>Burhanuddin Arafah, Delukman Asri, Waode Hanafiah, Ruslin, Nur Ilmi, Alifiah Pratiwi, and Susi Astiantih</i>	1238
The Effects of <i>Q: Skills for Success (Reading and Writing) Level 2</i> on Improving EFL University Students' Reading Skills <i>Saifeldin Adam Abd Alrhman Adam</i>	1247
Malaysian English Language Teachers' Engagement With Instrumental Support on Facebook <i>Radzuwan Ab Rashid, Omar Ali Al-Smadi, Marwan Harb Alqaryouti, and Ala Eddin Sadeq</i>	1254
Factors Influencing Preservice EFL Teachers' Technology Integration Into Language Teaching <i>Tang Junhong, Jia Wei Lim, and Meng Yew Tee</i>	1264
Code Mixing Phenomena in Vietnam Online Newspapers <i>Le Thi Thuy Vinh</i>	1275
Trauma, Guilt, and Narrative: An Analysis of E. Lockhart's <i>We Were Liars</i> and <i>Family of Liars</i> <i>Nisrein M. Abu Sawa</i>	1287
The Effectiveness of Collaborative Strategic Reading (CSR) in Improving Students' Reading Comprehension <i>Yon A.E., Halimah, and Ida Nuraida</i>	1292
A Comparative Study of Loss and Gain in Three English Translations of the Qur'ānic Arabic Words of l-fadli (الفضل): A Semantic and Cultural Perspective <i>Ali Albashir Mohammed Alhaj</i>	1303
Faculty Members' Perspective on Employing YouTube in Teaching English for ESL Undergraduate Students <i>Raeda M. Ammari, Wajed R. Al Ahmad, Majd S. Abushunar, and Lina A. Al-Jarrah</i>	1313

Raising Awareness of Gender Discrimination Against Indigenous Australian Women of the Stolen Generation Through Doris Kartinyeri's <i>Kick The Tin</i> <i>Olga A. Rorintulus, Nur Saktiningrum, Ceisy Nita Wuntu, Muhd. Al Hafizh, and Agustine C. Mamentu</i>	1323
Do They Write Differently? Exploring Gendered Linguistic Differences in Academic Writings of Saudi Writers <i>Sadia Ali and Ebtesam Abdulhaleem</i>	1331
A Syntactic and Discoursal Analysis of <i>hala?</i> 'Now' in Jordanian Arabic <i>Zeyad Al-Daher, Othman Aref Al-Dala'ien, Mohammad Al-Rousan, Meera B. Sahawneh, and Saada Bader</i>	1339
Constructing Research Preferences by Prospective Indonesian EFL Teachers <i>Erikson Saragih, Nenni Triana Sinaga, Elina Lulu Bimawati Rumapea, Rohdearni Wati Sipayung, Sri Ninta Tarigan, and Irma Khoirot Daulay</i>	1351
A Critical Look at How Lecturers in Linguistics Can Leverage Generative Artificial Intelligence in Enhancing Teaching Proficiency and Students' Engagement <i>Shadi Majed Alshraah, Nizaam Kariem, Ahmad Marzouq Alshraah, Tahani I. Aldosemani, and Khadijah AlQarni</i>	1361
Navigating the Gray Zone: When Interpreters Become Mediators and Communication Facilitators <i>Obaida Almommani</i>	1372
Integrating Empathy in EFL Education: A Study of Vietnamese Tertiary Teachers' Adaptive Responses <i>Hua Hong Hieu and Le Thanh Thao</i>	1381

EFL Learners' Attitudes Towards Utilizing ChatGPT for Acquiring Writing Skills in Higher Education: A Case Study of Computing Students

Suhair E. Al-Alami

Skyline University College, Sharjah, UAE

Abstract—The rapid technological advancements have recently paved the way for a new era of language instruction. Amongst the technological tools which have emerged recently is ChatGPT. This study explores students' attitudes towards utilizing ChatGPT for acquisition of writing skills in English as a foreign language (EFL). Conducted during the first semester of the academic year 2023-2024, the study involved fifty-two students at a private university in Sharjah who were taking an English language course during the implementation of this study. The study used a mixed-methods design to investigate students' attitudes and quantify the findings. Two study tools were employed: a questionnaire and a semi-free interview. Comprising ten items, the questionnaire measured students' attitudes towards using ChatGPT for acquiring writing skills whilst at the same time focusing on higher-order thinking skills as they are related to effective writing. The semi-free interview, on the other hand, included the advantages and drawbacks of utilizing ChatGPT-based essay writing versus self-dependent essay writing. The findings indicated that most subjects confirmed ChatGPT's effectiveness in saving time and ensuring language accuracy. However, the progress one could make in acquiring writing skills and enhancing higher-order thinking abilities could not be seen significant. The paper concludes with recommendations for researchers to consider.

Index Terms—ChatGPT, English as a Foreign Language, essay writing, higher education, higher-order thinking skills

I. INTRODUCTION

The rapid advancements within the field of technology have paved the way for the emergence of various applications which can be implemented for various pedagogical purposes (Suleymanova et al., 2023). The end of the year 2022, for example, witnessed the emergence of a new artificial intelligence-based invention, namely, ChatGPT. Since then, ChatGPT has been attracting more and more users from around the globe. Nowadays, people use ChatGPT for different purposes such as writing (Kasneji et al., 2023). This could be due to several factors, amongst the most prominent of which is the fact that ChatGPT is capable of rapidly generating texts which are not only appropriate but are also error-free in terms of language (Cotton et al., 2023; Shahriar & Hayawi, 2023; Shen et al., 2023). In other words, it is not only the quality of writing that attracts people to use ChatGPT. Equally important could be the time factor as using ChatGPT would save a great deal of time.

Whether ChatGPT can be utilized as an effective pedagogical tool is currently being examined from different perspectives (Atlas, 2023). Concerned specifically with employing ChatGPT for learning English as a Foreign Language (EFL), the current paper seeks to investigate EFL students' attitudes towards using ChatGPT for acquisition of writing skills. Additionally, the paper examines other areas which are also interrelated with foreign language acquisition such as higher-order thinking skills. It should be noted though that this study is excluded to higher-education contexts where English is taught as a general education requirement.

Comprised of seven sections, section two is a literature review of several studies which pertain to the topic this paper discusses. Section three presents the study's aims and questions, section four sheds light on the methodology adopted for research purposes, section five highlights the study's findings, and section six reflects on the findings. The paper concludes with section seven, highlighting the study's limitations and offering suggestions for future research studies.

II. LITERATURE REVIEW

Section two of the current paper presents a number of studies and opinions which pertain to the topic this paper delineates. To start with, ChatGPT is a robust language model the features of which make it possible for generating texts within different domains (Lund & Wang, 2023). ChatGPT can provide interactive experiences, generate texts, amend contents, answer questions, and correct language mistakes (George & George, 2023). The chatbot functions in a conversational way, whilst responding to the user's orders and prompts (David & Leticia, 2023).

The features of ChatGPT have grabbed educationalists' attention due to its potential benefits as regards educational facilities (Rebolledo & Gonzalez, 2023). Functioning as an effective search tool, ChatGPT can not only provide learners with the information they need to collect, but it can also assist them in fostering their research-related competencies.

Introducing ChatGPT to the field of natural language processing is a milestone within this field amongst others (Baskara & Mukarto, 2023). The features ChatGPT has allow for offering applications that are capable of both comprehending and producing natural language. Hong (2023) also argues that ChatGPT can provide instructors with opportunities to enhance the teaching and assessment of a foreign language.

Although ChatGPT can generate language materials for students to learn, it still has its limitations. Generating a text and submitting it for assignment writing purposes is a plagiarized work. This is evident by the many misconduct and cheating cases which instructors have detected (Muskat, 2023). Some institutions and departments in some countries such as the United States and France have imposed a ban on accessing ChatGPT for submission of written projects and assignments as it could encourage learners not to abide by the institution's academic integrity regulations (Reuters, 2023; Zhang, 2023). Moreover, the texts ChatGPT generates may sometimes include inappropriate content, biased information, or misleading ideas (Borji, 2023; Hacker et al., 2023; Sallam, 2023).

To investigate the effectiveness of utilizing ChatGPT for pedagogical purposes, several studies have been conducted recently. For example, Kim et al. (2023) examined several technical aspects of utilizing ChatGPT such as ChatGPT's features and explored its use considering two aspects: course design as regards what to include, and course instruction whilst adopting the method of task-based language instruction. The study took place in Korea where the subject was an intermediate-level ESL student who was required to design a course for business English writing purposes. During the study implementation, Kim et al. (2023) requested ChatGPT to teach Business English writing via methods of task-based language learning. The study's results confirmed ChatGPT's capability of providing a conducive language learning environment.

Hsu et al. (2023) investigated the impact of utilizing artificial intelligence image recognition on English learners' vocabulary acquisition and self-regulation behaviors. The results showed that artificial intelligence image recognition technology assisted learners in improving their vocabulary learning. Zhai (2022) explored ChatGPT's capability of helping students in essay writing. The study's findings indicated the potential of ChatGPT to write essays using a formal register. Additionally, the study proposed utilizing technological advancements for fostering students' critical thinking and creativity skills.

Based on the opinions and studies outlined above, it can be concluded that ChatGPT is an advanced technological tool which can be of use to the educational field. However, there are several drawbacks which using ChatGPT would entail like plagiarism.

III. THE CURRENT STUDY: AIMS AND QUESTIONS

The current study is an endeavor to explore EFL students' attitudes towards utilizing ChatGPT as a pedagogical means for acquiring writing skills, whilst considering related aspects. As mentioned earlier, this study is limited to higher-education contexts where English is taught as a foreign language and where students take English as a university requirement rather than a study major. Interested particularly in enhancement of language acquisition and how using ChatGPT would impact students' progress in writing, this study is also concerned with development of critical thinking skills and improvement of creative abilities as both are related to quality writing outcomes.

This study seeks transparent answers to the research questions below.

Question One: What are EFL students' attitudes towards utilizing ChatGPT for acquiring writing skills in higher-education contexts?

Question Two: What are EFL students' attitudes towards utilizing ChatGPT for acquiring higher-order thinking skills in the English writing classroom?

IV. STUDY METHODOLOGY

This section of the paper reports on the study's methodology. To ensure comprehensiveness and transparency, this section covers the study's design, tools, participants, implementation, and ethics.

A. Design

This research is mainly concerned with measuring attitudes and quantifying the gathered data. To achieve the research aims, the author adopted a mixed-methods research design involving both qualitative and quantitative approaches. According to Hafsa (2019) amongst other researchers, combining quantitative and qualitative methods will enable the researcher to ensure more comprehensive and higher reliable research results.

B. Tools

The researcher implemented two study tools: a five-point Likert scale questionnaire including ten items, and a semi-free interview comprising two questions. To emphasize tool validity, the researcher consulted two colleagues regarding the questionnaire's items prior to distributing the questionnaire and took their suggestions into consideration. It is worth adding that one of the two colleagues works at the same institution where the researcher works and the other at a private university in Dubai, teaching English to non-native speakers as a university education requirement. In other words, the author's two colleagues also have the same categories of students under relatively similar circumstances.

In addition to including statements about the effect of using ChatGPT on writing and higher-order thinking skills, the questionnaire also includes statements about reading and vocabulary as these are interrelated with writing and higher-order thinking skills. Table one presents the study's questionnaire, where value 1 refers to strong disagreement, value 2 disagreement, value 3 being unsure, value 4 agreement, and value 5 strong agreement.

TABLE 1
THE STUDY'S QUESTIONNAIRE

No.	Item	1	2	3	4	5
1.	ChatGPT can assist me in becoming a smarter university student.					
2.	Using ChatGPT to write my university assignments can save the time I usually spend in assignment writing.					
3.	If used as a learning tool, ChatGPT would enable me to significantly improve my reading skills.					
4.	Submitting written assignments which are fully based on using ChatGPT would significantly enhance my knowledge of the subject matter.					
5.	Employing ChatGPT to write my assignments may hinder my creativity in the long run.					
6.	Relying on ChatGPT to write my assignments may negatively impact my critical thinking skills in the long run.					
7.	When applied as a vocabulary resource for assignment writing, using ChatGPT would enable me to build and expand my vocabulary.					
8.	Depending on ChatGPT to write my university assignments may negatively influence my knowledge about sentence structure in the long run.					
9.	Depending on ChatGPT to write my university assignments may negatively influence my knowledge about spelling in the long run.					
10.	Depending on ChatGPT to write my university assignments may negatively influence my knowledge about punctuation in the long run.					

The second study tool, semi-free interview, comprised the two questions below:

Question One: As per your information about and experience with using ChatGPT for essay writing, discuss one major advantage and one major disadvantage in terms of acquiring English writing skills.

Question Two: As per your information about and experience with using ChatGPT for essay writing in English, discuss one main advantage and one main disadvantage in terms of enhancing higher-order thinking skills.

C. Participants

This study comprised fifty-two students, all of whom were taught by the author at the time of implementing the study. The author did not use any criteria for the selection of participants. Instead, she included all the students who she was teaching an English language course while implementing this study. Table two below reflects the participants' demographic data in brief.

TABLE 2
SUBJECTS' DEMOGRAPHIC DATA

University Major	Year of Study	Gender
School of Computing (Software Engineering)	First year	10 (Females) 16 (Males)
School of Computing (Information Technology)	First year	7 (Females) 15 (Males)
School of Computing (Artificial Intelligence)	First year	1 (Female) 3 (Males)

D. Implementation

As stated earlier, this study was implemented at a private university in Sharjah, United Arab Emirates, during the first semester of the academic year 2023-2024. The author commenced study implementation by requesting the subjects to write an essay on one topic without receiving any help from any source, and then to write an essay on the same topic using ChatGPT. The subjects were given three topics to choose from; one of which was narrative, one descriptive, and one argumentative. Writing the two essays took place in the class. Surprisingly though, two students out of the whole sample stated that it was their first time to use ChatGPT for essay writing.

Having written two essays on the same topic, the author stated the aims of the study again and distributed the questionnaire, explaining the questionnaire's items one by one. Responding to the questionnaire also took place in the class. In addition to using a questionnaire as a study tool, the author conducted a semi-free interview, involving the students who conveyed their willingness to be interviewed. The number of the interviewees was sixteen, and the duration of each interview was almost four minutes.

E. Ethics

Whatever the research type, research ethics must be adhered to throughout the process of conducting projects. Failure to consider and maintain research ethics would negatively impact the credibility of the study findings as it is unacceptable to trust a researcher's work if the research approaches lack integrity (Al-Alami, 2015). As far as the current research is concerned, the nature of the research study did not entail any physical harm. Furthermore, the researcher ensured that all the subjects were aware of the study's aims and that their participation in responding to the questionnaire's items was made upon their willingness to participate.

Proceeding to the study's interview, the participants were allowed the option of not being interviewed in case they did not have sufficient time or lacked the interest to take part in the interview. It was also made clear that the subjects' responses, whether to the questionnaire's items or to the interview's questions, would not affect their end-of-semester grades neither positively nor negatively. Therefore, the subjects' participation in this study was safe and flexible.

V. STUDY FINDINGS

This section of the paper delineates the findings the researcher arrived at, covering the two study tools used for research purposes. As explained earlier, the author distributed a questionnaire to a total of fifty-two students. Table three, chart one and chart two below reflect the findings with regard to the questionnaire.

TABLE 3
SUBJECTS' RESPONSES TO THE STUDY'S QUESTIONNAIRE

No.	Item	1	2	3	4	5
1.	ChatGPT can assist me in becoming a smarter university student.	20%	61%	17%	2%	0%
2.	Using ChatGPT to write my university assignments can save the time I usually spend in assignment writing.	0%	0%	2%	65%	33%
3.	If used as a learning tool, ChatGPT would enable me to significantly improve my reading skills.	15%	15%	31%	31%	8%
4.	Submitting written assignments which are fully based on using ChatGPT would significantly enhance my knowledge of the subject matter.	25%	27%	20%	15%	13%
5.	Employing ChatGPT to write my assignments may hinder my creativity in the long run.	0%	12%	18%	52%	18%
6.	Relying on ChatGPT to write my assignments may negatively impact my critical thinking skills in the long run.	0%	5%	21%	56%	18%
7.	When applied as a vocabulary resource for assignment writing, using ChatGPT would enable me to build and expand my vocabulary.	9%	27%	17%	42%	5%
8.	Depending on ChatGPT to write my university assignments may negatively influence my knowledge about sentence structure in the long run.	5%	15%	15%	48%	17%
9.	Depending on ChatGPT to write my university assignments may negatively influence my knowledge about spelling in the long run.	7%	12%	18%	46%	17%
10.	Depending on ChatGPT to write my university assignments may negatively influence my knowledge about punctuation in the long run.	7%	13%	18%	43%	19%

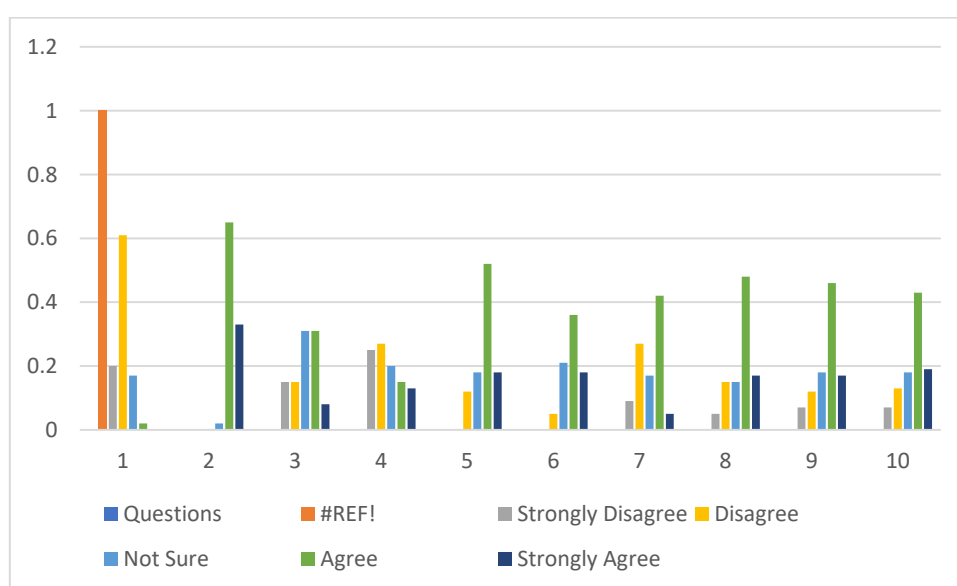


Chart 1. Subjects' Responses to the Study's Questionnaire

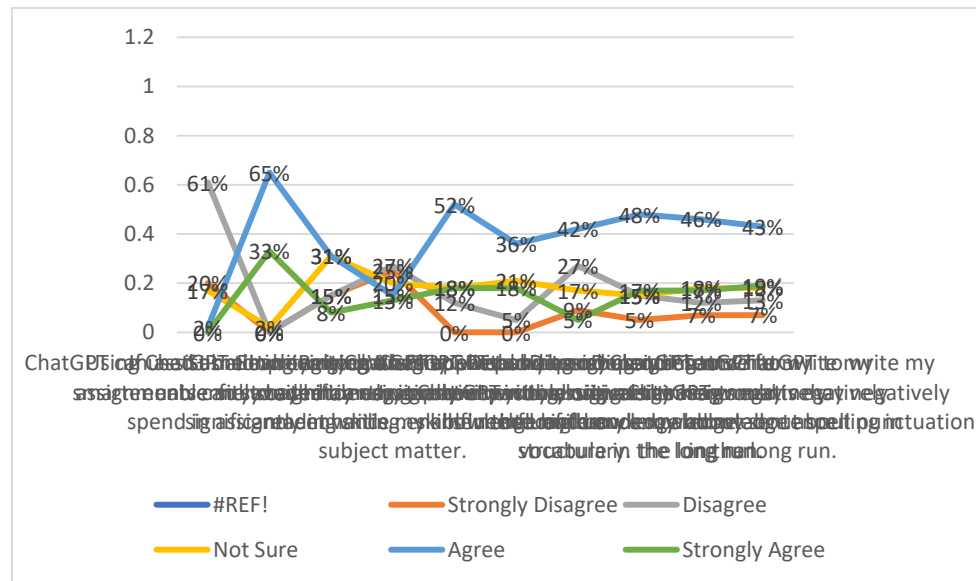


Chart 2. Subjects' Responses to the Study's Questionnaire

Starting with item one on whether ChatGPT can assist students in becoming smarter learners, 0% of the respondents indicated strong agreement, 2% agreement, 61% agreement, and 20% strong agreement, while 17% were not sure. Regarding item two on whether using ChatGPT to write university assignments could save the time spent on assignment writing, 33% of the respondents indicated strong agreement, 65% agreement, 0% disagreement, and 0% strongly disagreement, while 2% were not sure. Concerning item three on whether ChatGPT would enable learners to significantly improve reading skills when used as a learning tool, 8% of the respondents indicated strong agreement, 31% agreement, 15% disagreement, and 15% strong disagreement, while 31% were unsure. Regarding item four on whether submitting written assignments which are fully based on using ChatGPT would significantly enhance knowledge of the subject matter, 13% of the respondents indicated strong agreement, 15% agreement, 27% disagreement, and 25% strongly disagreement, while 20% were unsure. Concerning item five on whether employing ChatGPT to write assignments may hinder a learner's creativity in the long run, 18% of the respondents indicated strong agreement, 52% agreement, 12% disagreement, and 0% strong disagreement, while 18% were unsure. Regarding item six on whether relying on ChatGPT to write assignments may negatively impact a learner's critical thinking skills in the long run, 18% of the respondents indicated strong agreement, 56% agreement, 5% disagreement, and 0% strongly disagreement, while 21% were unsure. Concerning item seven on whether using ChatGPT as a vocabulary resource for writing assignments would build and expand a learner's vocabulary, 5% of the respondents indicated strong agreement, 42% agreement, 27% disagreement, and 9% strong disagreement, while 17% were unsure. Regarding item eight on whether depending on ChatGPT while writing university assignments may negatively influence a learner's knowledge about sentence structure in the long run, 17% of the respondents indicated strong agreement, 48% agreement, 15% disagreement, and 5% strong disagreement, while 15% were unsure. Concerning item nine on whether depending on ChatGPT while writing university assignments may negatively influence a learner's knowledge about spelling in the long run, 17% of the respondents indicated strong agreement, 46% agreement, 12% disagreement, and 7% strongly disagreement, while 18% were not sure. Finally, regarding item ten on whether depending on ChatGPT while writing university assignments may negatively influence a learner's knowledge about punctuation in the long run, 19% of the respondents indicated strong agreement, 43% agreement, 13% disagreement, and 7% strongly disagreement, while 18% were unsure.

Moving to the second study tool, table four and chart three demonstrate the findings regarding subjects' opinions on the main advantages of using ChatGPT in relation to essay writing, table five and chart four present the findings regarding subjects' opinions on the main disadvantages of using ChatGPT for essay writing, table six and chart five demonstrate the findings regarding subjects' opinions on the advantages of self-dependent essay writing, and table seven as well as chart six reflect the findings regarding subjects' opinions on the drawbacks of self-dependent essay writing.

TABLE 4
SUBJECTS' OPINIONS ON THE ADVANTAGES OF CHATGPT FOR ESSAY WRITING

No.	Advantages	Percentage
1.	Saving time.	55%
2.	Ensuring language accuracy in terms of vocabulary, grammar, and spelling.	50%
3.	Facing no difficulty in performing the writing task.	25%
4.	Easy to use.	20%
5.	Offering new ideas.	20%
6.	Clear writing.	10%
7.	Getting to know new words easily.	10%
8.	Presenting structured responses.	10%
9.	Discussing relevant content.	10%
10.	Helping in getting an idea about how to write the essay.	5%

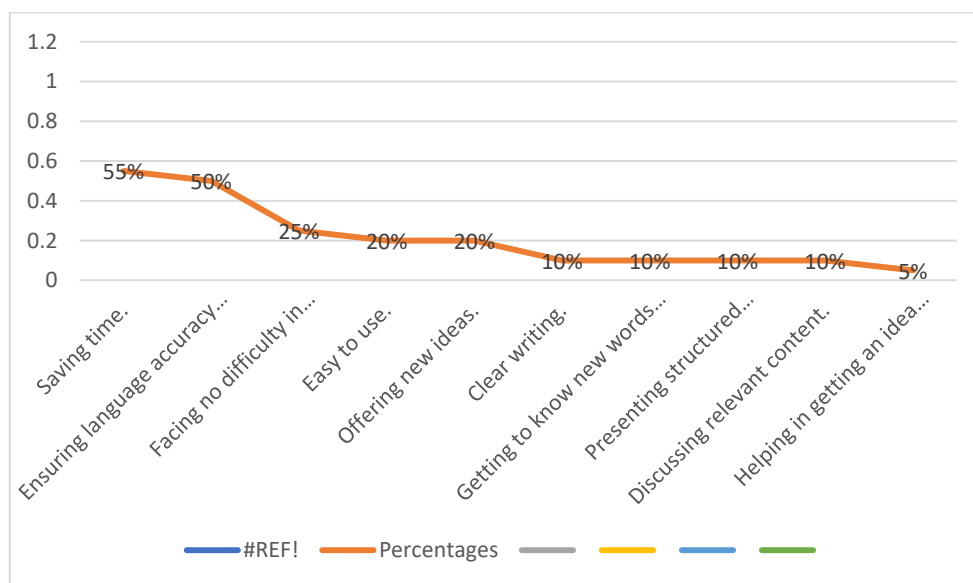


Chart 3. Subjects' Opinions on the Advantages of ChatGPT for Essay Writing

TABLE 5
SUBJECTS' OPINIONS ON THE DISADVANTAGES OF CHATGPT FOR ESSAY WRITING

No.	Drawbacks	Percentage
1.	Submission of plagiarized work.	75%
2.	Gaining less writing experience.	50%
3.	Negatively affecting one's progress in writing skills.	45%
4.	Lacking personal touches and emotions.	45%
5.	Insufficient improvement of creativity.	35%
6.	Inadequate development of thinking skills.	30%
7.	Hindering effective learning practices.	15%
8.	Becoming a lazy learner.	15%
9.	Not learning new things.	10%
10.	Focus and concentration will not be needed while writing.	5%

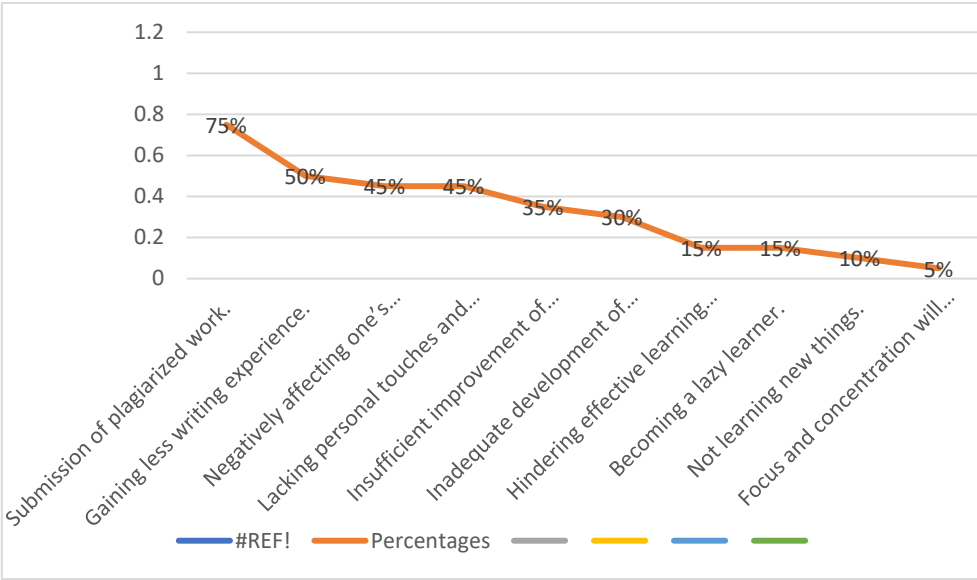


Chart 4. Subjects' Opinions on the Disadvantages of ChatGPT for Essay Writing

TABLE 6
SUBJECTS' OPINIONS ON THE ADVANTAGES OF SELF-DEPENDENT ESSAY WRITING

No.	Advantages	Percentage
1.	Improving writing skills through genuine practices.	65%
2.	Discussing personal ideas, opinions, and touches.	55%
3.	Developing creativity.	50%
4.	Enhancing critical thinking skills.	45%
5.	Portraying authentic ideas.	30%
6.	Gaining confidence in conveying ideas and feelings.	30%
7.	Broadening ways of thinking and imagination.	25%
8.	Encouraging focused learning.	15%
9.	Making mistakes and learning from the mistakes one has made.	10%
10.	Practicing brainstorming while working in groups.	5%

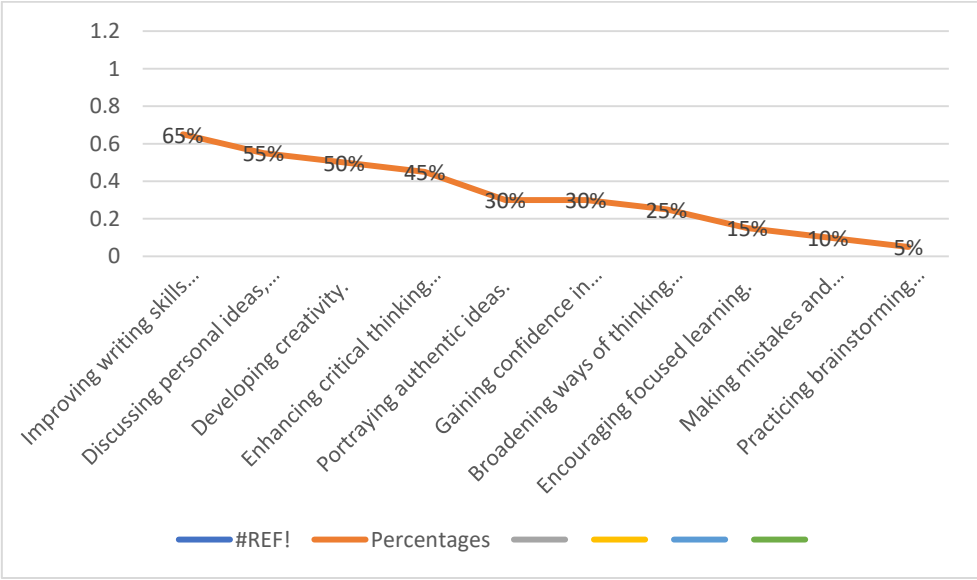


Chart 5. Subjects' Opinions on the Advantages of Self-Dependent Essay Writing

TABLE 7
SUBJECTS' OPINIONS ON THE DISADVANTAGES OF SELF-DEPENDENT ESSAY WRITING

No.	Drawbacks	Percentage
1.	Time-consuming.	70%
2.	Facing challenges and difficulties while performing the writing task.	30%
3.	Lack of language accuracy.	20%
4.	Subjectivity in terms of expressing ideas, feelings, and opinions.	5%

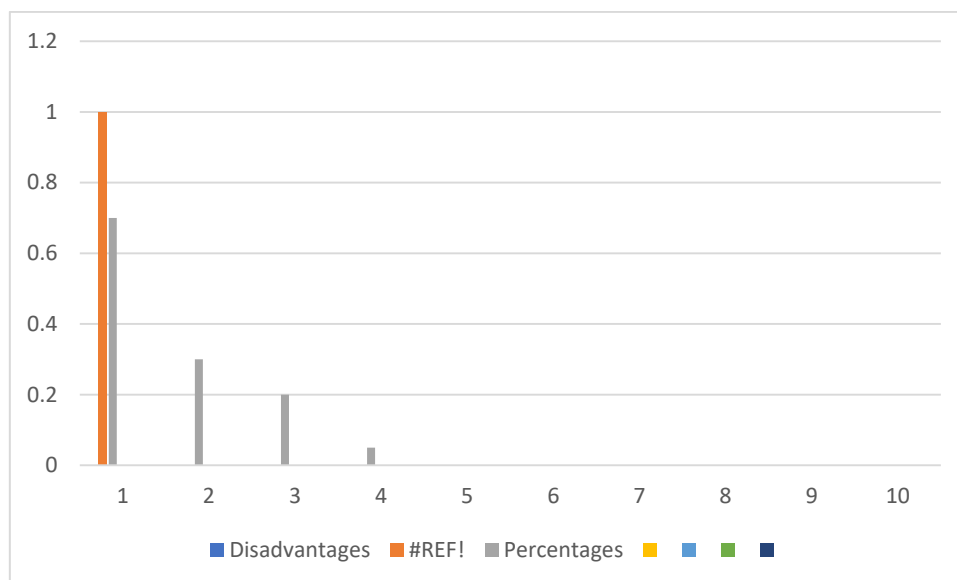


Chart 6. Subjects' Opinions on the Disadvantages of Self-Dependent Essay Writing

Regarding the advantages of using ChatGPT for essay writing, table four and chart five indicate that 55% thought that it would help in saving time, 50% in ensuring language accuracy, 25% in avoiding difficulties while writing, 20% in being easy to use, 20% in offering new ideas, 10% in ensuring clear writing, 10% in getting to know new words, 10% in presenting structured responses, 10% in discussing relevant content, and 5% in getting ideas about how to write the essay. Regarding the disadvantages of using ChatGPT for essay writing, table five and chart six show that 75% expressed their concerns about submitting plagiarized work, 50% about gaining less writing experience, 45% about negatively impacting writing progress, 45% about lacking personal touches and emotions, 35% about having insufficient development of creativity, 30% about having inadequate development of thinking skills, 15% about hindering effective learning practices, 15% about becoming lazy learners, 10% about not learning new things, and 5% about not requiring focus and concentration while writing.

Though different in ideas, using a self-dependent essay writing mode also has several advantages and drawbacks as seen by the subjects. Concerning the advantages, table six and chart seven reveal that 65% believed that it would improve writing, 55% that it would allow for discussing personal content, 50% that it would develop creativity, 45% that it would enhance critical thinking, 30% that it would portray authentic ideas, 30% that it would result in gaining confidence, 25% that it would broaden thinking and imagination, 15% that it would encourage focused learning, 10% that it would allow for learning from mistakes, and 5% that it would encourage brainstorming during group work. On the other hand, table seven and chart eight demonstrate that the drawbacks of self-dependent writing are time-consuming (70%), facing difficulties and challenges while performing the writing task (30%), lack of language accuracy (20%), and subjectivity in terms of expressing ideas; feelings; and opinions (5%).

VI. DISCUSSION OF STUDY FINDINGS

In today's digital world, technological advancements play a significant role in shaping and reshaping humans' life at all levels and areas such as those of industrial, economic, educational, and social aspects amongst others. Though some of these advancements are supportive and practical, others may still entail some drawbacks. Artificial intelligence voice related tools, as an example, offer oral educational inputs which could be difficult for learners to comprehend due to their being fast or long (Chun & Park, 2021).

As highlighted earlier, this paper seeks to explore EFL undergraduate students' attitudes towards using ChatGPT for acquiring writing skills. To adequately address the study's research questions, the researcher designed and distributed a questionnaire to a sample of fifty-two students. The researcher also conducted a semi-free interview involving a sample of sixteen students.

With regard to the first research question on students' attitudes towards utilizing ChatGPT for acquiring writing skills, the findings proved that many respondents thought that ChatGPT might not be effective in enriching their language knowledge which would be required for effective writing. For example, 65% including the values of strongly agree and agree believed that depending on ChatGPT to write university assignments might negatively influence their knowledge about sentence structure in the long run, 63% including the values of strongly agree and agree felt that depending on ChatGPT to write university assignments might negatively influence one's knowledge about spelling in the long run, and 62% including the values of strongly agree and agree stated that depending on ChatGPT to write university assignments might negatively influence one's knowledge about punctuation in the long run. However, it should be

stated that 98% including the values of strongly agree and agree indicated that using ChatGPT to write university assignments could save the time spent on assignment writing.

Besides the specific points about the impact of using ChatGPT on students' writing progress, there are three related statements on using ChatGPT for language learning. First, regarding the point on whether ChatGPT as a learning tool would enable students to significantly improve reading skills, 39% of the responses including the values of strongly agree and agree are positive. Second, regarding the point on whether submitting written assignments which are fully based on using ChatGPT would significantly enhance one's knowledge of the subject matter, 28% of the responses including the values of strongly agree and agree are positive. Third, regarding the point on whether using ChatGPT would enable students to build and expand vocabulary, the agreement percentage including strongly agree and agree values is 47%. Though not low, such percentages may not be seen significant.

With reference to the second research question, it can be concluded from the findings that most subjects (81%) including the values of strongly disagree and disagree did not believe that ChatGPT would assist them in becoming smart university students. In addition, many subjects (74%) including the values of strongly agree and agree believed that employing ChatGPT to write university assignments might hinder one's creativity in the long run, and 70% of the subjects including the values of strongly agree and disagree thought that relying on ChatGPT to write university assignments might negatively impact one's critical thinking skills in the long run.

Relating the discussion to the second study tool, the findings as detailed in section five confirmed that, the main advantages of utilizing ChatGPT for writing purposes in the English classroom within higher-education contexts are: saving time, ensuring language accuracy, facing no difficulty in performing the writing task, being easy to use, offering new ideas, presenting clear writing, getting to know new words easily, offering structured responses, discussing relevant content, and helping in getting an idea about how to write the essay. The disadvantages, on the other hand, are submitting plagiarized work, gaining less writing experience, affecting one's progress in writing skills negatively, lacking personal touches and emotions, improving creativity insufficiently, developing thinking skills inadequately, hindering effective learning practices, becoming a lazy learner, not learning new things, and lacking concentration while writing.

By contrast, the advantages of self-dependent essay writing encompass improving writing skills through genuine practices, discussing personal ideas and opinions, developing creativity, gaining confidence in conveying ideas and feelings, portraying authentic ideas, enhancing critical thinking skills, broadening ways of thinking and imagination, encouraging focused learning, learning from the mistakes one makes while writing, and practicing brainstorming while working in groups. Seen from the drawbacks' perspective, the disadvantages of self-dependent essay writing include time-consuming, facing challenges and difficulties while performing the writing task, lack of language accuracy, and subjectivity in terms of expressing ideas; feelings; and opinions. It should be noted that the advantages and drawbacks of ChatGPT-based writing versus self-dependent based writing are mentioned as per frequency.

VII. CONCLUSION

In conclusion, this study is an attempt to measure students' attitudes towards utilizing ChatGPT for acquiring writing skills at the university level. However, this study is limited to a sample of fifty-two freshmen, all of whom belong to one school (School of Computing) at one private university. Therefore, it is recommended that further research be conducted on the study issues this paper portrays involving larger samples and more categories of university students. Additionally, it is recommended that future studies investigate the potential uses of ChatGPT in a variety of instructional contexts and for different purposes. Conducting empirical studies in which experimental and control groups are involved to compare the impact of utilizing ChatGPT on students' writing skills as opposed to using other tools would be of use and interest. Designing a ChatGPT tool for foreign language students to facilitate and maximize language learning whilst ensuring that using ChatGPT for essay writing assignments maintains academic integrity would also be helpful. On a final note, though ChatGPT can assist students in writing better essays in terms of language accuracy, overall organization, and clear content, it is the author's conviction that ChatGPT needs to be utilized as a supportive means for writing improvement outcomes rather than as a main means for essay writing purposes in EFL higher-education contexts. Ultimately, it is through genuine practice and cognitive involvement that EFL learners in higher education will be able to attain learning targets and achieve quality outcomes.

REFERENCES

- [1] Al-Alami, S. (2015). Research within the Field of Applied Linguistics: Points to Consider. *Theory and Practice in Language Studies*, Vol. 5, 1330-1337.
- [2] Atlas, S. (2023). *ChatGPT for Higher Education and Professional Development: A Guide to Conversational AI*. United States: University of Rhode Island.
- [3] Baskara, FX. R., & Mukarto, FX. (2023). Exploring the Implications of ChatGPT for Language Learning in Higher Education. *Indonesian Journal of Language Teaching and Applied Linguistics*, 7(2), 343-358.
- [4] Borji, A. (2023). A Categorical Archive of ChatGPT Failures. *ArXivPreprint ArXiv*: 2302.03494.
- [5] Chun, H.L. & Park, I.E. (2021). A Systematic Review of AI Technology Use in English Education. *Multiple-Assisted Language Learning*, 24(1), 87-103.

- [6] Cotton, D.R., Cotton, P.A., & Shipway, J.R. (2023). *Chatting and Cheating. Ensuing Academic Integrity in the Era of ChatGPT*. <https://doi.org/10.35542/osf.io/mrz8h>.
- [7] David, B.A., & Leticia, O. A. (2023). Education in the Era of Generative Artificial Intelligence: Understanding the Potential Benefits of ChatGPT in Promoting Teaching and Learning. *SSRN Electronic Journal, January 2023 Issue*, 1-11.
- [8] George, A.S., & Gorge, A.H. (2023). A Review of ChatGPT AI's Impact on Several Business Sectors. *Partners Universal International Innovation Journal*, 1(1), 9-23.
- [9] Hacker, P., Engel, A., & Mauer, M. (2023). Regulating ChatGPT and Other Large Generative AI Models. *ArXiv Preprint ArXiv: 2302.02337*.
- [10] Hafsa, N.E. (2019). Mixed Methods Research. *Journal of Literature, Languages and Linguistics*, Vol. 58, 45-49.
- [11] Hong, W.C.H. (2023). The Impact of ChatGPT on Foreign Language Teaching and Learning: Opportunities in Education and Research. *Journal of Educational Technology and Innovation*, 5(1), 37-45.
- [12] Hsu, T.C., Chang, C., & Jen, T.H. (2023). Artificial Intelligence Image Recognition Using Self-Regulation Learning Strategies: Effects on Vocabulary Acquisition, Learning Anxiety, and Learning Behaviors of English Language Learners. *Interactive Learning Environments*, Vol. 31, 1-19.
- [13] Kasneci, E., Sebler, K., Kuchemann, S., Bannert, M., Dementieva, D. Fischer, F., Gasser, U., Groh, G., Gunnemann, S., & Hullermeier, E. (2023). *ChatGPT for Good? On Opportunities and Challenges of Large Language Models for Education*. <http://doi.org/10.35542/osf.io/5er8f>.
- [14] Kim, S., Shim, J., & Shim, J. (2023). A Study on the Utilization of OpenAI ChatGPT as a Second Language Learning Tool. *Journal of Multimedia Information System*, 10(1), 79-78.
- [15] Lund, B.D., & Wang, T. (2023). Chatting about ChatGPT: How May AI and GPT Impact Academia and Libraries? *Library Hi Tech News*. <http://doi.org/10.1108/LHTN-01-2023-0009>
- [16] Muskat, E. (2023, January). *Students Caught Cheating Using AI on Final; Academic Integrity Policy Updated – The Commentator*. <http://yucommentator.org/2023/01/students-caught-cheating-using-ai-on-final-academic-integrity-policy-updated/> Retrieved November 18, 2023.
- [17] Rebolledo, R. & Gonzalez, A.F. (2023). Exploring the Benefits and Challenges of AI-Language Learning Tools. *International Journal of Social Sciences and Humanities Invention*, 10(1), 7569-7576.
- [18] Reuters. (2023, January 27). *Top French University Bans Use of ChatGPT to Prevent Plagiarism*. <https://www.reuters.com/technology/top-french-university-bans-use-chatgpt-prevent-plagiarism-2023-01-27>. Retrieved February 1, 2023.
- [19] Risang, FX., & Mukarto, FX. (2023). Exploring the Implications of ChatGPT for Language Learning in Higher Education. *Indonesian Journal of English Language Teaching and Applied Linguistics*, 7(2), 343-358.
- [20] Sallam, M. (2023). The Utility of ChatGPT as an Example of Large Language Models in Healthcare Education, Research, and Practice: Systematic Review on the Future Perspectives and Potential Limitations. *MedRxiv*, 2023.02.19.23286155.
- [21] Shahriar, S., & Hayawi, K. (2023). Let's Have a Chat! A Conversation with ChatGPT: Technology, Applications, and Limitations. *ArXiv Preprint ArXiv: 2302.13817*.
- [22] Shen, Y., Heacock, L., Elias, J., Hentel, K.D., Reig, B., Shih, G., & Moy, L. (2023). *ChatGPT and Other Large Language Models Are Double-Edged Swords*. *Radiology* (p. 230163). DOI:10.1148/radiol.230163.
- [23] Suleymanova, S., Gawanmeh, A., & Al-Alami, S. (2023). A comparative study for mental health challenges of students: Online versus on-campus education. *Contemporary Educational Technology*, 15(3), 1-11.
- [24] Zhai, X. (2022). ChatGPT User Experience: Implications for Education. *SSRN 4312418*.
- [25] Zhang, B. (2023). *Preparing Educators and Students for ChatGPT and AI Technology in Higher Education: Benefits, Limitations, Strategies, and Implications of ChatGPT & AI Technologies*. United States of America: University of Hartford, 1-13. DOI: 10.13140/RG.2.2.32105.98404.

Suhair Al-Alami holds a PhD in English Applied Linguistics from Aston University, United Kingdom. Al-Alami currently works as an English language faculty member in the Department of General Education at Skyline University College Sharjah. Al-Alami has contributed a wide range of research papers to various international journals, served as a co-editor of nine publications, reviewed many articles for refereed journals, and presented research papers at numerous conferences. Additionally, she has received awards in recognition of her teaching, research, professional development, and community service activities. Her research interests cover fiction, stylistics, translation of literary texts, language acquisition, and teaching methodologies.

Pronunciation Pedagogy Revisited: Voices From Omani B. Ed. Students

Konstantinos M. Pitychoutis

Liberal Arts Department, American University of the Middle East, Egaila, Kuwait

Abstract—This article investigates the attitudes of Omani B. Ed. students towards various aspects of pronunciation pedagogy. Employing a mixed-methods approach, the study captures students' preferences for pronunciation instruction methods, their attitudes towards different English accents, the role of technology in pronunciation learning, and the influence of extracurricular exposure to English. The findings reveal a strong preference for instructor-led methodologies, the use of technology, and a focus on communicative competence. Additionally, the study highlights a preference for Received Pronunciation among students, while views on American and International accents are polarised, reflecting the complex interplay of cultural, educational, and personal factors in accent choice. The research also underscores the significant role of extracurricular exposure to English in shaping students' attitudes towards pronunciation learning and correction. The study's insights have profound implications for curriculum design and teaching methodologies in English language teaching in Oman, emphasising the need for pedagogical approaches that are responsive to students' diverse linguistic backgrounds and experiences.

Index Terms—pronunciation pedagogy, Omani educational context, students' attitudes, English language teaching, extracurricular English exposure

I. INTRODUCTION

The mastery of English pronunciation is a crucial aspect of language acquisition, particularly in non-native English-speaking contexts like Oman. This study delves into the attitudes of Omani Bachelor of Education (B. Ed.) students towards various facets of pronunciation pedagogy. Understanding these attitudes is pivotal for designing effective teaching strategies that resonate with the learners' perspectives and needs.

The relevance of pronunciation in language learning has been increasingly recognised due to its direct impact on communicative competence. In the Omani context, where English is a crucial tool for global engagement, how students teach and perceive pronunciation can significantly influence their overall language proficiency. This research aims to bridge the gap between students' needs and current pedagogical practices, providing insights for more responsive and effective pronunciation instruction.

In exploring the attitudes of Omani B. Ed. students, this study considers several vital aspects: students' preferences for pronunciation instruction methods, their attitudes towards different English accents, the role of technology in pronunciation learning, and the influence of extracurricular exposure to English. By examining these dimensions, the study sheds light on how students perceive and interact with the components of pronunciation pedagogy.

Given the global status of English and its variations, the preference for specific accents (such as Received Pronunciation or American English) among Omani students provides valuable insights into their linguistic aspirations and cultural influences. Additionally, the increasing integration of technology in education prompts an examination of how digital tools reshape students' learning experiences in pronunciation.

Furthermore, the impact of extracurricular exposure to English – through media, social interactions, and self-study – is also a critical factor. This external engagement with the language can significantly affect students' attitudes towards pronunciation learning in formal educational settings.

This study employs a mixed-methods approach, combining quantitative survey data with qualitative insights from open-ended responses. Doing so aims to capture a comprehensive view of the students' perspectives, allowing for a nuanced understanding of their attitudes and preferences in pronunciation learning.

A. Research Aim

The primary aim of this study is to explore and understand the attitudes of Omani Bachelor of Education (B. Ed.) students towards various aspects of pronunciation pedagogy. This includes their preferences for instructional methods, attitudes towards different English accents, perceptions of the role of technology in pronunciation learning, and the influence of extracurricular English exposure on their learning process. By achieving this aim, the study seeks to provide insights that can inform and enhance pronunciation teaching practices in Omani educational contexts.

B. Research Questions

1. What are Omani B. Ed. students' attitudes towards different pronunciation instruction methods? This question aims to investigate students' preferences for specific instructional strategies, such as explicit teaching, communicative

methods, or technology-based approaches, in the context of pronunciation learning.

2. How do Omani B. Ed. students perceive different English accents in terms of their preference and appropriateness as models for pronunciation teaching? This question explores students' preferences for accents such as Received Pronunciation (RP), American English, or other international accents and their reasons for these preferences.

3. How does extracurricular exposure to English influence Omani B. Ed. students' attitudes towards pronunciation learning and correction? This question examines the correlation between students' engagement with English outside the formal classroom setting (through media, social interactions, and self-study) and their attitudes towards pronunciation learning and correction in academic settings.

Finally, this research contributes to the field of English language teaching in Oman by highlighting the perspectives of B. Ed. students on pronunciation pedagogy. The findings offer valuable implications for curriculum design, teaching methodologies, and the incorporation of technology in pronunciation instruction. Ultimately, this study seeks to enhance the effectiveness of pronunciation teaching in Omani universities, aligning pedagogical approaches with the needs and preferences of the learners.

II. LITERATURE REVIEW

University students' attitudes toward pronunciation pedagogy are crucial in shaping their language learning experiences. This literature review aims to provide a comprehensive understanding of the various factors influencing students' attitudes towards pronunciation teaching and learning, including corrective feedback, pronunciation course design, technology integration, practice of pronunciation, and preferred pronunciation accents.

A. *The Importance of Student Attitudes in Pronunciation Learning*

Derwing and Munro (2005) emphasised the importance of greater collaboration between researchers and practitioners to undertake more classroom-relevant research, highlighting the need for research-based approaches to pronunciation teaching. This underscores the significance of aligning pedagogical practices with empirical evidence to address students' attitudes effectively (Derwing & Munro, 2005). In the context of Asian varieties of English, Tokumoto and Shibata (2011) investigated university students' accent perception, shedding light on attitudes towards pronunciation and preference for specific accents. Understanding students' preferences for particular accents is essential for designing pronunciation courses that cater to their linguistic needs and aspirations (Tokumoto & Shibata, 2011).

B. *Student Perceptions and Attitudes Toward English Accents*

Dalton-Puffer et al. (1997) highlighted the necessity of considering students' reactions to different accents presented as models, emphasising the potential impact of negative feelings towards specific pronunciations on accent attainment. This underscores the importance of addressing students' attitudes and perceptions to create a supportive learning environment for pronunciation instruction (Dalton-Puffer et al., 1997). More specifically, Buckingham (2014) investigated the accent preferences and perceptions of nativeness among Omani students. The study's objective was to determine how students' beliefs about the native English speaker status of instructors influence their assessments of the teacher's accent as an appropriate model for pronunciation. Buckingham (2014) provided valuable insights into the influence of perceived nativeness on students' attitudes towards pronunciation pedagogy.

C. *Technology Integration in Pronunciation Pedagogy*

Integrating technology in pronunciation teaching has been a subject of interest. Haryadi and Aprianoto (2020) studied the effects of implementing an English Pronunciation application in a pronunciation course at Mandalika University of Education (UNDIKMA). Their goal was to enhance student engagement and independent learning. The research offers significant findings regarding how integrating technology can influence students' perspectives on learning pronunciation. Haryadi and Aprianoto (2020) investigated the impact of integrating an English Pronunciation app on students' participation and self-learning, highlighting the potential benefits of technology-assisted pronunciation pedagogy. Additionally, using songs and podcasts as facilitators for pronunciation enhancement has been explored, indicating their potential to influence students' attitudes and engagement with pronunciation learning (Rais et al., 2020; Al-Harbi, 2019).

The implementation of innovative approaches, such as video dubbing and online accent reduction software, has also been explored. Anh (2023) investigated the implementation of video dubbing in enhancing students' pronunciation, offering insights into the potential benefits of incorporating multimedia tools in pronunciation teaching. Additionally, Asmawati and Fitriningsih (2021) studied the implementation of online accent-reduction software, providing valuable insights into the potential impact of technology on improving students' pronunciation skills (Anh, 2023; Asmawati & Fitriningsih, 2021). Additionally, Ghounane (2019) examined the perspectives of second-year EFL students at Dr. Moulay Tahar University regarding acquiring English pronunciation through Mobile Assisted Language Learning. This investigation centred on the application of mobile technology in pronunciation education, potentially providing useful information about Omani students' attitudes towards technology-supported pronunciation teaching methods. AbuSeileek (2007) demonstrated that computer-aided instruction in pronunciation enhances learners' skills in producing and recognising accurate stress patterns and promotes a favourable disposition towards pronunciation teaching and related activities. Finally, Bin-Hady and Hazaea (2021) conducted a correlational study on EFL students' achievement and

attitudes towards flipped pronunciation classes in Yemen. The study provides insights into EFL students' attitudes towards innovative pronunciation pedagogy, which could be relevant to understanding Omani students' attitudes towards non-traditional pronunciation teaching methods. These studies offer valuable insights into students' attitudes towards pronunciation pedagogy, technology integration, and innovative teaching methods.

D. Student Expectations and Experiences in Pronunciation Instruction

Nowacka (2022) studied university students' preferences and expectations in an English phonetics course, providing insights into students' attitudes towards pronunciation instruction and shedding light on their expectations and priorities in phonetic learning. Understanding students' preferences and expectations is crucial for designing effective pronunciation courses that align with their learning goals (Nowacka, 2022). Moreover, Kang (2014) examined learners' perceptions towards pronunciation instruction in different circles of World Englishes, highlighting dissatisfaction with current pronunciation curricula due to confusion about various models and teachers' treatment of accent variation. This study emphasises the need to address students' dissatisfaction and confusion in pronunciation teaching to enhance their attitudes towards pronunciation pedagogy (Kang, 2014).

E. Cognitive and Affective Factors in Pronunciation Instruction

Burri et al. (2017) underscored the need to engage with students' preconceived notions and knowledge in pronunciation teaching to facilitate cognitive development and better prepare pronunciation educators. This highlights the significance of addressing students' cognitive and affective factors in pronunciation instruction (Burri et al., 2017). Research has shown that students' attitudes and concerns about achieving appropriate pronunciation are closely related to their ability to pronounce words accurately (Lord, 2008). Students and lecturers have also observed differences in attitudes towards pronunciation, highlighting the importance of understanding these varying perspectives in the teaching and learning process (Dağtan, 2020).

In particular, Dolmaci and Kiliç (2021) advised instructors that university students' perspectives on their foreign language pronunciation abilities should be examined to assess their pronunciation teaching needs and guide the development of the curriculum. AlAamri (2013) examined the impact of cultural and linguistic challenges on pronunciation teaching in an Omani tertiary education context, emphasising the need to address the students' attitudes and behaviour in the classroom and stressing the use of proper material and teaching methods to address the students' attitudes and behaviours. In the same vein, the influence of learning styles on pronunciation ability has been considered, highlighting the importance of tailoring teaching techniques to accommodate diverse learning preferences (Mu'in et al., 2017). Factors such as target language exposure and the inclusion of pronunciation in language curricula have also been identified as influential in shaping students' attitudes and perceptions of pronunciation learning (Mukmin & Banet, 2022; Moedjito, 2016).

F. Factors Affecting Students' Attitudes Toward Learning and Teaching Pronunciation

To understand the factors influencing students' attitudes toward learning and teaching pronunciation, it is essential to consider various aspects contributing to this complex process. Several studies have shed light on the multifaceted nature of pronunciation learning, highlighting the significance of factors such as self-efficacy, attitudes, motivation, age, exposure to the target language, individual differences, and the use of innovative teaching methods.

Sardegna et al. (2017) emphasised the role of perceived practical and linguistic values related to pronunciation learning in influencing students' intentional behaviour to improve their pronunciation skills. This underscores the importance of students' attitudes and beliefs in shaping their approach to pronunciation learning. Similarly, Lord (2008) highlighted the significant relationship between students' attitudes and their concern for achieving appropriate pronunciation, indicating that attitudes play a crucial role in pronunciation accuracy.

Additionally, Mukmin and Banet (2022) determined that age, attitude, motivation, exposure to the target language, and individual effort are key elements affecting students' English pronunciation. This comprehensive view underscores the multifaceted nature of pronunciation learning, encompassing psychological, sociological, and individual factors. Likewise, Ikhsan (2017) emphasised the influence of factors such as age, prior pronunciation instruction, aptitude, learner attitude, and motivation on students' pronunciation mastery, further highlighting the diverse range of factors at play.

The significance of learners' attitudes and perceptions was also underscored by Cenoz and Lecumberri (1999), who discovered that learners view interaction with native speakers and aural training as significant elements in mastering pronunciation. This highlights the importance of learners' attitudes toward different learning experiences and strategies in pronunciation learning. Furthermore, the influence of individual differences, such as intelligence, aptitude, personality, motivation, and learning style, on pronunciation learning was highlighted by Mu'in et al. (2017). This suggests that a personalised approach considering individual differences is crucial in addressing students' attitudes toward pronunciation learning.

G. Impact of Extracurricular Exposure to English

The impact of exposure to English outside the classroom is a crucial factor in the language proficiency and communication skills of students, particularly in tertiary education. Several studies have shed light on the significance

of exposure to English outside the classroom and its influence on students' language proficiency, willingness to communicate, and overall language learning experience. Erling et al. (2020) offered perspectives on how teachers' convictions and methodologies influence student achievements in English language learning. The research stressed the connection between teachers' perceptions of students' opportunities to engage with English outside school and the reduced English proficiency observed in middle schools. Bala (2020) underscored the beneficial link between students' participation in English language activities beyond the classroom and their linguistic proficiency. The research indicated that activities like watching films and videos and interacting with English materials online positively affect students' language abilities. This emphasises the significance of varied and stimulating extracurricular language activities in improving students' English language competencies. Furthermore, Fahim and Dhamotharan (2016) emphasised the challenges faced by students exposed to English for 11 years in primary and secondary schools, indicating that despite the lengthy exposure, students still encountered difficulties related to language proficiency. This suggests that the quality and nature of exposure to English outside the classroom are crucial factors that influence language learning outcomes. Maqsood et al. (2020) emphasised the limited opportunities for students in non-English speaking countries to practice English outside the classroom. This highlights the need for innovative approaches and practices that facilitate exposure to English in various contexts beyond traditional classroom settings. Lastly, Youssef (2016) highlighted the role of early exposure to the English language and family support in shaping students' views and competency in English. This underscores the long-term impact of exposure to English outside the classroom, starting from an early age and within the family environment.

In exploring practices of keeping in touch with English outside the classroom, it is essential to consider innovative approaches such as integrating English into daily activities, leveraging technology for language practice, and creating opportunities for authentic language use. For example, integrating English into entertainment activities, utilising language learning apps, and promoting English language clubs and events can provide students with diverse and engaging opportunities to practice English outside the classroom. It also accentuates the importance of fostering an environment that promotes and facilitates exposure to English beyond the classroom setting.

Additionally, Smit (2012) shed light on the unique aspects of tertiary education taught in English and the possibility of conceptualising English as a lingua franca (ELF) in the classroom context. This perspective underscores the significance of establishing a language-enriched setting in tertiary education, where English serves not just as a subject of study but also as a means of communication and interaction.

H. Teachers' Attitudes Toward Pronunciation Pedagogy

The attitudes of English as a Foreign Language (EFL) teachers toward pronunciation pedagogy play a crucial role in shaping students' language learning experiences. Several studies have explored the beliefs, practices, and challenges EFL teachers face in pronunciation pedagogy, shedding light on the factors influencing their attitudes and the implications for language instruction. Buss (2016) studied Brazilian EFL teachers' beliefs and practices regarding pronunciation pedagogy. The findings revealed that while the teachers expressed insecurity about their teaching and desired more training in pronunciation pedagogy, their attitudes and practices significantly impacted pronunciation instruction quality. This underscores the importance of addressing teachers' training needs and enhancing their confidence in pronunciation pedagogy to improve language instruction. Tran and Nguyen (2020) focused on EFL teachers' beliefs and practices of teaching pronunciation in a Vietnamese setting. The study emphasised the significance of pronunciation pedagogy and highlighted the need to address the challenges teachers face in effectively teaching pronunciation, as well as the importance of understanding the specific contextual factors that influence teachers' attitudes and practices in pronunciation instruction.

Nguyen and Newton (2020) carried out a case study in Vietnam, which disclosed that even EFL teachers who are confident in their teaching capabilities showed a significant interest in having additional training opportunities in the field of pronunciation teaching methods. This highlights the ongoing need for professional development and support to enhance teachers' pedagogical knowledge and skills in pronunciation instruction.

Furthermore, Nguyen et al. (2021) explored teachers' and learners' beliefs about pronunciation instruction in tertiary EFL education. The study demonstrated that targeted professional learning led to changes in teachers' beliefs about pronunciation teaching, indicating the potential for professional development to influence teachers' attitudes and practices in pronunciation pedagogy positively. Burri and Baker (2019) emphasised the influence of a postgraduate course in pronunciation teaching on aiding student teachers in emphasising the value of different varieties of English and comprehending that the instructional goal is intelligibility, not mimicking native pronunciation. This suggests that targeted training and professional development programs can significantly influence teachers' attitudes and practices in pronunciation instruction. Lastly, Luan (2022) examined EFL teachers' cognitions and classroom practices in pronunciation instruction in Vietnamese tertiary settings. The findings revealed positive attitudes among teachers toward pronunciation teaching for communicative purposes, emphasising the importance of aligning pedagogical practices with communicative language learning goals.

In conclusion, this literature review explores university students' attitudes towards pronunciation pedagogy, examining factors such as corrective feedback, course design, technology integration, accent preferences, and innovative teaching methods. It underscores the importance of aligning pedagogical practices with empirical evidence and highlights the impact of technology, extracurricular exposure to English, and individual differences on students'

pronunciation learning experiences. Additionally, the review addresses teachers' attitudes, emphasising the need for their professional development to enhance pronunciation instruction. Overall, it provides a comprehensive understanding of the complex factors shaping students' attitudes and experiences in pronunciation learning, offering valuable insights for effective course design and teaching practices.

III. METHODOLOGY

A. Participants

A convenience sample of 100 students of the Bachelor of Education programme participated in this study. The participants were predominantly females (89%) who used to stay in the university's dormitories. The students are in their early 20s (age $M=20.06$), and all the participants are from various governorates of the Sultanate of Oman, the majority of them from Muscat. The students are in their first year of studies of the four-year B. Ed. programme. Before joining the bachelor programme, students attended the preparatory year studies and took English courses. The participants reported that they have been studying English since elementary school ($M= 8.37$ years old), and 93% of them attended public schools, whereas only 6% attended private schools. Most participants reported that their parents do not speak English (51% reported that their fathers do not know English, and 79% reported that their mothers do not know English).

B. Research Instrument

The questionnaire used in this study was slightly adapted from Pawlak (2013). The researcher asked all the course instructors to review the Pawlak (2013) questionnaire and refine statements they thought were crucial in the particular context. The adapted questionnaire had 34 5-point Likert scale statements from 5= strongly agree, to 1= strongly disagree. The statements were about students' attitudes toward pronunciation in general, optimal instruction of pronunciation: error correction, classroom activities, instructors' practices, use of technology, and varieties of English pronunciation. Apart from the 34 Likert scale statements, two open-ended questions were added to find the students' contact with English outside the class.

The questionnaire was translated into Arabic and reviewed by two faculty members specialising in Arabic-English translation. In statement 11, the pronunciation features, e.g. "vowels, consonants, stress, etc." were not translated into Arabic, as students knew these terms only in English. The Arabic version of the questionnaire was piloted by five students who had taken the pronunciation course the previous semester. These five students were briefly interviewed after they piloted the questionnaire to highlight potential problems. The Cronbach's alpha, for internal reliability, was satisfactory. A back-translation from Arabic to English was done to ensure that the Arabic version was accurate to the original English version. The Arabic version of the questionnaire was distributed to the participants to minimise potential problems with English, as the participants were in their first year.

C. Data Collection

The pronunciation course instructors explained the study's goals and informed the participants that the questionnaire was optional and anonymous. Of 137 students in the pronunciation course, 102 agreed to participate and complete the questionnaire. These 102 students received the questionnaire, read the cover page that explained the study's goals and signed the consent form. The students needed approximately 15 minutes to complete the questionnaire and return it to their instructors.

D. Data Analysis

After the questionnaires were handed to the researcher, a careful analysis took place to verify that the participants had answered the statements. The researcher removed two questionnaires as the participants had answered less than 20% of the statements. Thus, the final number of questionnaires used in this study was 100. Apple's Numbers was used for the statistical analysis of the 34 Likert-scale statements; more specifically, percentages, mean scores, and standard deviations for each statement were calculated. For the two open-ended questions, Atlas.ti (8th ed) was used to find the major themes.

The findings will include one Likert-scale statement with a high standard deviation ($SD>1.40$). However, it shows that the participants' opinions were polarised, and definite conclusions are difficult to be drawn.

IV. RESULTS

The section below presents the quantitative data of the questionnaires. It is followed by the qualitative data and the comparative analysis of the students' practices to keep in touch with English outside the university compared to their pronunciation attitudes.

Quantitative results: Students' attitudes toward pronunciation pedagogy

A. General Attitudes Towards Pronunciation Teaching

The study revealed a predominantly positive attitude towards pronunciation teaching among Omani B. Ed. students (Table 1). With a mean (M) score of 4.39, students expressed a keen interest in learning English pronunciation. They

firmly believed that mastering pronunciation would enhance their overall English language competency ($M=4.33$) and improve listening comprehension ($M=4.44$). Additionally, students recognised the value of pronunciation in enhancing their communicative abilities ($M=4.31$). However, there was a comparatively lower confidence ($M=3.83$) in the belief that good learners possess extensive knowledge about pronunciation.

TABLE 1
STUDENTS' ATTITUDES TOWARD PRONUNCIATION INSTRUCTION

No	Statement	M	SD
1	Knowing a lot about pronunciation helps my listening comprehension.	4.44	0.79
2	I believe that my English will improve quickly if I learn and practice pronunciation.	4.33	0.76
6	I like learning English pronunciation.	4.39	0.84
9	Good learners know a lot about pronunciation.	3.83	1.00
10	Knowing pronunciation helps communication in English.	4.31	0.82

B. Attitudes Towards Error Correction in Pronunciation Classes

The participants underscored the importance of error correction in pronunciation learning (Table 2). A high preference was shown for instructors to correct students' pronunciation errors ($M=4.69$), with a significant inclination towards immediate correction ($M=4.34$) as opposed to delayed correction post-activity ($M=3.77$). Students were more receptive to instructor feedback ($M=4.53$) than peers ($M=2.26$). Ambiguity was observed regarding the correction of only those pronunciation mistakes that hinder communication ($M=3.19$).

TABLE 2
STUDENTS' ATTITUDES TOWARD ERROR CORRECTION

No	Statement	M	SD
3	Instructors should correct students when they make pronunciation errors in class.	4.69	0.54
4	When I make pronunciation errors in speaking, I like my instructor to correct them.	4.53	0.73
21	I like the instructor to correct my pronunciation mistakes as soon as I make them.	4.34	0.92
22	I like the instructor to correct my pronunciation mistakes after an activity is completed.	3.77	1.29
23	I prefer to be corrected by other students rather than the instructor.	2.26	1.18
24	I believe the instructor should only correct errors which impede communication.	3.19	1.28

C. Students' Perspectives on Pronunciation Course Design

Responses (Table 3) indicated a positive attitude towards the inclusion of terminology in pronunciation teaching ($M=4.43$). Authentic communication as a tool for learning pronunciation features received considerable favour ($M=4.37$), alongside the preference for a predefined list of features to be taught in the course ($M=4.31$). Technology integration, such as mobile applications, was also viewed positively ($M=4.18$).

TABLE 3
STUDENTS' ATTITUDES TOWARD THE PRONUNCIATION COURSE DESIGN

No	Statement	M	SD
14	I believe that the use of terminology is important in teaching pronunciation.	4.43	0.85
20	I like to listen to authentic communication in order to learn pronunciation.	4.37	0.82
25	I like to get a list of pronunciation features that will be taught in a course.	4.31	0.89
26	I like to use pronunciation applications on my phone (e.g. Sounds).	4.18	0.94

D. Preferred English Accents

A preference for Received Pronunciation ($M=4.19$) was prominent among the participants (Table 4). However, when comparing Received Pronunciation with the Standard American Accent, views were polarised ($M=3.37$, $SD=1.40$). Similarly, attitudes were divided regarding exposure to an international accent ($M=3.02$, $SD=1.64$).

TABLE 4
STUDENTS' ATTITUDES TOWARD PREFERRED ACCENT

No	Statement	M	SD
31	The British accent of English is beautiful.	4.19	0.90
32	I prefer the American accent of English to the British accent.	3.37	1.40
33	The British accent of English is formal.	3.96	1.03
34	I prefer to learn an international accent.	3.02	1.64

E. Views on Pronunciation Lesson Design

Participants (Table 5) expressed a preference for a clear understanding of specific pronunciation features they were learning ($M=4.34$), followed by an explanation and practice in communicative activities ($M=4.57$). A lesser degree of certainty was noted regarding the importance of intonation and rhythm over individual sounds ($M=3.77$).

TABLE 5
STUDENTS' ATTITUDES TOWARD THE DESIGN OF THE PRONUNCIATION LESSON

No	Statement	M	SD
18	I believe that intonation and rhythm are more important than individual sounds.	3.77	1.01
27	I like to know exactly which pronunciation feature I am learning.	4.34	0.82
28	I like learning pronunciation by communicating in English.	4.34	0.81
29	I like learning pronunciation by seeing the explanation, and then practicing.	4.57	0.66
30	I prefer to learn pronunciation as I work on different skills and activities.	4.10	0.84

F. Preferred Methods for Introducing New Pronunciation Features

As can be seen in Table 6, the study found a strong preference for instructors to explain pronunciation features ($M=4.46$) and utilise demonstrations ($M=4.22$). There was less enthusiasm for discovering pronunciation rules independently ($M=3.56$) or collaboratively ($M=3.67$). The introduction of new features through spoken texts was moderately favoured ($M=4.00$), with divided opinions on the use of the mother tongue in class for explaining new features ($M=3.58$, $SD=1.34$).

TABLE 6
STUDENTS' ATTITUDES TOWARD OPTIMAL WAYS FOR THE INTRODUCTION OF PRONUNCIATION FEATURES

No	Statement	M	SD
5	I like to discover pronunciation rules by myself.	3.56	0.92
7	It is best to discover pronunciation rules together with other students.	3.67	1.07
8	I prefer to be given spoken texts with new pronunciation features rather than rules.	4.00	1.07
11	It is best when the instructor explains pronunciation features (vowels, consonants, stress, etc).	4.46	0.76
12	I find it helpful when the instructor uses my mother tongue to explain pronunciation.	3.58	1.34
17	It helps me when instructors use demonstration in teaching pronunciation (e.g. charts).	4.22	1.00

G. Attitudes Towards Practicing Pronunciation Features

A preference emerged, as can be seen in Table 7, for beginning practice with individual sounds ($M=4.22$) and discrete-point exercises ($M=4.12$) before engaging in communicative activities ($M=4.37$). The findings suggest a solid eagerness to apply pronunciation features in meaningful communication ($M=4.05$).

TABLE 7
STUDENTS' ATTITUDES TOWARD OPTIMAL WAYS TO PRACTICE PRONUNCIATION FEATURES

No	Statement	M	SD
13	I prefer to first understand how a sound is made before I have to produce it.	4.37	0.77
15	I believe it is important to use pronunciation features in communication.	4.05	0.99
16	I prefer to practice individual sounds before I use them in speech.	4.22	0.92
19	Doing typical exercises (e.g. minimal pairs) is the best way to learn pronunciation.	4.12	0.96

This results section provides a comprehensive overview of the attitudes and preferences of Omani B. Ed. students regarding various aspects of pronunciation learning and teaching. It effectively captures the nuances of their perceptions and practices in this domain.

H. Qualitative Results: Contact With English Outside the Classroom

This section delineates the patterns of English language engagement among Omani university students outside the academic environment. The qualitative analysis is based on responses from 100 participants, categorised into distinct forms of English contact: no contact, social media usage, interaction with peers, watching films/TV, reading English literature, and other varied methods.

(a). Limited Exposure to English

A noteworthy 33% of the participants reported no engagement with English in their daily routines. This is exemplified by a student's remark:

"No speech in English...nobody speaks home in this language" - Student 1

This highlights a substantial segment of the student population needing more exposure to English outside their educational settings.

(b). Social Media as a Learning Tool

Social media emerged as a significant medium for English engagement, with 31% of students incorporating it into their language practice. A participant's comment illustrates this:

"...chatting with friends... in Oman everyone is on social media..." - Student 86

This indicates social media's potential as a beneficial platform for enhancing English proficiency among students.

(c). Peer Interaction in English

Approximately 15% of respondents indicated that conversing with classmates was a method of engaging with

English. Particularly, students residing in university dormitories mentioned using English in conversations with peers and with international individuals in public spaces:

“When I go out of the campus, to the mall, I talk to foreigners...when I want to buy something” - Student 36

This underscores the importance of social interaction in language acquisition and the need for more structured opportunities for English conversation outside the classroom.

(d). Media Consumption

About 14% of students engaged with English through listening to or watching English-language media:

“I like watching TV, I like films, and I learn new words, I can watch YouTube and see how to speak... I like listening to songs” - Student 25

This suggests that English media consumption plays a vital role in language development.

(e). Reading in English

A smaller proportion, 4%, reported reading English novels as a method to enhance their language skills:

“I go to the library, and I get my books from there” - Student 9

“I like reading English, even the traffic signs when I drive” - Student 100

This points to reading as a beneficial practice for vocabulary and comprehension improvement.

(f). Alternative Engagement Methods

In the 'other' category, 2% of participants mentioned alternative methods like self-learning and practising with family members.

(g). Time Spent Engaging With English

A significant 82% of students who engage with English outside the university reported spending up to two hours daily in such activities.

In conclusion, the findings reveal a spectrum of methods employed by Omani students to engage with English outside their formal education, underscoring the roles of social interaction and media exposure in language skill enhancement.

I. Comparative Analysis: Pronunciation Corrective Feedback

The study aimed to explore the attitudes of Omani university students towards the correction of pronunciation errors by instructors about their engagement with English outside of the university. Five distinct groups were compared based on their reported contact with English: No Contact, Social Media, Films/TV, Talking with Friends, and Reading Books. A one-way ANOVA was conducted on responses to the statement, "Instructors should correct students when they make pronunciation errors in class".

The results of the ANOVA indicated a statistically significant difference among the groups, $F(4, 90) = 2.69$, $P\text{-value} = 0.03$. This $P\text{-value}$ is below the conventional threshold of 0.05, suggesting that how students keep in touch with English outside of the university influences their attitudes towards pronunciation correction in the classroom.

Post hoc analyses are needed to determine which specific groups' means are significantly different. However, the descriptive statistics provide an initial insight into the group differences. Students who engage with Films/TV and those who speak with friends reported the highest average agreement with the statement ($M = 4.94$, $SD = 0.06$ and $M = 4.93$, $SD = 0.07$, respectively), indicating a strong belief in the importance of corrective feedback from instructors. Students who reported No Contact and those who use social media exhibited slightly lower agreement ($M = 4.52$, $SD = 0.5076$ and $M = 4.67$, $SD = 0.23$, respectively). The Reading Books group's average agreement was intermediate ($M = 4.82$, $SD = 0.16$).

These findings suggest that exposure to English through media and conversation with peers may contribute to a greater appreciation for pronunciation correction in the academic setting. Conversely, those with less contact with English outside the classroom may be less inclined to value such correction, highlighting the potential influence of extracurricular exposure to the language on learners' pedagogical preferences.

Given the significant F-statistic and the observed differences in means, further research is warranted to explore this phenomenon in greater depth, ideally with a larger sample size and consideration of additional factors that may impact students' attitudes. The implications for pronunciation teaching suggest that awareness of students' extracurricular language practices can inform more targeted and effective pedagogical strategies.

TABLE 8
INSTRUCTORS SHOULD CORRECT STUDENTS WHEN THEY MAKE PRONUNCIATION ERRORS IN CLASS

Group	Count	Sum	Average	Variance
No Contact	33	149	4.51	0.50
Social Media	21	98	4.66	0.23
Film/TV	16	79	4.93	0.06
Talking to Friends	14	69	4.92	0.07
Reading Books	11	53	4.81	0.16

ANOVA

Source of Variation	SS	df	MS	F	P-value	F crit
Between Groups	2.91	4	0.72	2.68	0.03	2.47
Within Groups	24.41	90	0.27			
Total	27.32	94				

J. Comparative Analysis: Post-Activity Pronunciation Correction

The current investigation sought to ascertain the preferences of Omani university students regarding the timing of pronunciation corrections by instructors (Table 9), contingent upon their methods of English engagement outside the academic environment. Five groups were delineated based on their reported English contact: No Contact, Social Media, Films/TV, Talking with Friends, and Reading Books. A one-way ANOVA was conducted to discern variations in their preferences.

TABLE 9
I LIKE THE INSTRUCTOR TO CORRECT MY PRONUNCIATION MISTAKES AFTER AN ACTIVITY IS COMPLETED

Groups	Count	Sum	Average	Variance
No Contact	31	113	3.65	2.03
Social Media	21	91	4.33	0.93
Film/TV	16	63	3.93	1.12
Talking to Friends	14	45	3.21	2.48
Reading Books	10	34	3.4	1.15

ANOVA

Source of Variation	SS	df	MS	F	P-value	F crit
Between Groups	13.28	4	3.32	2.07	0.09	2.47
Within Groups	139.45	87	1.60			
Total	152.73	91				

Although the ANOVA results demonstrated no statistically significant difference in preferences across the groups, $F(4, 87) = 2.07$, $P\text{-Value} = 0.09$ marginally exceeds the conventional alpha level of 0.05. The value indicates a trend towards significance, suggesting that while there may be differences in students' preferences for when pronunciation corrections should be made, these differences are not pronounced enough to reach traditional levels of statistical significance.

Regarding group averages, students who use Social Media expressed the highest preference for post-activity pronunciation correction ($M = 4.33$, $SD = 0.93$), followed by those who watch Films/TV ($M = 3.94$, $SD = 1.13$). The No Contact group ($M = 3.65$, $SD = 2.04$) and the Reading Books group ($M = 3.4$, $SD = 1.16$) indicated a moderate preference, while the group engaging in Talking with Friends reported the slightest preference for this approach to correction ($M = 3.21$, $SD = 2.49$).

Although the differences did not reach statistical significance, the observed tendencies suggest that students' outside-of-class English activities subtly influence their attitudes toward corrective feedback in the classroom. Specifically, the students immersed in social media platforms, where immediate feedback is typical, may carry over those expectations to the classroom setting.

Given the $P\text{-value}$'s proximity to the threshold of significance, it may be inferred that these preferences could manifest more distinctly with a larger sample size or additional variables. Therefore, it is advisable for future studies further to examine these trends with a more robust sample and to consider other factors that may contribute to these attitudes.

The implications for English pronunciation teaching in Omani universities include the potential for integrating student preferences regarding feedback timing into instructional design, particularly concerning students' engagement with English in various out-of-class contexts.

This section of the article addresses the nuances of the findings, the need for further research given the near-significant results, and the potential practical implications for teaching practices.

V. DISCUSSION

The findings reveal a generally positive attitude towards pronunciation teaching among Omani B. Ed. students. This aligns with the literature emphasising the importance of positive attitudes for effective language learning (Derwing & Munro, 2005; Tokumoto & Shibata, 2011). The students' recognition of the role of pronunciation in enhancing communicative abilities supports Buckingham's (2014) findings on the influence of perceived nativeness on students' attitudes towards pronunciation pedagogy. The strong preference for instructor-led correction resonates with the literature emphasising the significance of immediate and direct feedback in pronunciation learning (Haryadi & Aprianoto, 2020; Dalton-Puffer et al., 1997). The positive view of technology integration, such as the use of pronunciation apps (i.e. Sounds), corroborates with the findings of Nowacka (2022) and Anh (2023), who highlighted the benefits of technology in pronunciation pedagogy. The preference for Received Pronunciation (RP) and the polarised views on Standard American Accent and International Accents suggest a complex interplay of cultural, educational, and personal preferences influencing accent choice. This complexity is mirrored in the literature that explores students' reactions to different accents as models (Dalton-Puffer et al., 1997; Buckingham, 2014).

A. Implications for Course Design and Pedagogical Practices

As indicated by this study, the preference for clear, structured pronunciation courses with explicit instruction on features points towards the necessity for curriculum designers to incorporate these elements. This aligns with the studies emphasising the importance of course design in pronunciation pedagogy (Mukmin & Banet, 2022; Lord, 2008). The inclination towards communicative activities for learning pronunciation is consistent with the broader trend in language pedagogy prioritising communicative competence (Kang, 2014; Sardegna et al., 2017).

B. Extracurricular Influence on Pronunciation Learning

The correlation between students' exposure to English outside the classroom and their attitudes towards pronunciation correction highlights the significance of extracurricular English engagement. This finding is a novel contribution to the field and suggests the need for educators to consider students' out-of-class experiences in designing pronunciation instruction (Fahim & Dhamotharan, 2016; Youssef, 2016).

C. Limitations and Recommendations for Future Research

The results of the present study are based on a small-scale project of 100 participants from a particular university in rural Oman, which might not apply to a different context, i.e. an urban area, where students might have more opportunities to practice the language outside the university. Also, the sample was predominantly female students, which makes the generalisation of the results somewhat quixotic. For future researchers, a study to explore the impact of different teaching methodologies on students with varied extracurricular English exposures could be a fruitful avenue.

VI. CONCLUSION

This study offers a nuanced exploration of the attitudes of Omani Bachelor of Education students towards pronunciation pedagogy, revealing several pivotal insights. Primarily, it underscores a clear preference among students for specific instructional methodologies, notably those that are instructor-led, utilise technology, and emphasise communicative competence. The findings also reveal a marked preference for Received Pronunciation, albeit with polarised views regarding American and International accents. This accentuates the cultural, educational, and personal dimensions influencing accent choice and suggests a complex interplay between these factors.

The study highlights the role of extracurricular exposure to English in shaping students' attitudes towards pronunciation learning and correction. This exposure, ranging from media consumption to social interactions, appears to significantly influence preferences for pronunciation pedagogy within the classroom. This insight is crucial for educators and curriculum designers, suggesting that considering students' out-of-class experiences can lead to more effective and responsive teaching strategies.

Moreover, the research contributes to the broader discourse on pronunciation pedagogy, particularly in the context of English language teaching in Oman. It reaffirms the importance of aligning pedagogical approaches with students' needs and preferences and recognises the dynamic nature of language learning influenced by both in-class and extracurricular factors.

However, the study has its limitations. The sample, predominantly female and from a specific rural university context, may only partially represent the diversity of attitudes across different regions or genders. Therefore, future research could explore these attitudes in varied settings, comparing rural and urban contexts or examining the impact of different teaching methodologies on students with diverse extracurricular English exposures.

Finally, this study sheds light on the multifaceted nature of pronunciation pedagogy from the perspective of Omani B. Ed. students. It calls for an approach that is not only grounded in sound pedagogical principles but also responsive to the diverse linguistic and cultural backgrounds of the learners. As the field of English language teaching continues to evolve, insights such as those provided by this study will be invaluable in shaping effective and inclusive language education practices.

REFERENCES

- [1] AbuSeileek, A. F. (2007). Computer-assisted pronunciation instruction as an effective means for teaching stress. *The JALT CALL Journal*, 3(1-2), 3-24. <https://doi.org/10.29140/jaltcall.v3n1-2.33>
- [2] Al-Harbi, G. (2019). Podcasting for Saudi EFL learners: Evaluating new strategies for pronunciation enhancement. *International Journal of Applied Linguistics and English Literature*, 8(5), 27-38. Retrieved February 17, 2024, from: <https://journals.aiac.org.au/index.php/IJALEL/article/view/5909>
- [3] AlAamri, K. S. S. (2013). Western teachers face cultural and linguistic challenges in teaching the English language in the classroom. *Literacy Information and Computer Education Journal*, 4(3), 1140-1148. <https://doi.org/10.20533/licej.2040.2589.2013.0151>
- [4] Anh, N. T. Y. (2023). The implementation of video dubbing in enhancing students' pronunciation at a high school in Vietnam. *International Journal of Social Science and Human Research*, 6(2), 1254-1262. <https://doi.org/10.47191/ijsshr/v6-i2-61>
- [5] Asmawati, N., & Fitriingsih, F. (2021). The implementation of online accent reduction software to improve pronunciation of English and Arabic department students. *Journal of Humanities and Social Sciences Studies*, 3(12), 26-37. <https://doi.org/10.32996/jhss.2021.3.12.4>
- [6] Bala, E. (2020). The impact of out-of-class language activities on English as a foreign language proficiency of private university students - (a case of Erbil). *Journal of Education in Black Sea Region*, 6(1), 27-40. <https://doi.org/10.31578/jebis.v6i1.217>
- [7] Buckingham, L. (2014). Recognising English accents in the community: Omani students' accent preferences and perceptions of nativeness. *Journal of Multilingual and Multicultural Development*, 36(2), 182-197. <https://doi.org/10.1080/01434632.2014.909443>
- [8] Burri, M., & Baker, A. (2019). "I never imagined" pronunciation as "such an interesting thing": Student-teacher perception of innovative practices. *International Journal of Applied Linguistics*, 29(1), 95-108. <https://doi.org/10.1111/ijal.12247>
- [9] Burri, M., Baker, A., & Honglin, C. (2017). "I feel like having a nervous breakdown": Pre-service and in-service teachers' developing beliefs and knowledge about pronunciation instruction. *Journal of Second Language Pronunciation*, 3(1), 109-135. <https://doi.org/10.1075/jslp.3.1.05bur>
- [10] Buss, L. (2016). Beliefs and practices of Brazilian EFL teachers regarding pronunciation. *Language Teaching Research*, 20(5), 619-637. <https://doi.org/10.1177/1362168815574145>
- [11] Cenoz, J., & Lecumberri, M. L. G. (1999). The acquisition of English pronunciation: Learners' views. *International Journal of Applied Linguistics*, 9(1), 3-15. <https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1473-4192.1999.tb00157.x>
- [12] Dalton-Puffer, C., Kaltenboeck, G., & Smit, U. (1997). Learner attitudes and L2 pronunciation in Austria. *World Englishes*, 16(1), 115-128. <https://doi.org/10.1111/1467-971x.00052>
- [13] Dağtan, E. (2020). ELT students' and lecturers' beliefs about pronunciation instruction: The case of a Turkish ELT department. *Dicle University Journal of Ziya Gökalp Faculty of Education*, 37, 142-156. <https://doi.org/10.14582/duzgef.2020.148>
- [14] Derwing, T. M., & Munro, M. J. (2005). Second language accent and pronunciation teaching: A research-based approach. *TESOL Quarterly*, 39(3), 379-397. <https://doi.org/10.2307/3588486>
- [15] Dolmaci, A., & Kiliç, A. (2021). Teaching English pronunciation to prep-classes students: A needs analysis study. *Kastamonu Education Journal*, 29(3), 550-558. <https://doi.org/10.24106/kefdergi.763949>
- [16] Erling, E. J., Radinger, S., & Foltz, A. (2020). Understanding low outcomes in English language education in Austrian middle schools: The role of teachers' beliefs and practices. *Journal of Multilingual and Multicultural Development*, 44(5), 412-428. <https://doi.org/10.1080/01434632.2020.1829630>
- [17] Fahim, A., & Dhamotharan, M. (2016). Willingness to communicate in English among trainee teachers in a Malaysian private university. *Journal of Social Sciences*, 12(2), 105-112. <https://doi.org/10.3844/jssp.2016.105.112>
- [18] Ghounane, N. (2019). The attitudes of second year EFL students at Dr Moulay Tahar University towards learning English pronunciation through mobile assisted language. *Arab World English Journal, CALL*(5), 110-123. <https://doi.org/10.24093/awej/call5.9>
- [19] Haryadi, S., & Aprianoto, A. (2020). Integrating "English pronunciation" app into pronunciation teaching: How it affects students' participation and learning. *Journal of Languages and Language Teaching*, 8(2), 202-212. <https://doi.org/10.33394/jollt.v8i2.2551>
- [20] Ikhsan, M. K. (2017). Factors influencing students' pronunciation mastery at English department of STKIP PGRI West Sumatera. *Al-Ta'Lim Journal*, 24(2), 110-117. <https://doi.org/10.15548/jt.v24i2.279>
- [21] Kang, O. (2014). Learners' perceptions toward pronunciation instruction in three circles of world Englishes. *TESOL Journal*, 6(1), 59-80. <https://doi.org/10.1002/tesj.146>
- [22] Lord, G. (2008). Podcasting communities and second language pronunciation. *Foreign Language Annals*, 41(2), 364-379. <https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1944-9720.2008.tb03297.x>
- [23] Luan, D. M. (2022). Pronunciation instruction in Vietnamese tertiary settings: Insights from EFL teachers' cognitions and classroom practices. *European Journal of English Language Teaching*, 7(5), 115-136. <https://doi.org/10.46827/ejel.v7i5.4485>
- [24] Maqsood, S., Shahid, A., Nazar, F., Asif, M., Ahmad, M., & Mazzara, M. (2020). C-POS: A context-aware adaptive part-of-speech language learning framework. *IEEE Access*, 8, 30720-30733. <https://doi.org/10.1109/access.2020.2972591>
- [25] Moedjito. (2016). The teaching of English pronunciation: perceptions of Indonesian school teachers and university students. *English Language Teaching*, 9(6), 30-41. <https://doi.org/10.5539/elt.v9n6p30>
- [26] Mu'in, F., Amrina, R., & Amelia, R. (2017). Tongue twister, students' pronunciation ability, and learning styles. *Arab World English Journal*, 8(4), 365-383. <https://doi.org/10.31235/osf.io/fce2r>
- [27] Mukmin, & Banet, I. (2022). Factors influencing Banggainese learners English pronunciation. *LingLit Scientific Journal for Linguistics and Literature*, 3(3), 135-147. <https://doi.org/10.33258/linglit.v3i3.750>
- [28] Nguyen, L., & Newton, J. (2020). Enhancing EFL teachers' pronunciation pedagogy through professional learning: A Vietnamese case study. *RELC Journal*, 52(1), 77-93. <https://doi.org/10.1177/0033688220952476>

- [29] Nguyen, L. T., Hung, B. P., Duong, U. T. T., & Le, T. T. (2021). Teachers' and learners' beliefs about pronunciation instruction in tertiary English as a foreign language education. *Frontiers in Psychology*, 12. <https://doi.org/10.3389/fpsyg.2021.739842>
- [30] Nowacka, M. (2022). English phonetics course: University students' preferences and expectations. *Research in Language*, 20(1), 71-84. <https://doi.org/10.18778/1731-7533.20.1.05>
- [31] Pawlak, M. (2013). The Effect of Explicit and Implicit Corrective Feedback on Eliminating Pronunciation Errors. In: Waniek-Klimczak, E., & Shockey, L. (eds) *Teaching and Researching English Accents in Native and Non-native Speakers. Second Language Learning and Teaching* (pp. 85-101). Springer, Berlin, Heidelberg. https://doi.org/10.1007/978-3-642-24019-5_7
- [32] Rais, B., Pranowo, D. D., & Sari, R. P. I. P. (2020). The use of song in teaching English pronunciation. *Proceedings of the 1st International Conference on Language, Literature, and Arts Education*. <https://doi.org/10.2991/assehr.k.200804.025>
- [33] Sardegna, V. G., Lee, J., & Kusey, C. (2017). Self-efficacy, attitudes, and choice of strategies for English pronunciation learning. *Language Learning*, 68(1), 83-114. <https://doi.org/10.1111/lang.12263>
- [34] Smit, U. (2012). Conceptualising English as a lingua franca (ELF) as a tertiary classroom language. *Stellenbosch Papers in Linguistics*, 39, 59-74. <https://doi.org/10.5774/39-0-4>
- [35] Tokumoto, M., & Shibata, M. (2011). Asian varieties of English: Attitudes towards pronunciation. *World Englishes*, 30(3), 392-408. <https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1467-971x.2011.01710.x>
- [36] Tran, D. P. T., & Nguyen, H. B. (2020). EFL teachers' beliefs and practices of teaching pronunciation in a Vietnamese setting. *Universal Journal of Educational Research*, 8(12), 7022-7035. <https://doi.org/10.13189/ujer.2020.081270>
- [37] Youssef, A. F. (2016). Willingness to communicate in English: Academic motivation and using English outside the classroom as predictors. *American Journal of Applied Sciences*, 13(12), 1365-1376. <https://doi.org/10.3844/ajassp.2016.1365.1376>

Konstantinos M. Pitychoutis FHEA FRSA MCIL is an assistant professor of English at the American University of the Middle East. Konstantinos has extensive experience in teacher education and language teaching, as evidenced by his roles at various universities across the Middle East and Europe. Konstantinos's research interests include second language acquisition, teacher cognition, and intercultural communication. ORCID: <https://orcid.org/0000-0002-2761-5764>

An Investigation Into English Learners' Speech Acts Using a Semi-Automatic Annotation Tool

Zhaoyi Pan

English Language Coordinating Section, School of Information Technology, King Mongkut's University of Technology Thonburi, Bangkok, Thailand

Abstract—This paper explores the speech acts most frequently performed by learners of English as a foreign language (EFL) through the Dialogue Annotation and Research Tool (DART), a semi-automatic annotation tool. The study used learner corpus research and an English as the first language (L1) speaker corpus as a reference to compare the speech acts performed by the EFL learners. The study involved 90 EFL learners of four nationalities. A spoken learner corpus was built with the dyadic interlanguage English conversation register. The most frequently performed speech acts were generally different for the English L1 speakers and the EFL learners. The speech acts labeled as *correctSelf*, *referProcess*, *expressNonAwareness*, and *stateReason* were in the top 10 for EFL learners, whereas they were not in the top 10 for the English L1 speakers. This difference was caused by three factors: the English proficiency of the EFL learners, the frequently used formulaic phrases, and the task requirements. Moreover, the corpus annotation has a problem with unrecognized speech acts, primarily due to the redundancies and fragments in the learner discourses. The findings of this study reveal the complementary relationship between grammatical and pragmatic performances.

Index Terms—speech acts, semi-automatic annotation tool, DART, interlanguage pragmatics, learner corpus research

I. INTRODUCTION

Interlanguage pragmatics is the study of “language use in social interaction” by learners of English as a foreign language (EFL) (Fernández & Staples, 2021, p. 240). One of the significant areas of interlanguage pragmatic studies is the speech acts performed by EFL learners in interlanguage communication (Staples & Fernández, 2019; Fernández & Staples, 2021). A plethora of studies in this field have examined specific types of speech acts, such as requests, refusals, complaints, and apologies (Akmal et al., 2022; Khamkhien, 2022) using discourse-completion tasks (DCTs) to elicit the required speech acts. Despite the fruitful results of these studies, critical concerns have been raised. The studies on specific types of speech acts are primarily based on “rather limited, and mostly abstract, taxonomies” developed by Austin (1962) and Searle (1979; Weisser, 2020, p. 400). Moreover, a lack of corpus methodology leads to the challenge that only “a small number of variant patterns” of the speech acts can be investigated, resulting in a “rather narrow focus of interlanguage pragmatics research on speech acts” (Staples & Fernández, 2019, pp. 241-242). Thus, the use of DCTs rather than naturally occurring data may not reflect the real situation of the speech acts performed by EFL learners (Pan, 2023a).

The present study investigates the speech acts performed by EFL learners in interlanguage communication holistically through a semi-automatic annotation tool: the Dialogue Annotation and Research Tool (DART) created and developed by Weisser (2018, 2019b, 2020) to reveal the speech acts in Weisser's (2020) extended speech act taxonomies that are most frequently performed by EFL learners. This study uses learner corpus research (LCR) methodology and contrastive interlanguage analysis (CIA) (Granger, 2015) to demonstrate the significance of using corpus linguistics to study interlanguage pragmatics and further dedicates the relative lacuna of LCR in spoken data (Fernández, 2023; McEnery et al., 2019; Yoon, 2020).

This paper is divided into five sections. After the introduction, Section 2 provides a literature review. Section 3 describes the research methodology. Section 4 presents the results and discussion based on each research question. A conclusion follows in Section 5.

II. LITERATURE REVIEW

This literature review is divided into four parts: speech act theory, interlanguage pragmatic studies, LCR and corpus pragmatics, and DART.

A. Speech Act Theory

To study the actual language use in different social and situational contexts, Austin (1962) elucidates three acts that can be performed by a speaker in any context: locutionary acts, illocutionary acts, and perlocutionary acts. Locutionary acts are the actions taken when a person makes an utterance in which literal meaning is conveyed. Illocutionary acts, as

they have been widely studied as speech acts, indicate the intention of the speaker embedded in an utterance. Perlocutionary acts refer to the result of an utterance. Harris (2019, p. 53) contends that a speech act is an action “with a communicative intention”; thus, different speech acts “involve intentions to affect hearers in different ways.” Speech acts have received more attention since “the central mechanism of human communication is intention recognition” (Harris, 2019, p. 53).

Searle (1979) further separates Austin’s (1962) illocutionary acts into five categories: assertives, directives, commissives, expressives, and declarations. Moreover, speech acts have been classified as direct and indirect (Staples & Fernández, 2019). These fundamental speech act theories have guided a strand of pragmatic studies, especially in the form-to-function approach. A form might not correspond with its apparent function owing to an indirect speech act. On the other hand, the correspondence between a form and a function might not be one-to-one, since contexts and interactants’ variables can differ, such as the social contexts and social powers of interactants in real-world communication (Akmal et al., 2022; Yuan & Lyu, 2022). These degrees of indeterminacy between an utterance and its speech act have motivated researchers to study different types of speech acts in various registers with a diversity of interactants.

A major criticism of the pragmatic studies following Austin (1962) and Searle (1979) is that they focus only on specific types of speech act, while little attempt has been made to study speech acts systematically (House & Kádár, 2023; Weisser, 2020). The speech act taxonomy proposed by Searle (1979) is limited, which restricts the scope of the examination of the types of speech acts (Weisser, 2020), such as assertion and promise (Yuan & Lyu, 2022). House and Kádár (2023, p. 3) point out that focusing on certain types of speech acts “unavoidably led to a top-down take on speech acts,” and this approach “cannot capture more complex speech act-related problems.” Their viewpoint indicates that the studies on individual types of speech act cannot indicate the speech act performance of an interactant comprehensively, and this top-down approach apparently cannot solve all the issues in this field. This criticism may be more perceptible in the interlanguage pragmatic studies discussed in the next section.

B. Interlanguage Pragmatic Studies

As an important concept of the EFL field, interlanguage pragmatic studies have increased rapidly and changed their focus in the past four decades (Taguchi, 2022). Early research tried to determine which factors account for EFL learners’ pragmatic competence, including “pragmalinguistics and sociopragmatics” or “functional knowledge and sociolinguistic knowledge” (Taguchi, 2022, p. 8). At the same time, studies compared the performance of speech acts of speakers of English as the first language (L1) and EFL speakers were based on Austin’s (1962) and Searle’s (1979) development of speech acts and speech act taxonomies. DCTs have been used since then and are still used in most research on specific types of speech act.

As mentioned earlier, most studies in the interlanguage pragmatic field have examined specific types of speech act, resulting in an excess of investigation on requests, refusals, apologies, compliments, and complaints (Akmal et al., 2022; Budeng & Merza, 2023; Khamkhien, 2022). Given the interplay between these types of speech act and the direct and indirect acts, these studies have attempted to examine different forms produced by interactants with one type of speech act, categorize the forms into different degrees of directness or indirectness, and compare their use by English L1 speakers and EFL learners. The results of these comparative studies of speech acts generally reveal significant differences in the performance of the same types of speech act between English L1 speakers and English interlanguage learners. For example, EFL learners tend to use a lower degree of directness in requests, while English L1 speakers flexibly choose different degrees of directness depending on the social context, situational environment, and the social status of the interactants (Akmal et al., 2022; Pan, 2023a). Furthermore, EFL learners tend to have limitations in choosing the lexical items for the same type of speech act due to their English proficiency levels (Pan, 2023a).

Limitations of interlanguage pragmatic studies have been discussed in recent years. First, similar to the criticism of the studies of speech acts in the previous section, interlanguage pragmatic studies have mainly restricted their interests to a small range of speech acts, and how interlanguage learners perform speech acts in interlanguage communication remains unknown (Fernández & Staples, 2021). Moreover, this small range of speech acts may not fully reveal EFL learners’ pragmatic competence, since speech acts vary, and the range can be extended with different interactional environments and the innovations of further studies (Fernández & Staples, 2021; Weisser, 2018). In addition, since many studies in this field have relied upon DCTs, the results from these studies may not be completely reliable, as participants were usually given time to answer each question in the DCT, and, more importantly, the data from the DCT is not the naturally occurring discourses that participants engage in real interlanguage communication (Pan, 2023a; Staples & Fernández, 2019). To overcome these limitations, researchers in this field have introduced corpus linguistics.

C. Learner Corpus Research and Corpus Pragmatics

LCR is a relatively new field in corpus linguistics, and “a relatively newer methodology within interlanguage pragmatics” (Fernández & Staples, 2021, p. 244). Unlike DCTs, LCR collects the naturally occurring data, both spoken and written discourses, used by language learners (McEnery et al., 2023). Although a new development in SLA, LCR has been used to investigate EFL learners’ pragmatic competence in various sub-fields, such as speech acts, pragmatic markers, formulaic language, and pragmatics in prosody (Fernández, 2022, 2023). Given the innovation of computational technology, LCR facilitates the analysis of EFL learners’ competence in different pragmatic sub-fields.

Hence, the collection of EFL learners' naturally occurring spoken discourses and the analysis of the speech acts performed by them with the aid of modern computational technology will eventually allow researchers to comprehend how EFL learners perform various types of speech acts in real interlanguage communication. This approach avoids the elicited data that may not reflect EFL learners' use of speech acts.

As the principles of corpus linguistics were introduced to the field of pragmatics, corpus pragmatics emerged, "combining both key methodologies of corpus linguistics and pragmatics" (Huang, 2021, p. 101). In this study, it is contented that an interlanguage corpus pragmatics field can be further developed as a sub-field of corpus pragmatics in which EFL learners' performances of a diverse range of pragmatic competence are examined and analyzed via the LCR principles and methods. In interlanguage corpus pragmatics, the learner corpora built by researchers are usually in small, especially those of spoken registers (Huang, 2021; Taguchi, 2022). Many researchers have pointed out that learner corpora in different spoken registers are insufficient (Fernández, 2023; McEnery et al., 2019; Yoon, 2020), thus imposing a constraint on the analysis of EFL learners' use of pragmatics in oral communication. More learner corpora are needed for studying interlanguage pragmatics so that a diversity of EFL learners with different L1 backgrounds and English proficiency levels can benefit from the results of this field (Yoon, 2020). Modern computational technology makes it possible to produce concordances in which the required forms can be retrieved and extracted from the long discourses produced by EFL learners for the analysis of individual pragmatic phenomena. For different spoken registers, such as dyadic conversations and group discussions, corpus pragmatics provides both horizontal concordances and vertical contexts in any given dialogic activity for researchers to manually annotate the forms and functions aligned with their goals and frameworks (Budeng & Merza, 2023; Weisser, 2020). There is a major issue with this annotation, however, as discussed in the next section.

D. Annotation in Pragmatic Studies

Previous studies of pragmatics and interlanguage pragmatics have mainly used manual annotation. Depending on the purpose of the research, researchers have annotated different types of pragmatic use in various corpora, including individual types of speech act, pragmatic markers, prosodic features, and non-linguistic features in multimodal pragmatic studies (Akmal et al., 2022; Budeng & Merza, 2023; Huang, 2021; Pan, 2023a). Manual annotation can be aligned with the requirements of the researchers. Moreover, certain types of annotations must be manual, such as learner errors in learner corpora (McEnery et al., 2019). However, manual annotation consumes a large amount of time and may incur more costs. Some studies used two or more raters to ensure the reliability of the manual annotation (Pan, 2023a). Despite these weaknesses, perhaps the most significant problem with manual annotation in interlanguage pragmatic studies is its sparsity in LCR (Fernández, 2022, 2023; McEnery et al., 2019). Not many learner corpora have been annotated. In addition, a learner corpus with comprehensive pragmatic annotation is difficult to find, especially for spoken registers (Fernández & Staples, 2021).

This situation in the interlanguage pragmatic studies is primarily caused by the limited annotation tools for pragmatics. DART is a relatively well-developed example. It uses extensible markup language (XML) to produce different notations for each utterance. As the main purpose of the tool is to retrieve and analyze the speech act performances in a given corpus, DART provides a more fine-grained extended speech act taxonomy (Weisser, 2019a, 2020) than Searle's (1979). The extended speech act taxonomy is "applicable to the annotation and analysis of any type of naturally occurring dialogue" (Weisser, 2020, p. 405). DART's extended speech act taxonomy contains nine super-categories with 162 detailed speech act categories (SACs) with a justification for each category. Table 1 illustrates the nine extended speech act super-categories and gives an example of a SAC in each super-category based on the DART scheme (Weisser, 2018, 2019a, 2020).

TABLE 1
SPEECH ACT SUPER-CATEGORIES IN DART SCHEME

	Super-category	Explanation	Example	Function
1	information or option seeking acts	different categories in requests	reqInfo	requesting verbal information
2	(non)cohesive acts	managing the cohesion for texts and interaction	answer	answering a question
3	information providing and referring acts	providing various types of information	state	conveying information/awareness
4	suggesting or commitment indicating acts	giving various degrees of suggestion or commitment	suggest	proposing joint or interlocutor's potential action
5	negotiative acts	helping to negotiate	accept	responding in an active positive way
6	evaluating or attitudinal acts	indicating personal opinions or stance	agree	signaling explicit agreement
7	reinforcing acts	emphasizing content	emphatic	repeating something for emphasis
8	social, conventionalized acts	expressing daily and social rituals	greet	greeting the interlocutor
9	residual acts	unintelligible or uninterpretable	uninterpretable	uninterpretable, due to missing or incoherent information

DART is accessible, applicable, convenient, and user-friendly regarding the classification of utterances, such as the single units of *yes* and *no*, the pragmatic markers, and the backchannels, which are more relevant to the linguistic components of the annotation of speech acts. Weisser's (2020, 2021) series of studies have shed light on computational pragmatic annotation and point toward the future of corpus pragmatics.

Nevertheless, the DART program is generally acknowledged to be a semi-automatic form of annotation for two main reasons. First, problems involving misunderstandings or unidentified instances have been found in the annotation process (Weisser, 2018; Verdonik, 2022); thus, users are advised to examine the automatic results in the post-process. In addition, DART relies on the literal meaning of utterances in the annotations. However, the under-determinacy of the oral interactions may lead to an unstable basis for the identification of the speech act in an utterance, which suggests possible difficulties in the pragmatic annotation programs.

The present study has three main objectives. First, it aims to compare the performances of EFL learners and English L1 speakers in the most frequently performed speech acts based on the DART extended speech act taxonomy. Second, it seeks to determine the factors that cause the differences. Third, it reports the problems with using DART to annotate the speech acts in learner corpora to improve the development of future annotation tools in the interlanguage pragmatic field. The study seeks to answer three research questions:

- 1) What are the differences in the most frequently performed speech acts between EFL learners and English L1 speakers?
- 2) What are the factors that cause the differences in the most frequently performed speech acts between EFL learners and English L1 speakers?
- 3) What are the problems with using DART to annotate the speech acts in learner corpora?

III. METHODOLOGY

A. Participants and Data Collection

To collect the speech acts performed by EFL learners with different L1 backgrounds, this study engaged 90 participants with four nationalities: 30 Thai (TH) EFL learners, 22 Indonesian (IN) EFL learners, 20 Chinese (CH) EFL learners, and 18 Burmese (MM) EFL learners. All the participants attended the same government university in Bangkok, Thailand. There were 52 males (58%) and 38 females (42%). They were aged between 18 and 23 years and were in year 1 to year 4 at the undergraduate level. They belonged to the English programs or the international programs of four faculties. Each participant's L1 was their country's official language, and they had studied EFL for 11 to 14 years in their own countries. No participant had lived in an English-speaking country before the data collection. Their English proficiency levels were all above B1 based on the valid scores of an international English examination, such as TOEFL iBT, and the Common European Framework of Reference for Languages (CEFR) (Council of Europe, 2020). Thus, the participants in this study represent EFL learners with different L1 backgrounds at the undergraduate level. Gender was not considered a variable in this study.

The data were collected on the campus of the university between April and May 2023. Each participant was required to have a casual English conversation with another participant of the same nationality. The spoken register in this study is therefore the dyadic English interlanguage conversation. To ensure that each conversation was close to naturally occurring spoken discourse, each pair of participants could choose the topics to discuss. In case any pair did not know what to discuss, they were given the topics of an English course titled "General English" that is a required part of the English courses at the university. All the topics pertain to general daily or social life, such as happiness and technology. Each pair was requested to have this English conversation for approximately 15 minutes without any preparation. They were not allowed to use their L1, and they had all been informed that their conversation would be recorded by the iPhone Voice Memo application. The researcher did not appear while each pair was having the conversation to ensure that they would feel relaxed and comfortable and the conversation would be as natural as possible. Thus, 45 pairs of dyadic English interlanguage conversations were collected.

B. Data Analysis

This study used both quantitative and qualitative approaches in the LCR field. DART was used to examine the speech acts that the participants performed. DART uses XML to produce different notations for each utterance. All the spoken discourses were transcribed into written texts using the XML format. The interface of the DART program on the Windows computer system is illustrated in Figure 1. The input and output interfaces of several corpora and the interface for the analysis pertaining to the speech acts (the functions) and the linguistic components (the forms) are provided in the figure below.

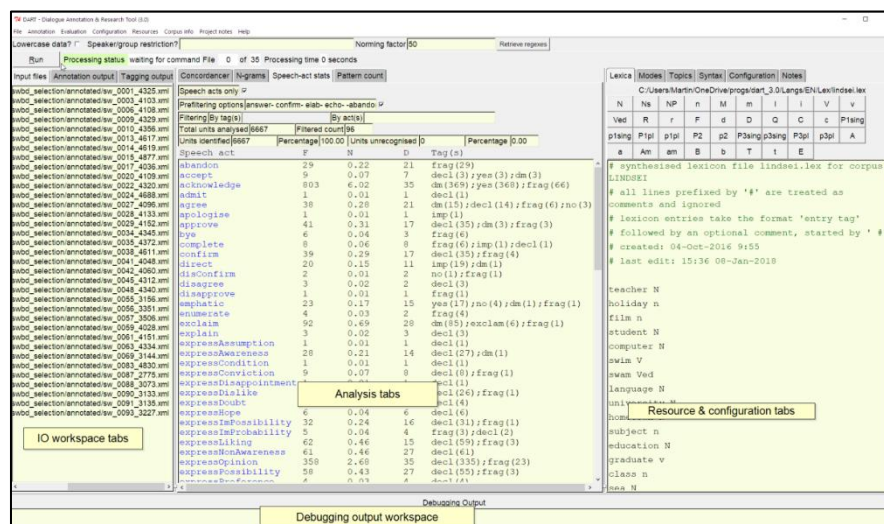


Figure 1. An Example of the Interface of the DART Program (Weisser, 2019a, p. 1)

Two main functions are provided by DART. The first function is to output the speech acts found in all the utterances in a corpus. This function is usually completed by three processes: the pre-process in which a revision of the original data is performed by the user; the computational process of outputting the results for the speech act; and the post-process in which modifications to the problematic annotations can be made manually by the users (Weisser, 2018). The second function enables the relevant pragmatic analysis, which DART achieves by integrating basic analytical tools to retrieve keywords, N-grams, and concordances, thus recording the frequencies of the keywords or the lexical patterns.

To compare the different uses of the SAC between EFL learners and English L1 speakers, the Switchboard Corpus (SC) annotated by Weisser (2018, 2020) was used as the reference of the performance of the speech acts by English L1 speakers based on the principle of CIA² (Granger, 2015). Granger (2015) contends that there should be a discrete consideration about the comparison of the language use between EFL learners and English L1 speakers since EFL learners with different L1 backgrounds have their own patterns of using English as a lingua franca (ELF) or an international language (EIL). Instead, the speech acts performed by English L1 speakers can be used as a for several different patterns of language use in the comparative studies for EFL learners' language improvement. SC was chosen because it contains "American interlocutors of equal status talk[ing] about a variety of different topics" (Weisser, 2020, p. 407). It is therefore comparable to the spoken register in this study. The differences of the most frequently performed speech acts were scrutinized by DART, and the factors that caused the differences were examined by the concordances provided by DART.

IV. RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

A. Different Uses of the Most Frequently Performed Speech Act Categories

This section presents the quantitative results of the different performances of the most frequently performed speech acts in the two corpora. The fine-grained qualitative analysis is presented in the next section. In this study, a learner corpus titled Speech Acts of Learners Corpus (SALC) was built. The corpus contains 45 samples of dyadic English interlanguage conversations, which were all given an identification number based on the input requirement of DART. For example, SALC01 refers to the first pair of conversations between participants 01 and 02. According to the descriptive data provided by DART, SALC contains 67,612 tokens. After DART's automatic annotation and a few manual changes suggested by Weisser (2018), this study found 83 SACs in the nine super-categories performed by all the participants.

Table 2 lists the 10 most frequently performed speech acts in SALC, along with the normalized frequency (NF per 100,000 tokens) of each SAC, the number (N) of samples and the corresponding proportion (P) of the entire sample in which each SAC was found, and the super-category (S) that each SAC belongs to. Since SC is regarded as the reference, the same information of each SAC in SC is listed for comparison. A significant difference was not considered necessary. The performance of the speech acts by English L1 speakers was mainly used to show the features of the performance of the speech acts by EFL learners by comparing the differences. Any significant difference in the overuse or underuse results may not have any substantial meaning towards the performance of the speech acts in English interlanguage communication.

TABLE 2
MOST FREQUENTLY PERFORMED SAC IN SALC AND SC AS THE REFERENCE

R	S	SAC	SALC		SC		R
			NF	N/P (%)	NF	N/P (%)	
1	information providing and referring acts	state	913	45/100	1,119	35/100	1
2	(non)cohesive acts	hesitate	890	45/100	405	35/100	4
3	information or option seeking acts	reqInfo	719	45/100	150	35/100	9
4	(non)cohesive acts	answer	697	45/100	88	34/97	11
5	evaluating or attitudinal acts	expressOpinion	528	45/100	235	35/100	6
6	information providing and referring acts	referProcess	466	40/89	11	8/23	40
7	information providing and referring acts	stateReason	376	45/100	78	30/86	12
8	information providing and referring acts	expressNonAwareness	280	42/93	40	27/77	25
9	negotiative acts	correctSelf	219	37/82	-	-	-
10	(non)cohesive acts	acknowledge	192	45/100	528	35/100	2

Based on the table above, the speech act labeled as state was performed the most frequently by both EFL learners and English L1 speakers. As Weisser (2018, 2020) points out, this speech act is labeled by DART when a declarative or fragment with a finite verb is uttered to provide general information. It is not surprising that this speech act was performed the most in both corpora, since providing information is a fundamental behavior in any type of communication (Weisser, 2020). Another two speech acts, namely hesitate and express opinion, are ranked similarly in the two corpora.

According to the ranking in Table 2, six speech acts are ranked higher in SALC than in SC. The biggest difference is the speech act labeled as correctSelf. It was not found in SC, whereas it is the 9th most frequently performed speech act by EFL learners. Another two speech acts, namely referProcess and expressNonAwareness, are ranked much higher in SALC: 40th and 25th in SC compared to 6th and 8th in SALC, respectively. Three other speech acts are also ranked higher in SALC than in SC: the speech act labeled answer is ranked 11th in SC and 4th in SALC; the speech act labeled as reqInfo is ranked 9th in SC and 3rd in SALC; and the speech act labeled as stateReason is ranked 12th in SC and 7th in SALC. Conversely, one speech act is ranked lower in SALC than in SC. The speech act labeled as acknowledge is 2nd in SC and 10th in SALC.

B. Factors That Cause the Differences

(a). Influence of English Proficiency

This study examined the concordances of each of the most frequently used speech acts to identify the factors that may influence EFL learners' use of the speech acts. The analysis begins with the biggest difference in performance between the two corpora: correctSelf. As Weisser (2018) states, this speech act is labeled when the speaker corrects their own utterance, as illustrated in examples (1) and (2):

- (1) <decl n="127" sp-act="answer" polarity="positive" mode="opinion" topic="opinion-option">
i may give money to the poor or to child <punc type="stop" />
<decl n="128" sp-act="correctSelf">
i will give my money to children with [with no family <punc type="stop" /> (SALC02)
- (2) <frag n="119" sp-act="answer" polarity="positive" topic="location" mode="">
we go to south and </frag>
</dm>
<no n="120" sp-act="negate">
no <punc type="stop" />
<decl id="67" sp-act="correctSelf" polarity="positive" topic="" mode="">
we went to the south </decl> (SALC15)

Both examples above exhibit three common self-correction behaviors of EFL learners. First, both participants change the tense of the verb ("give" in the first example and "go" in the second), revealing a correction of the grammatical structures of the utterances. Second, both participants correct certain lexical items. The word "child" is corrected to its plural form "children" in (1), and "south" is corrected to "the south" by adding a definite article in (2). Finally, the participant in (1) changes the structure of the original utterance by adding the expression "with no family" to describe the noun "children." Through these two examples, it can be seen that the EFL learners' English proficiency leads to the speech act labeled as correctSelf. Given that the conversation is spontaneous and filled with indeterminacy (Pan, 2023a), EFL learners correct the errors during the conversation. Weisser (2018) likewise mentions that this speech act is expected to be found in learner discourses.

Previous research on interlanguage pragmatics has contended that EFL learners with different levels of English proficiency use pragmatics to different degrees, including speech acts or pragmatic markers (Pan, 2023a; Staples & Fernández, 2019; Taguchi, 2022). Some studies have shown that the proficiency levels and the pragmatic performance

are proportional, while others have not found a significant relation between the two (Taguchi, 2022). Nevertheless, these studies have rarely concentrated on whether EFL learners attempt to correct the grammatical errors to express the correct speech acts based on Searle's (1979) taxonomy. This use of the speech act labeled as *correctSelf* according to the DART taxonomy shows that EFL learners try to repair different types of errors that they make by themselves. It indicates that EFL learners have an awareness of using the correct grammatical structure to produce the correct pragmatic sense. Thus, correcting the verb tense and adding an expression in (1) makes the intention of the participant more certain; and correcting the verb tense and adding a definite article in (2) allows the declarative sentence to be more easily comprehended.

The influence of the English proficiency level of the EFL learners is also revealed in the speech act labeled as *hesitate*. This should not be surprising, since DART "captures initial fillers that indicate a short-time planning process" in front of the utterances, including *uh* and *um* (Weisser, 2018, p. 224). In line with Weisser (2018), Tübben and Landert (2022) argue that instead of regarding *uh* and *um* as fillers without any pragmatic sense, they should be considered as the planners that give the interlocutors more time to think about the next utterance. The fact that the speech act labeled as *hesitate* was the second most frequent speech act in SALC shows that EFL learners frequently use *uh* or *um* to think about the next utterance. It is conceivable that, as learners, they have more opportunity to use *uh* or *um* due to their English proficiency.

(b). Influence of Frequently Used Expressions

Some speech acts are marked as such by DART because of key words pertaining to the core functions of the respective speech act (Weisser, 2018, 2021). The present study found three speech acts that are relevant to this situation: *stateNonAwareness*, *stateReason*, and *expressOpinion*. The speech act labeled as *stateNonAwareness* has the biggest difference in ranking between the two corpora. This is a speech act that reflects a lower degree of awareness of the content discussed in a prior utterance by the speaker. Some expressions commonly used in spoken discourse, such as "I don't know" and "no idea," generally indicate the speaker's unawareness of certain things, as in (3) below:

- (3) <q-yn n="35" sp-act="reqInfo" polarity="positive" topic="details" mode="closed-query">
do you have some example <punc type="query" /></q-yn>
</turn>
<turn n="42" speaker="19">
<del n="51" sp-act="expressNonAwareness" polarity="negative" mode="nonawareness-decl">
i don't know <punc type="stop" /></del>
<decl n="52" sp-act="expressPosibility" polarity="positive" mode="poss-decl">
i can tell you a story <punc type="stop" /></decl> (SALC10)

A closer examination of the expression "I don't know" used by EFL learners reveals different levels of unawareness. A simple "I don't know" without more explanation or information indicates the speaker's complete lack of knowledge. The "I don't know" in example (3) may not be as simple, however, since it is followed by another declarative utterance, "I can tell you a story." This addition suggests that the speaker has some information relevant to the question, but at a low level. Previous studies have found that EFL learners use "I don't know" as a formulaic phrase with different pragmatic uses, including indicating complete unawareness and allowing themselves more time to think about how to explain something (Hosoda & Aline, 2021; Pan, 2023b). Pan (2023b) examined the use of "I don't know" by EFL learners with different English proficiency levels and found that this formulaic language was used at a high frequency with both functions mentioned above. The present study further confirms the common use of this formulaic language in learner discourse.

Concerning the speech acts labeled as *stateReason* and *expressOpinion*, this study found that EFL learners frequently used the word "because" to state reasons and the formulaic phrase "I think" to express personal opinions, as in (4) and (5):

- (4) <del n="12" sp-act="state" polarity="positive" topic="arrival" mode="information">
my brother got there <punc type="level" />
<del n="13" sp-act="stateReason" polarity="positive" mode="reason-decl">
because he want <pause /> **see the [the show** <punc type="stop" /></del> (SALC23)
- (5) <del n="73" sp-act="expressOpinion" polarity="positive" mode="opinion-decl">
i think we are just lazy <punc type="stop" /></del> (SALC05)

The use of the expression "I think" by EFL learners in spoken registers has been found in previous studies (Pan, 2023b). The frequent use of "because" and "I think" by EFL learners in spoken discourses is not surprising, since they are directly connected to their speech act functions and are usually learned by EFL learners during their early English education. This study found that the frequent use of certain words directly pertaining to their speech act functions led to the high ranking of some speech acts in SALC.

(c). Influence of Task and Effects of Multiple Factors

Since the spoken register in this study is the dyadic English interlanguage conversation, which all occurred between two participants of the same nationality, it is conceivable that the task itself had an impact on the performance of the speech acts. Both participants in each pair had to complete the task in around 15 minutes, thus keeping the interaction flowing. Asking for information (the speech act labeled as reqInfo) and answering questions (the speech act labeled as answer) are fundamental strategies to maintain the interaction, as in example (6):

- (6) <del n="59" sp-act="reqInfo" polarity="positive" topic="life" mode="query">
what is your school life like <punc type="query" />
 </turn>
 <turn n="28" speaker="21">
 <frag n="26" sp-act="answer" polarity="positive" mode="decl">
it's ok and fun <punc type="stop" /></decl> (SALC11)

A series of questions and responses, such as those in example (6), can help keep the conversation flowing. Theoretically, the numbers of the speech acts reqInfo and answer should be equal, since the speech act labeled as answer is the response to the speech act labeled as reqInfo based on the DART scheme (Weisser, 2019b). However, the interlocutor often simply utters "yeah," "alright," or "okay" (the speech act labeled as acknowledge) in response to a prior question (Weisser, 2018). Moreover, not every question is answered in conversations, as counter-questions, fragments, rejections, and other situations influence whether reqInfo and answer are equal in number (Weisser, 2018). This phenomenon also explains the decrease in rank of the speech act labeled as acknowledge in SALC. In SALC, questions more often took the form of special interrogatives that needed to be answered with substantial information than general questions. As a result, the speech act labeled as acknowledge was performed less often than the speech act labeled as answer. By contrast, the English L1 speakers in SC may not have felt the same pressure to complete a task as the EFL learners, since English is their L1. Hence, relatively more speech act labeled as acknowledge was performed in SC and was performed more casually.

Finally, another speech act that had a higher rank in SALC was referProcess. Following careful examination of the performance of this speech act, this study found that the task and the English proficiency level interact to give this speech act a high rank, as in example (7):

- (7) <frag n="63" sp-act="referProcess" polarity="positive" mode="frag">
He to study [study hard [hard <punc type="level" /></frag>
 <frag n="64" sp-act="referProcess" polarity="positive" mode="frag">
 <pause /> **going university to study** <punc type="level" /></frag>
 <dm n="81" sp-act="hesitate">
 um </dm>
 <frag n="65" sp-act="referProcess" polarity="positive" mode="frag">
 <pause /> **to also part time work** <punc type="level" /></frag> (SALC32)

This is a typical example of this speech act, which was performed by various participants in SALC. First, the speaker in (7) attempts to interact with the interlocutor by describing a series of events. This process is determined by the task itself. However, due to the limitation of the speaker's English proficiency, DART cannot capture the three declaratives that were supposed to be uttered with the correct verb forms. In fragment 63, no verb is given after the pronoun "he." In fragment 64, the non-finite verb "going" is uttered without a subject. In fragment 65, no subject or verb is provided. In these circumstances, DART can only mark the three fragments with the speech act labeled as referProcess, indicating that several actions are ongoing (Weisser, 2018). This phenomenon occurs because the English proficiency of the speaker does not allow them to use the correct grammatical structures to utter complete utterances. Both these factors (the task requirement and the English proficiency) cause the speech act labeled as referProcess to be highly ranked in SALC.

C. Unrecognized Annotation

DART uses the annotation label "unrecognized" to refer to the utterances for which DART cannot identify any SAC in the DART taxonomy (Weisser, 2019a, 2019b). Unrecognized annotation occurs because of the indeterminacy of spoken registers (Weisser, 2018). For SALC, DART marked 37 unrecognized instances, 25 of which belong to fragment units and 12 are fragments with overlapping. After manually annotating based on the DART taxonomy, four SACs were applied to the 37 instances. Table 3 shows the four SACs annotated manually with an example for each condition.

TABLE 3
SPEECH ACT CATEGORIES ANNOTATED MANUALLY

SAC annotated manually	syntactic structures	number of instances	one example
acknowledge	fragment	12	<frag n="20" sp-act="acknowledge" polarity="positive" mode=""> yeah it yes yes <punc type="stop" /> (SALC17)
	fragment with overlapping	8	<frag n="85" sp-act="acknowledge" polarity="positive" mode="confirm-frag"> you ok ok yes <overlap pos="start" /> one <punc type="stop" /> (SALC09)
refer	fragment	5	<frag n="102" sp-act="refer" polarity="positive" mode="frag"> post to [to post online <punc type="stop" /> (SALC23)
	fragment with overlapping	3	<frag n="11" sp-act="refer" polarity="positive" mode="frag"> going [going go there <overlap pos="end" /> one <punc type="stop" /> (SALC36)
answer	fragment with overlapping	6	<frag n="54" sp-act="answer"> it [it rain <overlap pos="start" /> one <punc type="stop" /> (SALC04)
echo	overlapping	3	<frag n="117" sp-act="echo" polarity="positive" mode="query"> him he brother <punc type="query" /> (SALC30)

As Table 4 illustrates, both fragments in the speech act labeled as acknowledge and refer annotated manually cannot be assigned to any SAC by DART, which may have been due to the redundancy in the utterances. The double use of “yes” appears after an “it” that seems to have no literal sense in the example of the speech act labeled as acknowledge retrieved from SALC17; and an original form of the verb “post” is used, followed by the non-finite verb form “to post” with a double use of “to” in the example of the speech act labeled as refer retrieved from SALC23. The same phenomenon is also captured in the fragment with overlapping, which is when the fragment uttered by the current speaker overlaps with a part of the utterance uttered by the previous speaker, such as the double use of “OK” in the middle of a fragment in the speech act labeled as acknowledge retrieved from SALC09. The dyadic interlanguage English conversation register used in this study is an informal spoken register that often has “incomplete or redundant, inconsistent, syntactic structure, and non-standard dictions” (Akmal et al., 2022, p. 505). Redundancy in the learners’ discourses was found to be due to their English language proficiencies (Staple & Fernández, 2019). The frequent redundancies in utterances result in an unclear semantic sense and lead to the non-recognition of the speech acts (Verdonik, 2022). Weisser (2018) mentions this potential problem with DART. Thus, DART is a semi-automatic annotation tool, and manual annotation is necessary after using the tool. The findings of this study show that DART has an annotation issue when annotating learner corpora and the semantic sense is unclear, primarily owing to the frequent redundancies in the learner discourses.

The findings and discussion above show that the differences in the way the most frequent speech acts are performed by EFL learners and English L1 speakers reflects the interlanguage pragmatic features of EFL learners. These features can be explained by the factors found in this study. Through the macro-perspective of studying the speech acts performed by EFL learners, this study found a complementary relationship between the grammatical performance and the pragmatic performance of the EFL learners. This finding is aligned with those of Mao (2021) and Mao and He (2021). The relationship between grammatical competence and pragmatic competence in interlanguage pragmatic studies has been studied for a long time, but inconsistent results—either a proportional relationship or no significant correlation—bring uncertainty to this issue (Mao, 2021; Pan, 2023a). As the analysis above shows, the complementary relationship of the two performances can be found in each speech act. For example, the correction of grammatical errors made by the speaker led to the correctSelf speech act, whereas the intention of correcting their own errors naturally led participants to utter a new repaired utterance; the tendency to use formulaic phrases, such as “I don’t know”, caused the high rank of the expressNonAwareness speech act, whereas the intention of indicating the participants’ lower degrees of certainty causes them to use formulaic language; the series of utterances with insufficient grammatical correctness result in the speech act labeled as referProcess, whereas the intention of completing the task and explaining the content more clearly causes the participants to process more utterances. Mao and He (2021, p. 10) used a new integrated model and found a “complementary relationship between grammatical competence and pragmatic competence, rather than the latter containing the former.” Through the results of DART and the researcher’s own analysis, this study found further evidence of the complementary relationship of the grammatical and pragmatic performances in the actual use of English by EFL learners in dyadic interlanguage English conversations.

Moreover, the macro-investigation of the speech acts performed by EFL learners revealed that the individual speech acts studied by previous researchers, such as request, refusal, complaint, and apology, were not used at high frequencies in the dyadic interlanguage English conversations. This research is consistent with the findings in those studies, but whether the performance of these individual speech acts by EFL learners can fully exhibit their pragmatic competence may need to be reconsidered. After all, previous research has indicated the issue whether speech acts can represent pragmatic competence, let alone the narrow focus on certain individual speech acts that are not used frequently in real communication (Fernández & Staple, 2022).

V. CONCLUSION

The results of this study reveal the pragmatic features of EFL learners' performance of speech acts by comparing their performance to that of English L1 speakers. This finding indicates the different performance of the speech acts and the different use of EFL in the interlanguage pragmatic field from a computational pragmatic perspective. Through the DART taxonomy and its semi-automatic annotation of the speech acts, the complementary relationship between the grammatical and pragmatic performances of EFL learners is revealed. This finding provides a new viewpoint based on the semi-automatic annotation tool with the extended speech act taxonomy.

In addition, this study used the semi-automatic annotation tool to annotate the speech acts in a learner corpus. The intention was to expand the annotation to interlanguage pragmatic studies, which has rarely been done (Staple & Fernández, 2019; Fernández, 2022). Problems in the annotation of the learner corpus were discussed. Given that the learner discourses may be more likely to contain redundancies and fragments, the annotation problems discussed in this study may provide insights for the development of the annotation tool.

This study involved participants from Asia. Future research could investigate speech acts performed by speakers with other L1 backgrounds. Furthermore, the semi-automatic annotation tool should be used in different spoken registers with different learner corpora.

APPENDIX XML CONVENTIONS

All participants' names are pseudonyms.

<>	XML format for decoding information
[	repetition of the same word
<pause />	longer pause
del	declarative
sp-act	speech act
"level"	uncompleted utterance
"stop"	utterance completed
"query"	a question
<turn />	the turn-taking to a new interlocutor

REFERENCES

- [1] Akmal, H., Syahriyani, A., & Handayani, T. (2022). Request speech act of Indonesian English learners and Australian English speakers through cross-cultural pragmatic perspectives. *LEARN Journal: Language Education and Acquisition Research Network*, 15(2), 498-520.
- [2] Austin, J. L. (1962). *How to do things with words*. Oxford University Press.
- [3] Budeng, R. B., & Merza, H. N. M. (2023). Assessing interlanguage pragmatic competence on speech acts in a Filipino EFL context. *Corpus Pragmatics*, 7(2), 85-102. <http://dx.doi.org/10.1007/s41701-023-00137-y>
- [4] Council of Europe. (2020). *Common European Framework of Reference for languages: Learning, teaching, assessment-companion volume*. Retrieved May 10, 2023, from *Council of Europe Publishing*. www.coe.int/lang-cefr
- [5] Fernández, J. (2022). Corpus linguistics in L2 pragmatics research. *Applied Pragmatics*, 4(2), 178-198. <https://doi.org/10.1075/ap.00008.fer>
- [6] Fernández, J. (2023). Pragmatics in learner corpora. In C. A. Chapelle (Ed.), *The encyclopedia of applied linguistics*, (pp. 1-6). Wiley.
- [7] Fernández, J., & Staples, S. (2021). Pragmatic approach. In N. Tracy-Ventura, & M. Paquot (Eds.), *Routledge handbook of second language acquisition and corpora* (pp. 240-251). Routledge.
- [8] Granger, S. (2015). Contrastive interlanguage analysis: A reappraisal. *International Journal of Learner Corpus Research*, 1(1), 7-24. <http://dx.doi.org/10.1075/ijlcr.1.1.01gra>
- [9] Harris, D. W. (2019). Intention and commitment in speech acts. *Theoretical Linguistics*, 45(1-2), 53-67. <https://doi.org/10.1515/tl-2019-0004>
- [10] Hosoda, Y., & Aline, D. (2021). Deployment of I don't know and wakannai in second language classroom peer discussions. *Text & Talk*, 42(1), 27-49. <https://doi.org/10.1515/text-2019-0275>
- [11] House, J., & Kádár, D. Z. (2023). An interactional approach to speech acts for applied linguistics. *Applied Linguistics Review* [Online first], 1-21. <http://dx.doi.org/10.1515/applirev-2022-0116>
- [12] Huang, L. (2021). Toward multimodal corpus pragmatics: Rationale, case, and agenda. *Digital Scholarship in the Humanities*, 36(1), 101-114. <http://dx.doi.org/10.1093/dlsc/fqz080>
- [13] Khamkhien, A. (2022). Speech acts or speech act sets of refusals: Some evidence from Thai L2 learners. *Novitas-Royal*, 16(1), 97-121.
- [14] Mao, T. (2021). Investigation of L2/Ln pragmatic competence: Its core and route map. *Frontier in Psychology*, 12, 1-10. <https://doi.org/10.3389/fpsyg.2021.690550>
- [15] Mao, T., & He, S. (2021). An integrated approach to pragmatic competence: Its framework and properties. *SAGE Open*, 11(2), 1-13. <http://dx.doi.org/10.1177/21582440211011472>
- [16] McEnery, T., Brezina, V., Gablasova, D., & Banejee, J. (2019). Corpus linguistics, learner corpora, and SLA: Employing technology to analyze language use. *Annual Review of Applied Linguistics*, 39, 74-92. <http://dx.doi.org/10.1017/S0267190519000096>
- [17] Pan, Z. (2023a). Examination of data collection methods for pragmatic competence assessment of EFL learners. *International Journal of English Language and Literature Studies*, 12(2), 159-171. <http://dx.doi.org/10.55493/5019.v12i2.4798>

- [18] Pan, Z. (2023b). Formulaic language use by learners of English in interlanguage communication. *World Journal of English Language*, 13(7), 128-139. <https://doi.org/10.5430/wjel.v13n7p128>
- [19] Searle, J. (1979). *Expression and meaning studies in the theory of speech acts*. Cambridge University Press.
- [20] Staples, S., & Fernández, J. (2019). Corpus linguistics approaches to L2 pragmatics research. In N. Taguchi (Ed.), *The Routledge handbook of second language acquisition and pragmatics* (pp. 241-254). Routledge.
- [21] Taguchi, N. (2022). Second language pragmatics: A historical overview and future directions. In W. Ren (Ed.), *Second language pragmatics* (pp. 7-25). Cambridge University Press.
- [22] Tübben, I. T., & Landert, D. (2022). *Uh* and *um* as pragmatic markers in dialogues: A contrastive perspective on the functions of planners in fiction and conversation. *Contrastive Pragmatics*, 4(2), 350-381. <https://doi.org/10.1163/26660393-bja10049>
- [23] Verdonik, D. (2022). Annotating dialogue acts in speech data: Problematic issues and basic dialogue act categories. *International Journal of Corpus Linguistics*, 28(2), 144-171. <https://doi.org/10.1075/ijcl.20165.ver>
- [24] Weisser, M. (2018). *How to do corpus pragmatics on pragmatically annotated data: Speech acts and beyond*. John Benjamins.
- [25] Weisser, M. (2019a). *Manual for the Dialogue Annotation & Research Tool (DART)*. Retrieved March 1, 2023, from http://martinweisser.org/publications/DART_manual_v3.0.pdf
- [26] Weisser, M. (2019b). The DART annotation scheme: form, applicability & application. *Studia Neophilologica*, 91(2), 131-153. <https://doi.org/10.1080/00393274.2019.1616218>
- [27] Weisser, M. (2020). Speech acts in corpus pragmatics: Making the case for an extended taxonomy. *International Journal of Corpus Linguistics*, 25(4), 400-425. <https://doi.org/10.1075/ijcl.19023.wei>
- [28] Weisser, M. (2021). Profiling learners through pragmatically and error annotated corpora. In P. Pérez-Paredes, & G. Mark (Eds.), *Beyond the concordance: corpora in language education* (pp. 121-148). John Benjamins.
- [29] Yoon, S. (2020). The learner corpora of spoken English: What has been done and what should be done. *Language Research*, 56(1), 29-51. <https://doi.org/10.30961/lr.2020.56.1.29>
- [30] Yuan, W., & Lyu, S. (2022). Speech act matters: Commitment to what's said or what's implicated differs in the case of assertion and promise. *Journal of Pragmatics*, 191, 128-142. DOI: 10.1016/j.pragma.2022.01.012



Zhaoyi Pan holds a Ph.D. in applied linguistics from the English as an International Language Program, the Graduate School, Chulalongkorn University, Bangkok, Thailand. He is now working as an English specialist in the English Language Coordinating Section, the School of Information Technology, King Mongkut's University of Technology Thonburi. His research interests are interlanguage pragmatics, intercultural pragmatics, corpus linguistics, and learner corpus research.

Emotional Blackmail in *Breaking Bad* Series: A Pragma-Stylistic Study

Afrah S. Najem

College of Education for Women, University of Baghdad, Baghdad, Iraq

Nawal F. Abbas*

College of Education for Women, University of Baghdad, Baghdad, Iraq

Abstract—Although language research has focused on blackmail in general, less attention has been paid to emotional blackmail. To date, researchers could not locate any literature that examines emotional blackmail from a linguistic standpoint. The current study is intended to fill this gap by scrutinizing emotional blackmail from a pragma-stylistic point of view by examining the style of the characters in selected episodes extracted from the American *Breaking Bad* series. To carry out the study, an eclectic model comprising kinds of emotional blackmailers by Forward and Frazier (1997), Searles' speech acts (1979), Grice's maxims (1975), Brown and Levinson's politeness (1987), Culpeper's impoliteness (1996), and Simpson's stylistic levels (2004) will be used. The study examines how emotional blackmailers reflect themselves through language and how different pragmatic theories contribute to detecting emotional blackmail. The pragma-stylistic analysis reveals that emotional blackmailers use different pragmatic and stylistic elements. Pragmatically, the analysis demonstrates that punishers more frequently utilize commissive speech acts, whereas sufferers more frequently use representative and expressive speech acts. Besides, the punishers' speech is realized by breaching the quantity and manner maxims whereas the sufferer's speech is manifested by breaching the quantity and quality maxims. Concerning (im)politeness, the punishing behavior is accomplished by positive politeness, negative impoliteness, bold on-record impoliteness, and positive impoliteness while the suffering behavior is accomplished through positive politeness. Stylistically, the language used to talk about suffering is associated with discomfort and unhappiness. Concerning grammar, the punishing discourse emphasizes threats through fronting strategies. With suffering, negative auxiliaries are used.

Index Terms—emotional blackmail, (im)politeness, pragma-stylistics, speech acts

I. INTRODUCTION

In the sixteenth century, blackmail and extortion were terms used to describe requesting money to prevent damage to another person. The threat of publishing harmful information was then employed for the first time independently in 1843 under the term 'blackmail' (Dressler, 2002). Consequently, Solan and Tiersma (2005) and Shuy (2005) provide a list of crimes that can be committed with words. These crimes include solicitation to commit murder, solicitation to engage in sex, conspiracy, bribery, threats, blackmail, perjury, fraud, buying or selling stolen property, and submitting misleading statements to government agencies. Consequently, blackmail is viewed as a crime.

The present study is more concerned with emotional blackmail by which a person manipulates other people's emotions for different purposes. Emotional blackmail includes optimistic promises and offers to influence others' behavior other than threats. In this respect, emotional blackmail widens the concept of blackmail to include more manipulative strategies as a means of influence. In the TV works of dramatic criminal contexts, emotional blackmail is too apparent and extensively used to show how criminal and non-criminal acts are sometimes motivated. *Breaking Bad* is an American TV series about a drug dealer who blackmails a chemistry teacher who is a cancer patient into manufacturing drugs. Thus, it is considered adequate to represent how people emotionally blackmail each other for different purposes using different communicative strategies.

The study aims to pragma-stylistically recognize the characters' different styles while practicing emotional blackmail. Nevertheless, this aim can be more specified in the following research questions:

- 1- What are the kinds of emotional blackmailers detected in the selected data?
- 2- How can these kinds be pragmatically manifested?
- 3- How are these kinds stylistically manifested at the lexical and grammatical levels?

This study is expected to benefit linguists in general and pragma-styliticians in particular. Additionally, it is believed that defining the most critical pragma-stylistic strategies can be advantageous to blackmail crime investigators to enhance their awareness of the language used by blackmailers. Furthermore, exposing the deceptive motives of emotional blackmailers will raise people's consciousness of how to avoid falling victims to blackmail and assist them in resisting and complying with the blackmailers' demands.

* Corresponding Author

II. LITERATURE REVIEW

A. *Pragma-Stylistics*

Hickey (1993) argues that stylistics recently relocates towards integrating pragmatic theories to account for certain linguistic phenomena and language use that stylistics finds challenging to explain. Therefore, pragma-stylistics is stylistic with a pragmatic component (as cited in Al-Janabi, 2020, p. 3). Pragma-stylistics aims to explain how effective structures are created by applying pragmatic theories to literary works (Davies, 2007). Nevertheless, according to the modern concept of stylistics, non-literary texts can also be analyzed stylistically, so the emphasis is no longer solely on literary texts (Jeffries & McIntyre, 2010).

B. *Emotional Blackmail*

(a). *Definitions of Emotional Blackmail*

Forward and Frazier (1997) introduce emotional blackmail as a type of blackmail that employs specific weapons to dominate and influence others; it occurs in almost every kind of interpersonal relationship between people and a variety of social settings. Emotional blackmail deprives any relationship of its security, i.e., the characteristics of concern and trust that allow one to open up to another without fear of the most profound thoughts and feelings being exposed. FOG is invented as an acronym for the three instruments of the blackmailer's craft: Fear, Obligation, and Guilt. Blackmailers infuse their relationships with an encompassing fog, guaranteeing that their victims are afraid of confronting them, feel forced to show them respect and feel awful if they do not. According to Mu-Tzu (2017), blackmailers can control the victims' emotions by undermining their abilities, inciting remorse, and taking away their sense of security.

(b). *Kinds of Emotional Blackmailers*

Emotional blackmail is similar to conventional blackmail in that someone attempts to extract something from another by leveraging that person's secrets against him or her and manipulating their emotions. According to the explanation provided by Forward and Frazier (1997), emotional blackmail can be defined as a highly effective means of control whereby individuals within our immediate circle of relationships employ direct or indirect threats to penalize us for noncompliance with their desires. The essence of any form of blackmail lies in a fundamental threat, which can be articulated in various ways. Forward and Frazier (1997) identify **four** distinct kinds of emotional blackmailers. These kinds are summarized as follows:

1. **Punishers** are the most evident blackmailers due to their blatant use of rage and threats. They approach relationships with an attitude of "my way or the highway" and often make threats such as "If you do X, I'll do Y." Punishers may threaten others either directly or indirectly via the use of silence or withholding. If the addressee does not comply with a punisher's demands, they may threaten him/her with desertion, emotional isolation, loss of money or other resources, or physical violence. An example of this type is, "I will not be here when you return if you go out tonight with your friends". (p. 31)
2. **Self-punishers:** instead of threatening others with negative consequences, self-punishers manipulate others by threatening to harm themselves. A typical threat self-punishers use throughout an acute situation is that they place responsibility on people to account for the consequences of what happens to them. For example, "If you don't do X, I'll get sad, relapse, lose my job, try suicide, etc." They manipulate people's feelings of responsibility by portraying themselves as defenseless and placing the addressee in the rescuer position; for example, "stop hurting me, or I'll end my life so you can get rest". (p. 39)
3. **Sufferers** believe that if they get what they wish for (such as more daily phone calls, financial support, etc.), any undesirable experience (such as feeling ill, lonely, depressed, or unlucky) can be quickly resolved. Some people express their discontent explicitly, while others may choose to suffer in silence and communicate their discontent through body language and other nonverbal cues. Sufferers think others can read their thoughts and take offense when they cannot. In other words, they are skilled accusers and guilt-pushers who frequently make us understand what they desire and then constantly conclude that it is our responsibility to ensure that they obtain it. An example of this type is, "Being distant gets me lonely. Come back and end my torture". (p. 43)
4. **Tantalizers:** the tantalizer's blackmail method is far more sophisticated than the others. There are usually restrictions attached to the tantalizer's promises, such as money, job promotion, or the ideal relationship. Once their demands have been fulfilled, tantalizers frequently break their promises, coming up with new excuses as to why what has been done for them does not meet their expectations. An example of this type is, "If you stay in tonight, we will have a lot more fun than if you went out. This is crucial for our friendship". (p. 49)

C. *Pragmatics of Emotional Blackmail*

Pragmatics, according to Baker (2018), in general, "is the study of language in use. It is the study of meaning not as generated by the linguistic system but as conveyed and manipulated by participants in a communicative situation" (as

cited in Mohammed & Abbas, 2016, p. 76). Many pragmatic theories are utilized to identify emotional blackmail as will be explained in the following sections.

(a). *Speech Acts Theory*

Aldhulaee (2011) states that Austin introduced the speech act theory in 1962, and Searle expanded on it in 1969. According to this theory, utterances are the means through which messages are transferred in communication (as cited in Abbas et al., 2023). Fromkin et al. (2019) define a Speech Act (SA) as the activity or intent that a speaker performs when utilizing language in context, the meaning of which is inferred by listeners.

Qassim et al. (2021) summarize Phuong's (2006) view indicating that if pragmatic competence is insufficient or defective, the SA will not be used properly; it will lead to misunderstandings and communication breakdowns. Searle (1975) offered his categorization of speech acts, referring to them as illocutionary activities, with the following five categories: representatives, expressives, commissives, directives, and declarations (as cited in Almarsomi & Hussein, 2021, p. 5).

(b). *Grice's Maxims*

Cruse (2000) shows that because interactions are guided by cooperative principles, they are more than just a series of disconnected words generated at random (as cited in Hadi & Mehdi, 2023, p. 25). Abbas (2020) states that cooperation in conversation is often controlled by a turn-taking system in which the interlocutors take turns according to specific norms, the most significant of which is that only one speaker talks at a time. Besides, Grice (1975) emphasizes the value of the cooperative principle (CP) in talks and outlines four fundamental maxims: quantity, quality, relevance, and manner that define a cooperative discourse (as cited in Hussein, 2020, p. 7).

(c). *Politeness Theory*

Reiter (2000) claims that the term "politus," which means "smoothed or accomplished," is the source of the word 'politeness' (as cited in Rasheed & Kalaf, 2022, p. 3). According to Watts (1989; as cited in Abdul-Majeed, 2009, p. 510), politeness is defined as a language use that is thought to go above and beyond what is expected. As far as Leech (1996, p. 108) is concerned, "politeness" should be understood and connected to the speech's surface level. It is unrelated to the utterance when used outside of the intended context (as cited in El-Samir, 2014, p. 6). Brown and Levinson's (1987) politeness theory centers on the concept of "face", which comprises positive and negative aspects. A negative face reflects the desire to avoid imposition, while a positive face involves seeking admiration and approval (as cited in Qassim et al., 2023). Abbas (2013) states that speakers, in conversation, do not haphazardly select their politeness strategies, but their choice is limited by sociocultural factors. Politeness includes four strategies as follows:

1. Bald on-record strategy: it is adopted when S does not take any remedial action to mitigate threats to the hearer's (H's) face and when there is just one clear goal implied by the act (Brown & Levinson, 1987).

2. Positive politeness strategy: it is deployed to reduce the severity of any potential face damage. It reflects typical verbal exchanges between close friends and family (Brown & Levinson, 1987). Brown and Levinson (1987) identify 15 positive politeness sub-strategies listed as follows: Notice, attend to H (his interest, wants, needs, goods), Exaggerate (interest, approval, sympathy with H), Intensify interest to H, Use in-group identity markers, Seek agreement, Avoid disagreement, Presuppose/raise/assert a common ground, Joke, Assert or presuppose S's knowledge of and concern for H's wants, Offer, promise, Be optimistic, Include both S and H in the activity, Give (or ask for) reasons, Assume or assert reciprocity, and give gifts to H (goods, sympathy, understanding, cooperation)".

1. Negative politeness strategy: it is utilized and directed towards H's negative face. To put it differently, S is conscious of H's preferences and makes an effort not to invade H's territory. Brown and Levinson (1978) provide a list of ten impoliteness sub-strategies: "Be conventionally indirect, Hedges, Be pessimistic, Minimise the imposition, Give deference, Apologies, Impersonalize S and H, State the FTA as a general rule, Nominalize, and Go on record as incurring debt or not indebting H."

2. Off-record politeness strategy: it is used to subtly portray actions when the H's face is not in danger. The S frequently uses indirectness to convey politeness indirectly without stating a request explicitly (Brown & Levinson, 1987).

(d). *Impoliteness Theory*

As per Leech (2014), the most effective approach to theorizing about impoliteness is to start with a theory of politeness, since impoliteness is the exact opposite of politeness and a closely related phenomenon. Thus, Culpeper (1996) uses Brown and Levinson's model of politeness to establish his idea of impoliteness. However, Qassim and Abbas (2022) affirm that Culpeper (1996) excludes the non-verbal manifestations of impoliteness, such as the one-finger gesture, spitting, and similar behaviors, and limits his model to verbal manifestations. Impoliteness includes five main strategies as follows:

1- Bald on record impoliteness

This strategy is used when a speaker means to hurt the hearer's face, and the unpleasant utterance is delivered immediately and plainly (Bousfield, 2008). In this case, Culpeper employs the face-attack act (FAA) instead of the face-threatening act (FTA) to distinguish the face attack when the speaker has a conscious aim (Mullany & Stockwell, 2010).

2-Positive Impoliteness

According to Bousfield and Locher (2008), this strategy undermines the hearer's desire for acceptance and a positive face. According to Mullany and Stockwell (2010), Culpeper (2005) adds several sub-strategies to positive impoliteness in his model's revision. Mohammed and Abbas (2016, p. 199) enlist them in brief as follows:

1. "Ignoring or snubbing the other.
2. Denying common ground with the hearer.
3. Selecting a sensitive or undesirable topic to talk about.
4. Using inappropriate identity markers.
5. Being disinterested and unsympathetic with the hearer.
6. Looking for disagreements.
7. Using obscure language and inserting secretive words within the discourse.
8. Using taboo words".

3- Negative impoliteness

The strategy targets the hearer's need to be free from imposition, which corresponds to his negative face (Thielemann & Kosta, 2013). According to Culpeper's (2005) model, negative impoliteness encompasses the subsequent sub-strategies (as cited in Mohammed & Abbas, 2016, p. 199):

- "scorn
- frighten
- ridicule
- And invade the hearer's space literally or metaphorically".

4- Sarcasm or mock impoliteness

Sarcasm or mock impoliteness alludes that the speaker executes the FTA using insincere politeness strategies (Thielemann & Kosta, 2013). To put it another way, sarcasm refers to the use of one or more politeness sub-strategies that appear appropriate and acceptable on the surface but signify the exact opposite (Bousfield, 2008).

5-Withhold politeness

This strategy is executed when the speaker disobeys the rules of etiquette and politeness, such as by failing to express gratitude to the listener when appropriate (Thielemann & Kosta, 2013).

D. Stylistics of Emotional Blackmail

According to Halliday (1978), stylistics is the study of language elements that directly impact an utterance's meaning, including phonology, lexicology, and syntax. As per Bloomfield's (1976) definition, stylistics involves analyzing and interpreting a language element or unique linguistic feature in a written piece, text, or collection of works while style, according to Lucas (1955), is the skillful use of words, particularly in prose, to convey ideas or arouse feelings.

Stylistic Levels

Stylistic linguists such as Simpson (2004) employ levels when examining texts. In other words, scholars have agreed that several levels of stylistic analysis are used when analyzing texts. The levels are divided into graphology, phonology, morphology syntax (grammar), lexical, semantics, pragmatics, and discourse analysis. The stylistic levels for the analysis in this study will be limited to lexical and grammatical levels because they are more comprehensible during the analysis by the researchers.

1. The Lexical Level

Words or sequences are not only phonetic chains, but they also have a role in the language's morphological structure and semantic context, making them lexical items. It would be challenging to locate a series of letters without any semantic coloring (Simpson, 2004, p. 170). A language user may communicate effectively with an audience by selecting the appropriate lexical items and sentence structures (Jeffries & McIntyre, 2010; Simpson, 2004).

2. The Grammatical level

According to Lewis and Short (1879; as cited in Namwandi, 2019), grammar refers to the scientific study of the structure and organization of words, phrases, and sentences. In other words, this level examines the linguistic structure of the emotional blackmail discourse.

III. METHODOLOGY

The present study is qualitative in nature. The social context is crucial because it influences the significance of social acts; that is why qualitative research is "situationally constrained" (Neuman, 2014, p. 17). Thus, two excerpts from *Breaking Bad* are analyzed qualitatively to examine and interpret how characters emotionally blackmail others and to examine the pragma-stylistic manifestations of emotional blackmail. The researchers watched the series and selected the episodes that served the aims of the study. The scripts of the episodes were obtained from "*Breaking Bad - Transcripts - Forever Dreaming*" (2018).

The study develops an eclectic model for the analysis comprising two layers. The first layer examines the excerpts in terms of Forward and Frazier's (1997) classification of the types of emotional blackmailers. The second layer examines the pragma-stylistic manifestations of the emotional blackmail discourse of the first layer. The second layer of analysis is carried out by adopting the following models:

1. Speech Acts Theory (Searle, 1979).
2. Grice's Maxims (1975).
3. Politeness Theory (Brown & Levinson, 1987).
4. Impoliteness Theory (Culpeper, 1996).
5. Stylistic (lexical and grammatical) levels (Simpson, 2004).

IV. DATA ANALYSIS

Excerpt 1:

Hank blackmailing Walter (Season 5/Episode 11)

If you're watching this tape. I'm probably dead, murdered by my brother-in-law, Hank Schrader. Hank has been building a meth empire and using me as his chemist and when I tried to quit, Fring threatened my family. The bomb that he used was built by me. He gave me no option in that I have often contemplated suicide but I was frightened. To keep me in line, he took my children. For three months he kept them. My wife had no idea of my criminal activities and was horrified to learn what I had done. I was in hell. I hated myself for what I had brought upon my family. I can't take this anymore. I live in fear every day that Hank will kill me or worse, hurt my family. All I could think to do was to make this video and hope that the world would finally see this man for what he is. Who do you think he's shown this to? No one. It's a threat. It's what he will do if I don't back off.

(Breaking Bad, Season 5, Episode 11)

Contextualization of Excerpt 1

Walter White is an underpaid, overqualified, and despondent high school chemistry teacher battling a recent stage three lung cancer diagnosis. In this episode, Walter, the main character, makes a video of his confession to resist Hank's blackmail and manipulation, assuring that Hank stimulates his criminal activities.

Analysis of Excerpt 1

1. Emotional Blackmailer

The researchers are not concerned with whether these claims are authentic or fake but with the kind of emotional blackmail given to the character in the context of this confession video. Hank, in this excerpt, is considered a punisher blackmailer because of his direct threats that give a sharp picture of what will happen if Walter does not obey his demands. In this episode, Walter confesses everything in a video found only in case he dies. In some lines within his confession, he retells how Hank has blackmailed him. He reports how Hank emotionally blackmails him with overt threats. Walter states that his brother-in-law, Hank, is a danger to his family. He also adds that Hank will hurt him or his family if he does not continue cooking meth. He has forced Walter to cook the meth for trading it in America, and his work with the DEA (Drug Enforcement Agency) helps him know how drugs are distributed.

Furthermore, Hank took Walter's children for three months to force Walter to continue cooking him meth. Hence, punishers manipulate their victims emotionally to control them by intensifying the emotions of fear and obligation. Fear is an emotion that arises when victims perceive a threat or danger.

2. Pragma-stylistic Realizations of Emotional Blackmail in Excerpt 1

i. Speech Acts

The lines provided are a monologue from a character in a TV show. The analysis reveals that Hank is making several speech acts. The punishing acts reported in this video by Walter are realized in discourse through commissive speech acts showing future actions that could happen if Walter does not obey Hank's instructions. Hank threatens to hurt Walter's family if he does not agree to make and cook the meth for his meth empire, as stated in *"To keep me in line, he took my children. For three months, he kept them"* and *"It's a threat. It's what he will do if I don't back off"*.

In this excerpt, it appears that Hank manipulates Walter's feelings and fear of being killed to influence him to continue his job. The blackmailer plays on the grounds of paternal feelings that no one can be satisfied when hurting his family. That is why Walter uses the expressive speech acts to entail his sorrow and dilemma for which Hank is blamed, as in *"I was in hell. I hated myself for what I had brought upon my family"* and *"I can't take this anymore"*. Walter also expresses his feelings of fear, hatred, and regret, such as *"I live in fear every day that Hank will kill me or worse, hurt my family"*. These are expressive speech acts that reflect the victim's situation. They are taken into consideration as a threshold to analyze the blackmailer's speech since the extract is a monologue, not a dialogue.

The blackmailer intimidated the victim by killing him utilizing a commissive speech act of future threats. Another commissive speech act used by Hank and described by Walter is that Hank has threatened him by ruining his reputation and exposing criminal activities among his family and friends. These future threats are executed by Hank, as shown in *"My wife had no idea of my criminal activities was horrified to learn what I had done"*. To conclude, those future fears and threats are commissive speech acts of emotional blackmail. Hank threatens Walter of future harm. Thus, emotional blackmail is not very comforting and can cause anyone to alter his mind and obey commands.

ii. Grice's Maxims

In terms of Grice's maxims, the discourse of emotional blackmail, as reported by Walter, shows a non-observance type of quantity maxim. That is Walter, the victim, is more informative than is needed and employs repetition. A

possible interpretation is that the effect of blackmailers on their victims makes them nervous and frightened, which is reflected eventually in their speech.

iii. Im/politeness

Walter's description of Hank's threats is examined to realize the punisher's style in discourse. As clearly evident, the strategy of negative impoliteness is used by Hank, specifically by being disinterested and unsympathetic to the hearer (Walter). Additionally, bold-on-record impoliteness is expressed via the direct and violent threat, i.e., by frightening the victim. This is clear in the phrases that show Walter's fear of Hank's intimidation and his desire to commit suicide to end his misery, as in "*He gave me no option in that I have often contemplated suicide but I was frightened*" and "*I can't take this anymore. I live in fear every day that Hank will kill me or hurt my family*".

In terms of politeness, no strategies are detected in the extract that might show Hank's concern or even respect for Walter.

iv. Stylistic Levels

Concerning the lexical level, Hank blackmails Walter using aggressive language to refer to Hank's threats with explicit words of negative connotations such as '*death*' and '*fear*'. Examples of lexical choice include: '*fear*', '*bomb*', '*kill*', '*hurt*', '*horrified*', '*frightened*', '*hate*', and '*threat*'.

The grammatical level comprises the use of *if-clause* and *cleft sentences* to emphasize the potential hurt in "*It's a threat. It's what he will do if I don't back off.*". Moreover, the fronting of objects and adverbial clauses highlight the consequences and threats as in "*The bomb that he used were built by me, To keep me in line, he took my children. For three months he kept them*".

This denotes that negative aggressive lexis and fronting strategies are dominant in structuring the emotional blackmail discourse. Not only to manipulate texts but also to manipulate the emotions of blackmailed people.

Excerpt 2:

Jesse blackmailing Walter (Season 5 /Episode 13)

How do you like that, genius? I'll give you a hint, Walt. It involves a couple of five-gallon cans of gasoline and a lighter. No, no, no! Jesse, please, listen to me. No, you listen to me, bitch. You get your ass out here as fast as you can. Yes, I'm coming. Okay! Okay! And don't even think about calling anyone for help, all right? You hang up on me, put me on hold...lose my call for any reason as soon as you do, I'm burning all of it. All right You get the picture? -I get it, I get it. Okay. -All right. You better hurry because I'm burning 10 grand a minute till you get here, starting right now. I said, I'm coming! Don't you touch my money! Fire in the hole, bitch. N There goes 10 G's. -Oh, nice orange flames.

(Breaking Bad, Season 5, Episode 13)

Contextualization of Excerpt 2

In this excerpt, Jesse, the former student of Walter, blackmails the latter by manipulating his feelings. Jesse was a student of Walter in the chemistry class, and then Walter discovered that Jesse was working on distributing drugs. In this scene, Jesse calls Walter and pretends he will burn 10,000 dollars of Walter's money if the latter does not meet Jesse at a specific place. Jesse does so to bring Walter, whom Hank will arrest.

Analysis of Excerpt 2

1. Emotional Blackmailer

Jesse, in this excerpt, is categorized as a punisher. He threatens to burn all of Walter's money unless he comes to him immediately, using the threat of financial loss to manipulate Walter into doing what he wants. Besides, he tells Walter that he has cans of gasoline and a lighter and will burn \$10,000 a minute until Walter arrives. He also threatens to burn the money if Walter hangs up on him or puts him on hold, further emphasizing his control over the situation. Jesse's use of emotionally charged language adds to the situation's intensity and increases the pressure on Walter to comply with Jesse's demands. By burning the money, Jesse is essentially holding Walter's financial security hostage, forcing him to act in a way that he may not want to. Jesse's language is a powerful example of how emotional blackmail can be used to manipulate others. It shows how someone can use threats and emotional manipulation to control another person's behavior, even if it means causing harm or destruction. To sum up, punishers use strong language and threats to assert dominance and convey urgency.

2. Pragma-stylistic Realizations of Emotional Blackmail in Excerpt 2

i. Speech Acts

Jesse blackmails Walter using different types of speech acts. Jesse uses an expressive speech act to express his anger and emotionally blackmail Walter to obey his demands. For instance, "*How do you like that, genius?*" is an example of an expressive speech act conveying Jesse's frustration and anger towards Walter. Jesse uses the commissive speech act of threat to blackmail Walter by denoting future negative actions and promises of harm and damage in "*You hang up on me, put me on hold...lose my call for any reason...as soon as you do, I'm burning all of it.*" Another example of a commissive speech act is when Jesse says, "*You better hurry because I'm burning 10 grand a minute till you get here, starting right now*" because he promises to burn the money unless Walter arrives.

In addition, a representative speech act is also used by Jesse with the implicit purpose of threat in "*Well, I'll give you a hint, Walt. It involves a couple of five-gallon cans of gasoline and a lighter.*" A directive speech act appears to mean a command for doing an action is evident in "*No, you listen to me, bitch. You get your ass out here as fast as you can. A*

declaration speech act is used to change the world through speaking. For example, the phrase *"Fire in the hole, bitch"* is an example of a declaration speech act that changes the world by lighting Walter's money on fire. Overall, this excerpt contains a variety of speech acts that reflect emotional blackmailing.

ii. Grice's Maxims

Jesse, the punisher, breaches the quantity maxim since the emotional blackmail is conveyed with over-informative speech. He threatens to burn Walter's money and implies that he wants Walter to come to him immediately by providing an informative explanation for the sequences if Walter does not come. By breaching the quantity maxim, Jesse creates a sense of urgency and shows his anger to get what he wants. Jesse uses over-informative speech and repetition to create suspense, worry, tension, and a chaotic atmosphere.

The maxim of manner is also breached when Jesse refers to burning the money using the symbols 'lighter and gas' unclearly to play with words. Jesse aims at manipulating and puzzling Walter to increase the strength of the threat as it is on the phone. Rather than declaring the threat explicitly, he threatens implicitly.

iii. Politeness

Jesse uses a positive politeness strategy to intensify interest in Walter, as stated in *"I'll give you a hint"*. His aim here is not truly to account for Walter's positive or negative face, but rather Jesse wants to manipulate Walter and perplex him to make the threat sound more serious.

iv. Impoliteness

Bald on-record impoliteness is expressed in Jesse's language without any attempt to mitigate his harsh language as in *"You get your ass out here as fast as you can"*, *"And don't even think about calling anyone for help, all right?"* and *"No, you listen to me, bitch"*. Besides being direct, these utterances incorporate positive impoliteness represented by using taboo words such as *'bitch'* and *'ass'* to call Walter.

Negative impoliteness is also used via the sub-strategy of frightening, for example, *"lose my call for any reason as soon as you do, I'm burning all of it"*. Frightening denotes that Jesse uses language to intimidate or create fear in the recipient. In the given lines, the threat to burn the money can be seen as frightening behavior. Moreover, the word *"genius"* in *"How do you like that, genius?"* can be seen as sarcasm or mock politeness, potentially threatening the positive face of the person being addressed. By using sarcasm and mockery, Jesse emotionally punishes Walter and blackmails him.

v. Stylistic Levels

On the lexical level of style, Jesse includes taboo words like *'bitch'* and *'ass'* and words denoting negative aspects of future actions such as *'burning'*, *'lighter'*, and *'gasoline'*.

The grammatical level of analysis includes using the negative element 'no' before the imperative *'you listen'* and using the question tag *"all right?"*. Jesse also uses imperative sentences to give commands and make threats, such as *"You get your ass out here as fast as you can"*. Using these stylistic elements helps blackmailers achieve their goals by practicing signs of emotional blackmail, such as manipulation, threats, guilt-tripping, and controlling behavior.

Excerpt 3:

Walter Blackmailing Jesse (Season 5 /Episode 13)

-No, no, no! Jesse-- Jesse, please. I'm dying. My cancer is back. You're not hurting anyone but my family. Okay? I can't spend this money. It's not for me. I won't be around long enough to use it. It belongs to my children I am sorry about Brock.

(Breaking Bad, Season 5, Episode 13)

Contextualization of Excerpt 3

In this excerpt, Walter is manipulating his former student's feelings. Walter aims to convince Jesse not to burn the money. To reach his aims, Walter describes his suffering and misery to seek Jesse's sympathy and states that this money belongs to his children. Walter is trying to evoke the feeling of guilt in Jesse if he burns the money. This speech is intended by Walter to emotionally blackmail Jesse by making him responsible for the suffering of Walter's family.

Analysis of Excerpt 3

1. Emotional Blackmailer

Sufferer blackmailers manipulate victims' emotions, making them feel guilty for their distress, and using their pain to manipulate them into committing their desired actions. Walter uses his illness, precisely the fact that his cancer has returned, to evoke sympathy and guilt in Jesse. By emphasizing his deteriorating health, he attempts to manipulate Jesse into complying with his wishes. Walter implies that if Jesse does not comply with his demands, it will negatively impact his family. This statement is meant to make Jesse feel responsible for the well-being of Walter's family. By stating that the money is not for Walter's benefit and belongs to his children, he is trying to persuade Jesse to fulfill his financial desires. After his death, Walter implies that his children will suffer without this money because it is the only source to maintain their future. He uses his suffering from cancer to affect Jesse. Walter obeys Jesse's command to indicate his submission to Jesse. Overall, these lines demonstrate a combination of guilt-tripping, emotional manipulation, and using Walter's illness and impending death to manipulate Jesse into complying with his wishes.

2. Pragma-stylistic Realizations of Emotional Blackmail in Excerpt 3

i. Speech Acts

Sufferer blackmailers use SAs to manipulate their victims by using guilt to control their behavior or persuade them to see things a certain way. In other words, sufferers make their victims feel guilty for not complying with their demands. Walter uses an expressive speech act to convey his emotional state of strong disagreement or refusal, as in “No, no, no!”. Walter uses a directive speech act that attempts to get Jesse’s attention and make a request as “Jesse-- Jesse, please” while “I’m dying. My cancer is back.” are representative speech acts that convey information about the speaker’s health condition, “You’re not hurting anyone but my family. Okay?” is a commissive speech act that attempts to persuade Jesse not to take any action that would harm Walter’s family whereas “I can’t spend this money. It’s not for me. I won’t be around long enough to use it. It belongs to my children.” is a representative speech act that explains the purpose of the money and who it belongs to. “I am sorry about Brock.” is an expressive speech act that conveys the speaker’s remorse or apology.

ii. Grice’s Maxims

To blackmail by showing suffering, Walter breaches the maxim of quantity by being over-informative, telling the story of his disease and his money. This comes to have more influence on Jesse to leave the idea of burning Walter’s money. Quantity maxim is indicated through the repetition of certain words such as “No, no, no!” “Jesse-- Jesse, please”. This repetition emphasizes the intensity of Walter’s emotions and his insistence on getting what he wants from Jesse. By repeatedly saying “no,” Walter is trying to make Jesse feel guilty for not complying with his demands and to manipulate him into doing what he wants. In addition, when Walter says, “I am sorry about Brock.”, he is violating the maxim of quality because he is lying. In brief, sufferer blackmailers may violate quality and quantity maxims to fulfill their desires.

iii. Politeness

Politeness strategies are used to express suffering and influence others. Walter uses a negative politeness strategy when he apologizes as in “I am sorry about Brock.” Walter also uses a negative politeness strategy when he minimizes the imposition by saying ‘please’. The word ‘Okay’ is also used by Walter as a positive politeness strategy to seek Jesse’s agreement not to burn the money. By expressing his suffering and concern for his children, Walter can appeal to Jesse’s emotions and convince him not to take drastic actions. These examples show how politeness strategies can be used to achieve a desired outcome without being aggressive or impolite.

iv. Stylistic Levels

For the lexical choices, Walter uses words of suffering that denote the fear, pain, and suffering of his family and himself to manipulate Jesse’s feelings. These words include ‘cancer’, ‘hurting’, and ‘dying.’ On the grammatical level, Walter tends to use negative sentences. These negative sentences would denote his difficult situation and suffering if the money were burned, as in “You’re not hurting anyone but my family” in which Walter explains to Jesse that their actions hurt Walter’s family and prevent them from using the money.

Results of the Analysis

The data analysis displays that the characters are identified as punishers and sufferers. Hank and Jesse are punishers; Hank portrays himself as a punisher by using emotional blackmail to intimidate Walter with severe damage. Similar to Hank, Jesse threatens Walter with serious harm as a form of punishment. Unlike the two previous characters who adopt violent and criminal methods, Walter employs a more moderate, sympathetic, and compassionate form of emotional blackmail; thus, he is a sufferer. These results answer the first question of the research.

Regarding the second question, “How can these kinds be pragmatically manifested?”, the analysis shows that all speech acts—aside from declaratives—are used by punishers and sufferers. In particular, punishers tend to use commissive speech acts more often than sufferers do, who tend to use expressive and representative speech acts more frequently. That is Hank and Jesse, the punishers, use commissive speech acts to threaten Walter, the sufferer, to hurt him if he does not do what they want. To keep Walter in line, Hank states that he will take Walter’s children, and Jesse threatens Walter to burn the money if he cannot come. On the contrary, Walter uses representative and expressive speech acts to express his feelings and to describe his state to instill guilt into others for not helping. Regarding Grice’s maxims, the punishers’ speech is realized through the non-observance of the maxims of quantity and manner. In contrast, the sufferer’s speech is realized through the non-observance of the quantity and quality maxims. Concerning (im)politeness, the punishing behavior is realized using positive politeness, negative impoliteness, bold on record impoliteness, and positive impoliteness, while the suffering one is realized through positive politeness only.

Concerning the third question, “How are these kinds stylistically manifested at the lexical and grammatical levels?”, the stylistic analysis shows that the lexical choices in punishing discourse tend to be aggressive, inappropriate, and of negative connotations such as words of threats like killing, burning, abusing reputation, and taboo words. In contrast, in the suffering discourse, the lexical choices are related to fear, pain, and suffering, as in the use of words that refer to complaining about death and disease. As for the grammatical style, the punishing discourse employs fronting strategies to highlight threats such as ‘cleft sentences’ and ‘if clauses’. With suffering, negative auxiliaries are apparent.

V. CONCLUSION

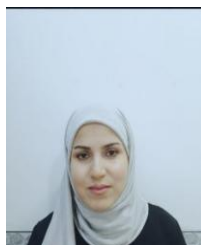
The current study has attempted to investigate the different kinds of emotional blackmail performed by the three main characters in *Breaking Bad*. Hank appears as a punisher to emotionally blackmail Walter by threatening ultimate danger. Jesse, similar to Hank, uses the style of punishment by threatening Walter with severe damage. In contrast to

the two earlier characters, Walter uses the more peaceful style of emotional blackmail, which is suffering, i.e., a sufferer. Hank and Jesse follow aggressive and criminal styles of emotional blackmail, while Walter uses a more peaceful and sympathetic style. The characters' styles of emotional blackmail differ according to their role in the context of the selected texts (whether they are criminals or victims, powerful or powerless). Pragmatically, the analysis reveals that punishers and sufferers use all speech acts except for declaratives. The most common speech acts used by punishers are commissives, whereas the most common speech acts used by sufferers are representatives and expressives. According to Grice's maxims, the non-observance of the quantity and manner maxims results in the realization of the punishers' speech, whereas the non-observance of the quantity and quality maxims results in the realization of the sufferer's speech. When it comes to (im)politeness, the punishers exploit positive politeness, negative impoliteness, bold-on-record impoliteness, and positive impoliteness, whereas the sufferer deploys only positive politeness. Stylistically, the punishers' language incorporates word choices that frequently have an angry and improper tone. In contrast, the word choices in the sufferer's language are connected to discomfort and misery. Regarding grammar, the punishers use fronting strategies to emphasize risks, such as "if clauses" and "cleft sentences." Meanwhile, the sufferer uses negative auxiliaries.

REFERENCES

- [1] Abbas, N. F. (2013). Positive politeness & social harmony in literary discourse. *International Journal of Applied Linguistics and English Literature*, 2(3), 186-195. Retrieved August 22, 2023, from <https://journals.aiac.org.au/index.php/IJALEL/article/view/871>
- [2] Abbas, N. F. (2020). Pragmatics of overlapping talk in therapy sessions. *Journal of Language and Linguistic Studies*, 16(3), 1251-1263. Retrieved July 15, 2023, from <https://files.eric.ed.gov/fulltext/EJ1273170.pdf>
- [3] Abbas, N. F., Qasim T. A., & Jasim H. A. (2023). Request Constructions in Classical Arabic versus Modern Arabic: A Corpus-based Study. *Journal of Ethnic and Cultural Studies*, 10(5), 1-15. <http://dx.doi.org/10.29333/ejecs/1598>
- [4] Abdul-Majeed, R. K. (2009). The Realization of Positive Politeness Strategies in Language: The Politeness Theory of Brown and Levinson. *Journal of the College of Education for Women*, 20(2), 509-527. Retrieved January 15, 2024, from https://www.researchgate.net/publication/369013565_The_Realization_of_Positive_Politeness_Strategies_in_Language_The_Politeness_Theory_of_Brown_and_Levinson_The_Realization_of_Positive_Politeness_Strategies_in_Language_The_Politeness_Theory_of_Brown_a
- [5] Al- Janabi, M. K. H. (2020). Domestic Animals in English and Iraqi Rural Proverbs: A Pragmastylistic Study. *Journal of the College of Languages*, 21, 1-21. Retrieved January 19, 2024, from <https://jcolang.uobaghdad.edu.iq/index.php/JCL/article/view/624>
- [6] Almarsomi, M. N. H., & Hussein, J. Q. (2021). A Speech Acts Analysis of English COVID-19 News Headlines. *Journal of the College of Education for Women*, 32(4), 22-37. Retrieved January 11, 2024, from <https://jcoeduw.uobaghdad.edu.iq/index.php/journal/article/view/1547>
- [7] Bousfield, D. (2008). *Impoliteness in interaction*. John Benjamins B. V.
- [8] Bousfield, D., & Locher, M. A. (Eds.). (2008). *Impoliteness in language: Studies on its interplay with power in theory and practice*. Mouton De Gruyter.
- [9] Bloomfield, M.W. (1976). Stylistics and the Theory of Literature. *New Literary History*, 7(2), 271-311. DOI:10.2307/468507
- [10] Breaking Bad - Transcripts - Forever Dreaming. (2018, November 6). *Breaking Bad - Transcripts - Forever Dreaming*. Retrieved July 15, 2023, from <https://transcripts.foreverdreaming.org/viewforum.php?f=165&sid=e22648b1cc6467dd1138acd0b2dee1cf>
- [11] Brown, P., & Levinson, S. C. (1987). *Politeness: Some universals in language use* (2nd ed.). Cambridge University Press.
- [12] Crompton, P. (1997). Hedging in academic writing: Some theoretical problems. *English for Specific Purposes*, 14(4), 271-287. Retrieved April 2, 2023, from <https://www.sciencedirect.com/science/article/abs/pii/S0889490697000070?via%3Dihub>
- [13] Culpeper, J. (1996). Towards an anatomy of impoliteness. *Journal of Pragmatics*, 25(3), 349-367.
- [14] Culpeper, J. (2005). Impoliteness and entertainment in the television quiz show: The weakest link. *Journal of Politeness Research. Language, Behaviour, Culture*, 1(1), 35-72. Retrieved May 4, 2023, from <https://doi.org/10.1515/jplr.2005.1.1.35>
- [15] Davies, A. (2007). *An introduction to applied linguistics: From practice to theory* (2nd ed.). Edinburgh University Press.
- [16] Dressler, J. (Ed.) (2002). *Encyclopedia of Crime and Justice* (2nd ed.). Macmillan Reference USA.
- [17] El-Samir, S. F. (2014). Politeness: A Socio-Pragmatic Study. *Journal of the College of Languages*, (28), 1-37. Retrieved January 10, 2024, from <https://jcolang.uobaghdad.edu.iq/index.php/JCL/article/view/81>
- [18] Forward, S., & Frazier, D. (1997). *Emotional Blackmail*. Harper.
- [19] Fromkin, V., Rodman, R., & Hyams, N. (2018). *An introduction to language*. Cengage.
- [20] Grice, H. P. (1975). Logic and conversation. In P. Cole and J. Morgan (Eds.), *Syntax and Semantics* (pp. 41-58). Academic Press.
- [21] Hadi, M. M., & Mehdi, W. S. (2023). A Pragmatic Study of Narcissism in the American Movie Big Eyes (2014). *Journal of the College of Education for Women*, 34(3), 1-37. Retrieved January 9, 2024, from https://www.researchgate.net/publication/374342090_A_Pragmatic_Study_of_Narcissism_in_the_American_Movie_Big_Eyes_2014
- [22] Halliday, M. A. K. (1978). *Language as social semiotic: The social interpretation of language and meaning*. Edward Arnold.
- [23] Hassan, N. A. (2015). Politeness Theories in Synge's Riders to the Sea. *Journal of the College of Education for Women*, 26(3), 885-907. Retrieved January 8, 2024, from <https://jcoeduw.uobaghdad.edu.iq/index.php/journal/article/download/1016/940/>
- [24] Hickey, L. (1993). Stylistics, pragmatics and pragmastylistics. *Revue belge de Philologie et d'Histoire*, 71(3), 573-586. Retrieved May 9, 2023, from https://www.persee.fr/doc/rbph_0035-0818_1993_num_71_3_3890

- [25] Hussein, A. M. (2020). A Pragmatic Analysis of Oxymoron in Poetry: Tennyson's "Lancelot and Elaine" as an Example. *Al-Ustath Journal for Human and Social Sciences*, 59(4), 1-16. Retrieved January 9, 2024, from <https://www.iasj.net/iasj/download/1320f24a2871eeaa>
- [26] Jeffries, L., & McIntyre, D. (2010). *Stylistics*. Cambridge University Press.
- [27] Leech, G. (2014). *The Pragmatics of Politeness*. Oxford University Press.
- [28] Lucas, F. (1995). *Style*. London: Cassel and Coy.
- [29] Mohammed, H. N., & Abbas, N. F. (2016). Impoliteness in literary discourse: A pragmatic study. *International Journal of Applied Linguistics and English Literature*, 5(2), 76-82.
- [30] Mullany, L., & Stockwell, P. (2010). *Introducing English Language: A Resource Book for Students*. Routledge.
- [31] Mu-Tzu, C. (2017). *Emotional Blackmail*. Aquarius.
- [32] Namwandi, A. I. (2019). *A stylistic analysis of language use in advertising: a study of advertisement of selected small to medium entrepreneurs in Oshana region* [Doctoral dissertation]. University of Namibia Retrieved February 2, 2023, from <https://repository.unam.edu.na/bitstream/handle/11070/2581/namwandi2019.pdf?sequence=1>
- [33] Neuman, W.L. (2014). *Social research methods: Qualitative and quantitative approaches* (7th ed.). Pearson.
- [34] Qassim, T. A., & Abbas, N. F. (2022). Impoliteness formulas, triggers, and purposes to refusal as employed by Iraqi English Learners. *Arab World English Journal (AWEJ) Proceedings of KUST, Iraq Conference 2022*, (1), 44-58. <https://dx.doi.org/10.24093/awej/KUST.4>
- [35] Qassim, T. A., Abbas, N. F., & Mei, H. (2023). Refusal and politeness strategies favoured among Iraqi and Malaysian learners in marriage proposals. *Discourse and Interaction*, 16(2), 29-50. Retrieved August 9, 2023, from https://scholar.google.com/scholar?q=Refusal+and+politeness+strategies+favoured+among+Iraqi+and+Malaysian+learners+in+marriage+proposals&hl=en&as_sdt=0&as_vis=1&oi=scholar
- [36] Qassim, T. A., Abbas, N. F., Ahmed, F. F., & Hameed, S. (2021). Pragma-linguistic and socio-pragmatic transfer among Iraqi female EFL learners in refusing marriage proposals (AWEJ). *Arab World English Journal*, 12(2), 521-539. Retrieved June 5, 2023, from https://papers.ssrn.com/sol3/papers.cfm?abstract_id=389524
- [37] Rasheed, A., & Kalaf, Z. (2022). A Pragmatic Analysis of Antony's Oration in Julius Caesar. *Al-Adab Journal*, 142(3), 1-16. Retrieved January 17, 2024, from <https://aladabj.uobaghdad.edu.iq/index.php/aladabjournal/article/view/3870>
- [38] Searle, J. R. (1979). *Expression and meaning: Studies in the theory of speech acts*. Cambridge University Press.
- [39] Shuy, R. W. (2005). *Creating language crimes: How law enforcement uses (and misuses) language*. Oxford University Press.
- [40] Simpson, P. (2004). *Stylistics: A Resource Book for Students*. Routledge.
- [41] Solan, L. M., & Tiersma, P. M. (2005). *Speaking of crime: The language of criminal justice*. University of Chicago Press.
- [42] Thielemann, N., & Kosta, P. (Eds.). (2013). *Approaches to slavic interaction*. John Benjamins.



Afrah S. Najem was born on the eighth of February, 1986. She received a BA in English Language from the College of Education for Women, University of Baghdad, Baghdad, Iraq in 2016.



Nawal F. Abbas was born in 1971 in Baghdad, Iraq. She got a Bachelor of Arts Degree from the Department of English Language, College of Education for Women, Baghdad University in 1998, MA from the same department in 2002, and the PhD from Universiti Sains Malaysia in 2014.

Currently, she is serving as a professor in the Department of English, College of Education for Women, University of Baghdad teaching both undergraduate and postgraduate students. Throughout her career, she published about 65 articles in well-known journals.

Dr. Nawal Fadhil Abbas has an interest in Pragmatics, Stylistics, Discourse Analysis, and Corpus Linguistics. She is supervising international students from Hungary. She is on the Editorial Board of AWEJ. She is reviewing and working as an article editor in Sage Open and some other local and international journals.

The Effect of Osborn's Model on Developing Students' Rhetoric Concepts

Nour Mohammad Harara
Al Balqa Applied University, Jordan

Emad Farouq Amarneh
Al Ain University, United Arab Emirates

Raid N. Al Hammouri
Jadara University, Jordan

Mahmoud Ali Rababah
Jadara Research Center, Jadara University, Irbid 21110, Jordan

Luqman Rababah
Jadara University, Jordan

Abdallah Hussein El-Omari
Al Balqa Applied University, Jordan

Abstract—This study examines the effect of teaching a school rhetoric unit employing Osborn's (1963) model. The study sample consisted of 70 Jordanian eleventh-grade students, with 35 in the experimental group and 35 in the control group. Two instruments were used to collect data: a scale designed according to Osborn's model and an achievement test. The school unit of rhetorical concept development was applied to six classes over six weeks in the experimental group, while the control group was taught using the standard method. The findings showed statistically significant differences in favour of the experimental group, with means of 76.66 and 66.15, respectively. The t-test value was 13.02, statistically significant at a significance level 0.01. The impact percentage was calculated at 92%, indicating a statistically significant result according to the Karl formula. Therefore, this percentage is a positive indicator of the effectiveness of using the Osborn model for the conceptual development of the experimental group of students. Based on the findings, the study recommends using this model for teaching rhetoric and literary criticism in other school classes.

Index Terms—Jordanian students, Osborn's model, rhetoric concepts, school students

I. INTRODUCTION

The science of rhetoric holds excellent importance regarding the creative aspects of the literary language arts. It involves exploring the intricacies of literary works, critiquing flawed ones, and reflecting aesthetic values on semantic, phonetic, and structural levels. Teaching rhetoric to students, particularly at the intermediate and secondary levels, is crucial for fostering a refined literary taste, expanding imaginative capacities, and enhancing the ability to articulate thoughts effectively through speech and writing.

Rhetoric encompasses the creative aspects of language, and its significance should not be overlooked by Arabic learners who recognise the miraculous nature of language, the beauty of expression, and the clarity found in the Quran, both in verse and prose. Additionally, rhetoric helps rectify errors in style, meaning, or ideas.

By teaching students' rhetoric, they can apply its rules and standards in various scientific and academic fields and different forms of creative writing and oral arts. Rhetoric also assists in organising language experiences and utilising them in objective educational and social contexts. Consequently, learning and teaching rhetoric plays a significant role in an individual's social life, influencing conversations and writings, as formal language has a magical impact on hearts and minds.

However, the science of rhetoric has yet to receive the attention it deserves in people's scientific and social lives. It is often allotted limited time in school schedules, sometimes only one weekly class. Its status at the university level is similar; it is usually offered as a standalone course within the Arabic major. The problem lies in the limited time allocated for its study and the need for more development and updates in teaching methods. This includes the presentation of the subject matter in textbooks, adequate teacher training from an educational perspective, and specialised courses to enhance their abilities to teach it effectively and accurately.

Regarding secondary-stage students, studies have indicated their difficulties in understanding rhetorical concepts, which fail to leave a positive or aesthetic impression when engaging with literary texts or enjoying reading. Despite attempts to address weaknesses in learning and teaching rhetoric and its concepts, challenges persist and are evident in students' compositions and language usage. This might be attributed to the inability of these studies to meet the desired eloquence levels in learning and teaching.

The present study proposes a model to enhance secondary students' understanding of rhetorical concepts to address these challenges. It utilises Osborn's Model, which emphasises creative problem-solving and is recognised as one of the most prominent approaches to training and fostering creativity, creative thinking, and communication skills. This model encourages students to be more self-aware, think critically, embrace challenges, and strive for excellent knowledge. It enhances problem comprehension, generates ideas, and devises plans to solve them. The core focus of the model is the active engagement of the mind in receiving information, extracting it, and explaining associated ideas. Teaching rhetoric through creative models enriches learners' experiences, enabling them to solve individual, social, and academic problems.

The problem addressed in this study arises from the existing obstacles to teaching rhetoric, which fall short in considering the nature of rhetorical content, its semantic features, and terminological concepts. Research has shown that students' comprehension of rhetorical concepts needs to be higher, and traditional methods of teaching rhetoric in schools do not enhance students' creativity in problem-solving. On the other hand, studies have demonstrated the efficacy of using Osborn's Model in teaching various school subjects and its potential to enhance academic achievement.

In light of this problem, the current study aims to explore the effect of teaching a rhetoric study unit based on the Osborn Model on developing rhetorical concepts in the literary stream of eleventh-grade students in Jordan. The study intends to design a rhetoric study unit according to the Osborn Model and assess the impact of teaching it on the development of rhetorical concepts among the targeted students.

The significance of this study lies in the scarcity of research on the effect of teaching a rhetoric unit focused on expressiveness using Osborn's Model for Jordanian students. The findings of this study may contribute to the advancement of rhetoric teaching methods and aid Arabic teachers and students in understanding the impact of Osborn's Model in rhetoric instruction. This may facilitate the teaching and learning of rhetoric, addressing the issue of poor achievement in acquiring its concepts and skills.

II. LITERATURE REVIEW

The study presents the literature in two scopes. The first relates to Osborn's Model, which helps in thinking development and it is extensively utilised for stimulating creativity and problem-solving. This model divides the processes of generating and evaluating ideas. It functions as an inventive conference, producing a list of ideas that can be employed as a key, leading to new collective free ideas and opening up prospects beyond rigidity. It also serves as an organised method for thinking, primarily when used for brainstorming to generate different ideas to solve a problem (Osborn, 1963).

Osborn's (1963) Model was further developed by Barnes and widely applied in several fields, including personnel and organisational development, decision-making in commercial activities, improving communication means, and solving psychological, economic, social, and legal problems, as well as problems in literacy, engineering and mathematics. Barnes outlined the stages of the creative solution process. He started with understanding and stating the problem, followed by data collection and consideration of accessible information, then moving on to imaginative meditation, idea generation, enhancement, and selection of the best ideas, and lastly applying the chosen solution idea (Aamer, 2003).

A. Components of Osborn's Model

(a). Understanding the Problem

This step is crucial for fostering creativity in learners. It focuses on defining the problem, as doing so facilitates finding successful alternatives. This model consists of three primary stages:

1. Cloudy Problem: This stage involves defining and selecting a general objective through brainstorming to generate one or more objectives.
2. Data Collection: This stage provides the material or content for cognitive preparation. Knowledge may be previously acquired, recently gathered through observation, or derived from questions directed to the learners.
3. Defining the Problem: This part aims to overcome obstacles related to the solution by clarifying ideas for applying or generating solutions within a work plan. It leads to implementing the work plan, which involves facing challenges or seizing opportunities that may arise.

(b). Generating Ideas

This skill entails using prior knowledge to incorporate new information. The generation process cohesively builds connections between new ideas and prior knowledge and experiences, giving rise to new ideas in novel structures.

(c). Planning for Work

This component translates important ideas into tangible, sequential activities. It comprises two stages:

1. **Finding Solutions:** This stage involves investigating, analysing, and evaluating ideas to select the most suitable strategy for problem-solving. It emphasises grading and defining skills.
2. **Work Plan Acceptance:** This stage focuses on assessing the feasibility of adopting a solution plan and determining factors that facilitate the administrative process. It helps individuals accept and adopt the plan. Additionally, it involves identifying potential obstacles during implementation, studying ways to overcome them, and making necessary amendments to the plan.

B. Features and Privileges of Osborn's Model

The following features and privileges can be attributed to Osborn's Model:

- It presents the issue as a problem, allowing students to collectively think and generate as many ideas and solutions as possible, deferring criticism until after the allotted time for dealing with the problem has passed (Osborn, 2001).
- It enhances thinking skills in general and creative thinking in particular. It significantly develops individuals' metacognitive skills when faced with mentally challenging problems.
- It presents optimal and successful solutions, sequentially assessing alternatives in subsequent stages.
- It utilises the brainstorming strategy, which consists of three stages: defining the study subject matter, generating ideas, and finding the solution. The model relies on five main principles:
 1. Define the ultimate goal of the brainstorming process (direct brainstorming): generate as many ideas (solutions) as possible.
 2. Ideas are not criticised during the early stages of brainstorming. Judgement is postponed until the brainstorming session is over.
 3. Unusual or unconventional ideas or solutions are encouraged, as they often represent a creative approach.
 4. Learners can integrate their ideas (suggested solutions) or collectively enhance them.
 5. Organising the knowledge model and learners' experiences keeps them within the conscious circle, consisting of procedures and related mental processes (Aamer, 2003).

C. Parts of Rhetorical Science

In Arabic, rhetorical science can be divided into three parts:

1. **Semantics:** This part explains how the states of Arabic articulation correspond to real-life situations. Its topics encompass construction, statement, reference, brevity, redundancy, separation, and connection.
2. **Statement Science:** This part involves realising one meaning through different methods by increasing or decreasing its clarity. Topics covered include simile, analogy, metaphor, and brevity.
3. **Figurativeness Science:** This part focuses on refining speech per its topics. These topics include verbal improvements such as alliteration, assonance, declaration, citation, and inclusion, as well as moral improvements such as essays, puns, and good education.

D. Rhetoric Concepts

These verbal symbols possess standard features specific to a particular rhetorical basis, distinguishing them from other rhetorical bases (Al-Aameri, 1998). It is noted that verbal symbols are associated with a mental vision that arises from a term. This term comprises features and signs related to the art of speech. This imaginary term is connected to the visual structure and considers its circumstances, encompassing verbal and mental improvements. Thus, a rhetorical term encompasses the signals and features that define it while representing the concept with all its standard attributes. In teaching and learning rhetoric, it is essential first to consider the rhetorical concepts, as they form the fundamental steps in the study of rhetoric and constitute the cognitive fabric of this field.

Furthermore, it is observed that rhetorical concepts are abstract, meaning they can be realised through their apparent appearance and practical applications rather than being directly learned, as is the case with tangible concepts. The importance of concepts lies in the reasons for teaching and learning them, which can be summarised as follows:

- Concepts serve as the foundation for any cognitive structure.
- Adequate teaching and learning of concepts contribute to their acquisition, skill development, and retention, with the effects extending to new situations. Additionally, it aids in developing scientific thinking skills and problem-solving abilities.
- Teaching and learning concepts are the primary objectives of any subject of study.

E. Objectives of Teaching Rhetoric

The objectives of teaching rhetoric are scattered throughout the eleventh-grade textbook, in contrast to those presented in the Egyptian Ministry of Education textbook. Abdul Latif (2018) distinguishes between the teaching and learning of rhetoric in the past and present, approaching the objectives of teaching and learning rhetoric by focusing on understanding its concepts and nature and applying them to the literary arts. The objectives can be summarised as follows: analysing rhetorical phenomena by referring to the system upon which they are built; Representing the rhetorical system of Arabic and its related sciences, understanding rhetorical phenomena, and analysing them; utilising

rhetorical knowledge to understand literary texts, analyse them, and appreciate their aesthetic qualities; Producing linguistic expressions by using appropriate rhetorical structures for verbal and written communication.

The objectives above differ in cognitive level, content presentation, and practical applicability. Those involved in teaching rhetoric and developing textbooks aim to clarify their teaching objectives. Madkour (2007) states that the objectives of teaching rhetoric include fostering an understanding and appreciation of literature, highlighting areas of artistic beauty within it, and unveiling its secrets. Additionally, teaching rhetoric should enable students to realise the purpose of studying literature.

Albajja (1999) states that the objectives of teaching rhetoric include

- enabling students to use language effectively for expressing and conveying ideas,
- fostering an appreciation of the miraculous nature of the Holy Quran,
- developing an aesthetic taste for prophetic traditions and the purity of Arabic speech in verse and prose, and
- nurturing students' artistic sensibilities to enjoy what they read or hear.

The objectives of teaching rhetoric share common ground. Nevertheless, it is crucial to note that the teaching of rhetoric has yet to progress in a manner that smooths students' accomplishment of these purposes. This is due to the Ministry of Education's failure to adopt modern teaching strategies based on standardised and deductive approaches.

F. Bases of Teaching Rhetoric

Atta (1998, p. 31) clarifies numerous bases for teaching rhetoric, aiming to present rhetorical concepts through literary texts to qualify students to appreciate the technical skill of the writers of these texts. These bases include detailing the relationship between rhetoric and its divisions in Arabic, training students to have a comprehensive view of literary texts that excel rhetoric, selecting suitable language structures based on texts from the Quran and poetry, and focusing on defining and realizing rhetorical concepts. Madkour (2007) highlights additional bases to be adopted in teaching rhetoric. He argues that teachers should integrate the teaching of rhetoric with related literary studies and approach literary texts from an aesthetic perspective. Teaching rhetoric should include more than short examples, theoretical discussions, and extracting definitions. Instead, teachers should incorporate the natural use of rhetoric in Arabic speech and guide students to comprehensive theories in language studies, such as literature, criticism, rhetoric, syntax, and grammar. They should also use high-quality literary texts suitable for the student's age and local context when teaching rhetorical concepts.

Alkhaleefah (2017, p. 235) suggests that teachers should connect rhetoric and literature, balance literary analysis, incorporate colloquial rhetoric, and establish links between rhetoric and other branches of Arabic. The researcher emphasises the need to separate the bases for teaching rhetoric and divide them into two parts: cognitive bases, which involve teaching rhetoric alongside literature without isolating it, and training activities that initially focus on rhetoric concepts, using rhetoric applications as a stage for learning those concepts.

G. Previous Studies

The present study examines previous research within two domains:

(a). Studies That Utilised Osborn's Model

Albaiyati (2017) investigated the impact of Osborn's model on concept acquisition among second-year preparatory female students in Islamic education. The study utilised Osborn's model in both the experimental and control groups. The findings revealed that the experimental group outperformed the control group, with mean scores of 30.82 and 25.14, respectively. The t-test score was 5.46, with a significance level of 5%. The researcher recommends applying Osborn's model to teaching Islamic education. Alshujeiri and Arrawi (2018) tested the effect of Osborn's model on the accomplishment and attitudes of second-year preparatory students towards Islamic education. The study included 62 students (divided into experimental and control groups). A post-test was administered to measure students' accomplishment. The results signposted significant differences in the means of the experimental and control groups, favouring the experimental group where Osborn's model was employed in teaching. The mean scores for the two groups were 31.419 and 23.838, respectively, with a t-test score of 6.061 and a relatively high Cohen's effect size of 1.563.

Asaideen and Asrour (2021) examined the effect of using Osborn's model in teaching geography and its impact on the achievement of seventh-grade students. The study involved 60 female students distributed into experimental and control groups. A semi-experimental approach was used to achieve the study's objectives. The findings recommend using Osborn's model positively affected student achievement in geography.

The studies above principally focused on creative thinking, problem-solving, achievement, and acquisition. Nevertheless, the current study primarily focuses on the development of rhetorical concepts.

(b). Studies That Addressed Rhetorical Concepts

Mousa (2009) tested the effect of the learning strategy on the development of eloquence and rhetorical concepts among education department students at Al Hesn University. The students were divided into experimental and control groups. It implemented a learning circle strategy with specially designed guides for teachers and students. A test was used to measure the effect of the strategy on the experimental group compared to the control group. The findings

indicated an improvement in the development of rhetorical concepts in the experimental group, with mean scores of 23.3 and 14.68, respectively, and a t-test value of 25.37.

Mohammad (2013) examined the effect of the concept map strategy on the development of rhetorical concepts and meditative thought in first-year secondary students. The study developed a teacher guide consisting of concept maps for rhetorical concepts in the literature and eloquence textbook. Two tests were administered to measure students' achievement in rhetorical concepts and meditative thinking. The findings demonstrated the positive effect of concept maps on achievement, with mean scores of 13.00 and 25.6 for the experimental and control groups, respectively. The t-test score was 16.43, and the effect size of concept maps was 76.52.

Hassan (2014) examined the effect of using a dual-thinking strategy to acquire rhetorical concepts in the fifth literary grade. The study employed appropriate learning methods, including structural and dual-thinking strategies. An experimental approach was utilised, and an achievement test was used as the assessment tool. The outcomes indicated that students in the experimental group who studied eloquence using the dual-thinking strategy outperformed those in the control group where the traditional method was used. The mean scores were 23.93 and 20.96 for the experimental and control groups, respectively, with a t-test value 2.85.

These studies principally focused on creative thinking, the acquisition of rhetorical concepts, and achievement in the study of rhetoric. Nevertheless, the present study aims to contribute to developing rhetorical concepts by applying Osborn's Model.

Hassan (2014) investigated the impact of using a dual-thinking strategy for acquiring rhetorical concepts in the fifth literary grade. The study utilised appropriate learning methods, including structural and dual-thinking strategies, and employed an experimental approach with an achievement test as the assessment tool. The outcomes showed that students in the experimental group who studied eloquence using the dual-thinking strategy outperformed those in the control group who studied using the traditional method. The mean scores were 23.93 and 20.96, respectively, with a T-test value 2.85. The study concluded that the dual-thinking strategy significantly improves students' accomplishment and information retention compared to the traditional method. It emphasised the student-centred nature of the dual-thinking strategy, with the teacher acting as a guide and leader, aligning with the goals of modern education. The study recommends Arabic teachers embrace modern strategies, particularly the metacognitive approach to teaching rhetoric.

Hilali (2015) examined the efficiency of using verification teaching for first-year female secondary students to acquire rhetorical concepts. The study utilised an achievement test to assess the acquisition of eloquence concepts. The findings revealed significant differences in favour of the experimental group, which was studied according to the flexible group strategy, with mean scores of 44.38 and 35.55, respectively. The study recommended the use of verification teaching strategies for teaching eloquence.

Previous studies aimed to develop rhetorical concepts in terms of understanding and achievement. However, the efficiency of educational forms and teaching strategies varied depending on the targeted concepts or textbook type. In contrast, the present study differs in selecting a specific study unit from the first secondary criticism and eloquence textbook, focusing specifically on the rhetoric unit.

III. METHODS

A. Study Approach

This study adopts a semi-experimental approach to achieve its objectives, employing two groups: an experimental group and a control group. The control group is taught using the traditional approach, while the experimental group follows the Osborn model. The independent variable in this study is the presentation of the first unit according to the Osborn model. In contrast, the dependent variable is the development of rhetorical concepts, measured through a post-test administered to the experimental group. The traditional approach used to teach the control group is considered the independent variable, and the findings resulting from the post-test serve as the dependent variable.

B. Study Sample

The sample comprises seventy eleventh-grade Al Amir Hassan Secondary School students. To ensure the experimental design of the two groups and to establish statistical equivalence between the experimental and control groups, two groups of eleventh-grade students in the literary stream were selected based on their mean grades in Arabic during the tenth grade, as presented in Table 1 below.

TABLE 1
MEANS, STANDARD DEVIATION, AND T-TEST VALUE OF GRADE TEN GRADES IN ARABIC FOR THE TWO GROUPS

[1] Group	[2] No.	[3] Mean	[4] S. D	[5] F. D.	[6] T-test v.	[7] Scheduling	[8] Co-eff. value
[9] Experimental	[10] 35	[11] 69.34	[12] 8.15	[13] 68	[14] 1.23	[15] 2	[16] 0.05
[17] Control	[18] 35	[19] 67.61	[20] 7.11	[21]	[22]	[23]	[24]

Regarding the age average of the two groups, experimental and control, it is illustrated in Table 2.

TABLE 2
MEANS, STANDARD DEVIATION, T-TEST VALUE AND SCHEDULING OF THE STUDENTS' AGE AVERAGE OF THE TWO GROUPS PER MONTH

[25] Group	[26] Sample No.	[27] Means	[28] Stand. Dev.	[29] FD	[30] T-test value	[31] Scheduling	[32] Co-eff. Value
[33] Experimental	[34] 35	[35] 196.97	[36] 3.78	[37] 68	[38] 0.611	[39] 2	[40] Not significant
[41] Control	[42] 35	[43] 197.5	[44] 3.52	[45]	[46]	[47]	[48]

Regarding the average of the two groups, experimental and control, degrees of the pretest of eloquence, it is illustrated in Table 3.

TABLE 3
MEANS, STANDARD DEVIATION, T-TEST VALUE, AND SCHEDULING OF THE EXPERIMENTAL AND CONTROL GROUPS IN THE ELOQUENCE PRETEST

[49] Group	[50] Sample No.	[51] Means	[52] S.D.	[53] Freedom degree	[54] T-test value	[55] Scheduling	[56] Co-eff. Value
[57] Experimental	[58] 35	[59] 22.1	[60] 3.64	[61] 68	[62] 0.95	[63] 2	[64] Not sig.
[65] Control	[66] 35	[67] 21.0	[68] 3.32	[69]	[70]	[71]	[72]

Considering the information presented in the three tables displaying the means, standard deviation, t-test, and grouping of the two groups in the tenth-grade Arabic subject, along with the students' ages and their scores in the eloquence post-test, it was determined that the experimental and control groups were equivalent.

C. Study Instruments

To achieve the objectives of the study, the researchers designed two study instruments:

1. School Unit: A specific unit was selected from the eleventh-grade criticism and eloquence Arabic book, focusing on metaphors and their types. The unit was reorganised and structured according to the Osborn model. The content underwent scrutiny by Arabic scholars, methodologists, teachers, and supervisors, resulting in some modifications and adjustments to enhance clarity and reliability (see Attachment 1).
2. Test: The researchers developed a test to measure the student's achievement in both groups. The test was constructed through the following steps:
 - Analysing the content of the targeted unit lessons in the criticism and eloquence literary stream of the eleventh-grade textbook
 - Identifying the learning outcomes that cover the unit content and align with the specified objectives in the teacher's guide
 - Designing the test items initially as multiple-choice questions resulted in 27 items.

The test underwent revisions and evaluations by a panel of teachers, supervisors, and specialised Arabic teachers to ensure clarity and accuracy. After revisions, the final version of the test consisted of 25 items, distributed as follows: 7 items for understanding, 7 for remembering, 8 for analysis, and 3 for evaluation. The reliability of the test was assessed through a pilot study conducted on a sample of 25 students in the literary stream of eleventh grade, followed by a retest on the same sample. The consistency of the test was measured using the Pearson correlation coefficient, yielding a value of 0.86, indicating perfect consistency and suitability for the study. Table 4 presents the distinguishing factors of the test items.

TABLE 4
THE TEST-ITEM DISTINGUISHING FACTOR

[1] Distinguish factor	[2] F	[3] Distinguish Factor	[4] F	[5] Distinguish Factor	[6] F	[7] F	[8] Distinguish Factor	[9] F	[10] Distinguish Factor	[11] F
[12] 0.48	[13] 1	[14] 0.46	[15] 6	[16] 0.45	[17] 11	[18] 0.47	[19] 16	[20] 0.45	[21] 21	
[22] 0.46	[23] 2	[24] 0.47	[25] 7	[26] 0.47	[27] 12	[28] 0.49	[29] 17	[30] 0.48	[31] 22	
[32] 0.48	[33] 3	[34] 0.45	[35] 8	[36] 0.48	[37] 13	[38] 0.46	[39] 18	[40] 0.45	[41] 23	
[42] 0.45	[43] 4	[44] 0.47	[45] 9	[46] 0.44	[47] 14	[48] 0.48	[49] 19	[50] 0.49	[51] 24	
[52] 0.47	[53] 5	[54] 0.47	[55] 10	[56] 0.49	[57] 15	[58] 0.45	[59] 20	[60] 0.48	[61] 25	

The table above illustrates that the distinguishing factor values range between 0.45 and 0.49, which is considered acceptable for this study.

D. Difficulty of the Test Items

Upon calculating the difficulty factor for each item in the test, it is revealed that they range between 0.26 and 0.69. This shows that all test items are considered suitable. The literature suggests that an optimal test should involve items with a difficulty factor ranging between 0.21 and 0.80. With these procedures completed, the study instruments were ready for implementation. The school unit, designed according to Osborn's model, was taught to the experimental group, while the control group received instruction using the traditional method. This instruction took place over six classes, spanning a period of six weeks. The teaching commenced at the beginning of the second semester on February 2, 2022, allowing for coverage of the unit as outlined in the eleventh-grade school curriculum. At the conclusion of the unit instruction, a post-test was administered to both groups.

IV. FINDINGS AND DISCUSSION

To address the study question, "What is the effect of teaching a school unit in eloquence according to Osborn's model on the development of rhetorical concepts in the study sample?", the researchers examined the responses provided by the two groups. The means, standard deviations, and t-test of the grades for both groups indicated significant differences in favor of the experimental group. These findings are presented in Table 5.

TABLE 5

THE DIFFERENCE BETWEEN THE TWO EXPERIMENTAL AND CONTROL GROUPS' DEGREES OF THE RHETORIC CONCEPT ACHIEVEMENT POST-TEST

Group	[73] Sample No.	[74] Mean	[75] Standard deviation	[76] Freedom degree	[77] T-test value	[78] Correlation coefficient
[79] Experimental	[80] 35	[81] 76.66	[82] 4.72	[83] 68	[84] 13.02	[85] Significant at 0.01
[86] Control	[87] 35	[88] 66.10	[89] 5.43			

Table 5 above demonstrates significant differences between the experimental and control groups' means of the post-assessment test grades. The t-test value was 13.02, significant at the 0.01 level, with 68 degrees of freedom, equivalent to 2.65. The observed difference can be attributed to the experimental group, which received instruction on the eloquence unit using the Osborn model.

Upon analysing the data in Table 5, differences in the means of the control group before and after the implementation are evident. These differences can be attributed to the impact of the teaching method used to convey rhetorical concepts. The pre-test mean for the control group was 22.0, while the post-test mean was 66.10, indicating the influence of the traditional method, which is primarily standardised and deductive. Conversely, the experimental group displayed a pre-test mean of 22.1 and a post-test mean of 76.66. These differences are significant compared to the outcomes achieved through the traditional teaching method, confirming the effectiveness of Osborn's model in developing rhetorical concepts and enhancing achievement.

A. Measurement of Effect Size: To quantify the impact of using Osborn's model in teaching the eloquence school unit, the Karl formula was employed to calculate the effect size, as presented in Table 6.

TABLE 6

THE EFFECT SIZE OF OSBORN'S MODEL IN TEACHING AN ELOQUENCE SCHOOL UNIT BY THE EXPERIMENTAL GROUP

[96] Group	[95] Sample No.	[94] Mean	[93] S.D	[92] F.D.	[91] Size effect	[90] significance
[103] Experimental	[102] 35	[101] 76.66	[100] 4.72	[99] 68	[98] 0.92	[97] High sig.
[107] Control	[106] 35	[105] 66.10	[104] 5.43			

Table 6 illustrates that the effect size percentage was 92%, which is highly significant according to Karl's formula. Karl suggests that an effect size of 80% or higher is considered high. Therefore, the percentage of 90% indicates a high effect size for using Osborn's model in developing rhetorical concepts in the experimental group of students.

Upon examining the literature review on studies that utilised Osborn's model, it can be observed that these studies focused on various educational stages, including Asaideen and Asrour (2021), Albaiyati (2017), Al-Khattab and Alkhawaldeh (2020), and Alshujeiri and Arrawi (2018). The grades investigated in these studies ranged from seventh grade to the fourth scientific stream. However, the dependent variables differed among the studies, including achievement in geography (Asaideen & Asrour, 2021) and achievement in Islamic education (Albaiyati, 2017; Alshujeiri & Arrawi, 2018). Additionally, Al-Khattab et al. (2023) focused on creative problem-solving. Comparing the findings of these studies, the most significant improvements were seen in studies targeting concept development and achievement. This is evident in the t-test values and effect size percentages compared to studies focusing on metacognitive skills and creative problem-solving. These findings align with the present study, where the independent variable is the development of rhetorical concept achievement. This can be attributed to Osborn's model, which emphasises the role of active student participation and motivation in learning.

Moreover, the subject matter being taught plays a crucial role in achievement. It is also noteworthy that the influence of Osborn's model on students, based on their school grades, is more significant at lower grade levels. This may be due to students' receptiveness to acquiring study concepts and higher motivation to learn before high school and university.

In comparison to studies that focused on rhetoric concepts at the secondary stage but utilised different models or strategies other than Osborn's, the following studies are worth noting: Mohammad (2013), Hassan (2014), Hilali (2015), and Almadhoob and Abdulnabi (2020). All of these studies were effective in developing rhetorical concepts. However, models or study strategies that emphasised the active role of students and motivation were found to be more effective, such as Hilali (2015). Comparing these findings with the present study, the efficacy of developing rhetorical concepts depends not solely on the teaching method, strategy, or specific model used. All approaches have a positive effect on rhetorical concept development and achievement. Selecting the most suitable approach for the student's level and school stage and promoting active engagement in the learning and teaching process is essential.

V. CONCLUSION

Teaching a rhetoric unit based on Osborn's Model significantly influences the development of rhetorical concepts in secondary-stage pupils. The experimental group, which got education based on Osborn's Model, demonstrated a considerable increase in their comprehension and application of rhetorical principles compared to the control group,

which received training based on conventional techniques, according to the research. Osborn's Model was shown to have a significant effect size, supporting its efficacy in improving rhetorical idea attainment.

The results of this study expand rhetorical instruction techniques and emphasise the need to consider the creative elements of rhetorical instruction. In order to nurture sophisticated literary taste, extend students' creative potential, and improve their ability to convey ideas clearly in speech and writing, it highlights the need to allocate enough time and resources to teaching rhetoric at all educational levels.

The study also emphasises the relevance of rhetorical ideas as the cornerstone of rhetoric science and the value of teaching and learning these concepts for cognitive growth, the acquisition of skills, and learning retention. It underlines the importance of concepts in forming cognitive structures and the growth of scientific reasoning and problem-solving skills.

The study emphasises the model's efficacy in rhetorical instruction and its capacity to raise student achievement. It implies that critical elements in fostering the development of rhetorical notions include student participation and enthusiasm in learning and choosing effective teaching strategies based on students' grade levels and academic stages. The research concludes that using Osborn's Model in rhetoric instruction dramatically enhances students' comprehension and application of rhetorical principles, promoting overall academic and cognitive growth.

VI. RECOMMENDATIONS

The study recommends that teachers consider incorporating Osborn's model or some of its stages in their Arabic teaching methods, particularly during the general teaching stages, to develop students' thinking skills at different school levels. Furthermore, focusing on critical and creative thinking skills and problem-solving in specific stages is suggested. More time and resources should be devoted to teaching rhetoric at all levels of education, as well as an increased focus on doing so. This might entail incorporating rhetorical education into many topics and giving instructors specialised training and courses to improve their proficiency in instructing rhetoric successfully. Implementing innovative teaching strategies that include students and deepen their comprehension of rhetorical ideas is also advised. Adopting interactive methods like Osborn's Model, which encourages active student engagement, critical thinking, and problem-solving abilities, can accomplish this. It is crucial to update instructional resources, mainly textbooks, to effectively communicate rhetorical principles and connect them with contemporary teaching methodologies. To ensure that the materials fulfil the pupils' cognitive demands, periodic reviews should be conducted.

Additionally, encouraging interdisciplinary linkages by incorporating rhetoric into other disciplines might assist students in understanding its significance and applicability in other settings. The formation of rhetorical concepts should be examined in the context of various cultural and linguistic situations, and the long-term impacts of rhetorical training should be investigated. Consequently, more studies must be done in these areas. By putting these suggestions into practice, educators may improve their education in rhetoric, encourage students' comprehension and application of rhetorical ideas, and support the growth of their communication, critical thinking, and problem-solving skills.

REFERENCES

- [1] Aamer, A. (2003). *The creative solution of problems between awareness and style*. Egypt: Arab House of Book. Retrieved on 10 June, 2023.
- [2] Abdul Latif, E. (2018). Teaching Arabic rhetoric: Past, present, and future. *Aalam Alfikr*, 76, 102-129. Retrieved on 10 June, 2023
- [3] Abujamous, A. M., & Alabdallah, M. F. (2007). Extent of obtaining rhetoric concepts by Jordanian secondary stage students and their ability to employ them in written composition. *Journal of Human Sciences*, 28, 5-25. Recalled from <http://search.mandumah.com/Record/5>. Retrieved on 10 June, 2023.
- [4] Al Najdawi, B. M., Khaleefah, Q. Q., Shatnawi, H. S., & Al Momani, E. M. (2017). Measuring local tourists' perceptions in Petra city as one of seven wonders of world. *Journal of Environmental Management & Tourism*, 8(18), 427-441. <https://www.cceol.com/search/article-detail?id=541471>. Retrieved on 20 June, 2023.
- [5] Al-Aameri, S., & Madkour, A. A. (1998). *Evaluating Omani secondary stage students' achievement extent of curriculum rhetoric concepts and employing them in their writings*. [Unpublished Masters' Degree Thesis] Sultan Qaboos University, Oman. 584294/Record/com.mandumah.search://h Retrieved on 10 June, 2023.
- [6] Alazzam, A. A., Al-Shoqran, A. A., Suleiman, B. M., Rababah, M. A., Al-Hawamdeh, B. M., Al-Maraziq, I. A., Tanjour, I., & Al-Habies, F. A. (2024). The relationship between psychological stress and mindfulness among outstanding students in the school basic stage. *Obrazovanie i nauka = The Education and Science Journal*, 26(4), 148-168. <https://doi.org/10.17853/1994-5639-2024-4-148-168>. Retrieved on January 10, 2024.
- [7] Albaiyati, I. (2017). Osborn's model impact in acquiring concepts by female second preparatory grade in Islamic education. *Journal of Arts*, 123, 433-452. 1166380/Record/com.mandumah.search://h. Retrieved on 10 June, 2023.
- [8] Albajja, A. H. (1999). *Fundamentals of teaching Arabic between theory and practice*. Jordan: Dar Alfikr for Printing and Publishing.
- [9] Alghazo, K. M., Qbeita, A. A. A., Rababah, M. A., & Malkawi, N. A. (2023). English language teachers' employment of successful intelligence skills. *International Journal of English Language and Literature Studies*, 12(2), 184-194. <https://doi.org/10.55493/5019.v12i2.4839>. Retrieved on January 10, 2024.

- [10] Al-Jezawi, H. K., Al-Abdulrazzaq, M. A., Rababah, M. A., & Aldoory, A. H. (2024). Art voicing peaceful protest: Hip-hop and rap in the American and Arabic cultures. *International Journal of Arabic-English Studies*, 24(1), 57–72. <https://doi.org/10.33806/ijaes.v24i1.555>. Retrieved on January 10, 2024.
- [11] Alkhaldi, A. A., Rababah, M. A., Al-Saidat, E. M., & Rakhieh, B. M. (2023). A lexical study of coffee shop signs in Jordan. *International Journal of English Language and Literature Studies*, 12(1), 33–44. <https://doi.org/10.55493/5019.v12i1.4703>. Retrieved on January 10, 2024.
- [12] Alkhaleefah, H. J. (2017). *Chapters in teaching Arabic*. Saudi Arabia: Alrushd Bookshop.
- [13] Al-Khattab, A. A., Al-Mawajdeh, B. S., Talhouni, M. H., & Al-Marayeah, A. S. (2023). The effect of using concept maps and brainstorming strategies to develop creative thinking skills among students of Islamic culture at Al-Hussein Bin Talal University. *Information Sciences Letters*, 12(5), 1441–1453. <https://www.naturalspublishing.com/download.asp?ArtcID=26872>. Retrieved on 2 July, 2023.
- [14] Almsbhiheen, M. M., Aljazi, S. F. F., Alhasanat, H. A. A., & Rababah, M. A. (2023). The effect of active learning strategies on developing oral reading skills in low-achieving native-speaker Arabic students. *International Journal of English Language and Literature Studies*, 12(4), 384–400. Accessed March 28, 2023. <https://ideas.repec.org/a/asi/ijells/v12y2023i4p384-400id4923.html>. Retrieved on January 10, 2024.
- [15] Al-Rawashdeh, B. A., Issa, A. H. B., & Rababah, M. A. (2024). Substitution in Arabic: Lisan Al-Arab Dictionary as a model. *Theory and Practice in Language Studies*, 14(1), 116–124. <https://doi.org/10.17507/tpls.1401.13>. Retrieved on January 10, 2024.
- [16] Al-Saidat, E. M., Tawalbeh, A. I., Malkawi, N. A., Shehadeh, T. M., Rabab'ah, K. A., & Rababah, M. A. (2023). The linguistic implications of Facebook nicknames for Jordanian males and females. *Theory and Practice in Language Studies*, 13(10), 2457–2467. <https://doi.org/10.17507/tpls.1310.04>. Retrieved on January 10, 2024.
- [17] Alshujeiri, Y., & Arrawi, M. (2018). Efficiency of Osborn Barnes's Model in second preparatory students' achievement at Islamic education and their attitudes towards it. *Journal of Educational Sciences Studies*, Jordan, 45(4), 104–129.
- [18] Asaideen, T., & Asrour, M. (2021). *Impact of using Osborn's Model in teaching geography for grade seven female students' achievement*. [Unpublished Masters' Degree Thesis] Al-Albait University. <http://search.mandumah.com/Record/117> Retrieved on 10 June, 2023.
- [19] Atta, I. M. (1998). *Teaching rhetoric at the secondary stage, educational field study*, Egypt: Dar Annahdhah Almisriah.
- [20] Danaa, H. M., Al-mzary, M. M., Halasa, W. N., Obeidat, L. M., Al-Alawneh, M. K., Rababah, M. A. (2022). University students' ambition levels and vocational tendencies associated with common culture. *The Education and Science Journal*, 24(6), 153–176. DOI: 10.17853/1994-5639-2022-6-153-176. Retrieved on 10 June, 2023.
- [21] Essa, A. H. B., Al-Tawalbeh, A. M., Al-Gayam, I. M., Bani-Khair, B. M., & Rababah, M. A. (2023). The dream poem: Qays Ibn Al-Khateem's poem "anna sarabti". *Theory and Practice in Language Studies*, 13(2), 479–486. <https://doi.org/10.17507/tpls.1302.24>. Retrieved on 10 June, 2023.
- [22] Harara, N. M. (2022). Teaching English grammar with special reference to the use of prepositions at Al-Balqa Applied University. *World Journal of English Language*, 12(2), 107–117.
- [23] Harara, N. M. (2022). The comprehension of semantic interpretation of metaphor in the expository writing of EFL learners at Al-Balqa Applied University, Jordan. *Journal of Language and Linguistic Studies*, 18(S2), 1262–1269. <https://search.informit.org/doi/abs/10.3316/informit.841608377761034>. Retrieved on 10 June, 2023.
- [24] Harara, N. M., Al Najdawi, B. M., & Kassawneh, M. S. (2022). The misunderstandings and difficulties of translation of tourist e-text and signs in the attractive tourists' locations. *International Journal of Early Childhood Special Education*, 14(3), 122–133.
- [25] Harara, N. M., Al Najdawi, B. M., Rababah, M. A., & Haniyi, A. A. (2024). Jordanian tour guides' communication competency. *Journal of Language Teaching and Research*, 15(3), 873–883. <https://doi.org/10.17507/jltr.1503.20>. Retrieved on January 10, 2024.
- [26] Hassan, A. Y. (2014). Impact of using dual thinking strategy in acquiring rhetoric concepts by fifth grade students literary stream. *Journal of Human Sciences*, 22, 245–260. <https://search.emarefa.net/detail/BIM-429709> Retrieved on 10 June, 2023.
- [27] Hilali, H. M. (2015). Efficiency of varying teaching to acquire rhetoric concepts by first secondary students, *Educational and Social Studies*, 21(1), 269 – 310. Recalled from: 740947/Record/com.mandumah.search://http. Retrieved on 10 June, 2023.
- [28] Madkour, A. A. (2007). *Methods of teaching Arabic*. Jordan: Dar Aljazeera. Retrieved on 10 June, 2023.
- [29] Malkawi, N. A. A., & Rababah, M. A. (2012). Men's and women's language: Inquiries about health in Jordanian Arabic. *European Scientific Journal*, 8(10), 85–100. <https://www.researchgate.net/profile/Mahmoud-Rababah/publication/333204280>. Retrieved on 28 November, 2022.
- [30] Malkawi, N. A. M., Attiyat, N. M. A., Ismael, F. M. H., Ismael, A. M. H., & Rababah, M. A. I. (2023). English teachers' use of multiple modalities. *Arab World English Journal*, 14(1), 05–119. DOI: <https://dx.doi.org/10.24093/awej/vol14no1.7>. Retrieved on 5 May, 2023.
- [31] Malkawi, N., Al-Slaihat, M. M., Al Basal, N. M. A., Sakarneh, M., Alkhaldi, A. A., & Al-Jezawi, H. K., Rababah, M. A. (2023). Teaching English to students with special needs: A case study in Jordan. *Journal of Language Teaching and Research*, 14(5), 1233–1243. <https://doi.org/10.17507/jltr.1405.11>. Retrieved on January 10, 2024.
- [32] Malkawi, N., Rababah, M. A., Al Dalaeen, I., Ta'amneh, I. M., El Omari, A., Alkhaldi, A. A., & Rabab'ah, K. (2023). Impediments of using e-learning platforms for teaching English: A case study in Jordan. *International Journal of Emerging Technologies in Learning (IJET)*, 18(05), pp. 95–113. <https://doi.org/10.3991/ijet.v18i05.36727>. Retrieved on 10 June, 2023.
- [33] Melhim M. A, Al Dalaeen I, Alqiam H. A. A, Zainelabdin F. A, Al-Khatib LI, Rabab'a, Y. A., Rababah M. A. (2023). Social Studies University Students' Perspectives of e-Learning Classes: A Case Study. *JHETP*, 23(7), 117–133. <https://articlegateway.com/index.php/JHETP/article/view/6021>. Retrieved on 10 June, 2023.
- [34] Melhim, M. A., Rababah, M. A., Rabab'a, Y. A., Zainelabdin, F. A., Al Dalaeen, I., Abu Zaytoon, N. A., Alqiam, H. A. A., & Al-Khatib, L. I. (2023). Teachers' perspectives on social values and their influence on sustainable development in Ajloun Governorate. *Journal of Higher Education Theory and Practice*, 23(14). <https://doi.org/10.33423/jhetp.v23i14.6389>. Retrieved on January 10, 2024.

- [35] Mohammad, K. H. (2013). Impact of concept plan strategy in developing rhetoric concepts and intellectual meditation of first secondary class. *Arab Studies in Education and Psychology*, 40(2), 147–180. Recalled from 471702/Record/com.mandumah.search://http. Retrieved on 10 June, 2023.
- [36] Mousa, M. (2009). Impact of the learning course in rhetoric concept development of education department students majoring in Arabic at Al-Hesn University in the United Arab Emirates. *Journal of Reading and Knowledge*, 95, 14 – 84. <http://search.mandumah.com/Record/44771> Retrieved on 10 June, 2023.
- [37] Obeidat, L. M., Momani, H. I., Ammari, T. T., & Rababah, M. A. (2022). Athletic identity and its relationship to moral values among physical education university students. *Образование И Наука = Education and Science*, 24(3), 41–77. <https://doi.org/10.17853/1994-5639-2022-3-41-77>. Retrieved on 28 November, 2022.
- [38] Obeidat, L. M., Momani, H. I., Hayajneh, W. S., Ammari, T. T., Al-mzary, M. M., & Rababah, M. A. (2022). Values system relationship to leadership behavior of practicing and non-sports-practicing university students. *International Journal of Instruction*, 15(3), 869-894. 894. <https://doi.org/10.29333/iji.2022.15347a>. Retrieved on 28 November, 2022.
- [39] Osborn, A. (2012). *Applied imagination-principles and procedures of creative writing*. Read Books Ltd.
- [40] Rababah, L. M., Al-Khawaldeh, N. N., & Rababah, M. A. (2023). Mobile-assisted listening instructions with Jordanian audio materials: A pathway to EFL proficiency. *International Journal of Interactive Mobile Technologies*, 17(21), 129-147. <https://doi.org/10.3991/ijim.v17i21.42789>. Retrieved on January 10, 2024.
- [41] Rababah, M. A. (2000). *Visitors' linguistic etiquette*. (Unpublished Master's thesis. Yarmouk University, Jordan). <http://repository.yu.edu.jo/bitstream/123456789/5363/1/457611.pdf>. Retrieved on 28 November, 2022.
- [42] Rababah, M. A., Rababah, L. M., Abumelhim, M. H., Abu-Melhim, A. R., & Rababah, K. A. (2023). Interdisciplinary investigation of naming practices of cafes signages in Jordan. *GEMA Online Journal of Language Studies*, 23(4), 1–14. <https://doi.org/10.17576/gema-2023-2304>. Retrieved on January 10, 2024.
- [43] Rababah, M., Al Zoubi, S., Al Masri, M., & Al-Abdulrazaq, M. (2021). Politeness strategies in hotel service encounters in Jordan: giving directives. *The Arab Journal for Arts*, 18(1), 319-340. <https://aaui.yu.edu.jo/images/docs/v18n1/v18n1r12.pdf>. Retrieved on 28 November, 2022.
- [44] Rababah, M., Harun, M., & Shapii, A. (2019). Imperatives in hotel service encounters: The case of Jordanian learners of English. *European Journal of Applied Linguistics Studies*, 2(1). <https://oapub.org/lit/index.php/EJALS/article/view/129>. Retrieved on 28 November, 2022.
- [45] Rababah, M., Harun, M., & Shapii, A. (2019). Making sense of the hotel trainees' internal request modification in Jordanian host-guest interaction. *European Journal of Applied Linguistics Studies*, 2(1). <https://oapub.org/lit/index.php/EJALS/article/view/128>. Retrieved on 28 November, 2022.
- [46] Sakarneh M.A., Ziadat A.H., Almakaleh A.A., Rababah M.A., Alhassan A.H., Al-Muhairat L.A., Al-Rababah H.A. (2023). Socio-pedagogical competencies needed by educators of students with autism spectrum disorder: Parent's perspective. *Education and Science*, 25(5), 176-194. <https://doi.org/10.17853/1994-5639-2023-5-176-194>. Retrieved on 10 June, 2023.
- [47] Sakarneh, M. A., Ziadat, A. H., Almakaleh, A. A., Rababah, M. A., Alhassan, A. H., Al-Muhairat, L. A., & Al-Rababah, H. A. (2022). Socio-pedagogical competencies needed by educators of students with autism spectrum disorder: A parent's perspective. *Obrazovanie i nauka = The Education and Science Journal*, 25(5), 176–194. <https://doi.org/10.17853/1994-5639-2023-5-176-194>. Retrieved on January 10, 2024.
- [48] Salah, B. M., Alhamad, N. F., Alazzam, A. A., Albadarneh, M. M., Alqiam, H. A., & Rababah, M. A. (2022). Optimism predictive ability and psychological flexibility among students during COVID-19 pandemic. *Journal of Educational and Social Research*, 12(5), 197-206. DOI: <https://doi.org/10.36941/jesr-2022-0134>. Retrieved on 19 November, 2022.
- [49] Salah, B. M., Alhamad, N. F., Melhem, M. A., Sakarneh, M. A., Hayajneh, W. S., & Rababah, M. A. (2021). Kindergarten children's possession of life skills from teachers' viewpoints. *Review of International Geographical Education Online*, 11(8), 143–156. <https://doi.org/10.48047/rigeo.11.08.14>. Retrieved on January 10, 2024.
- [50] Sousa, F., Monteiro, I., Walton, A., and Pissarra, J. (2013), Learning from Failure: A Case Study on Creative Problem Solving. *Procedia – Social and Behavioral Sciences*, 75, 570-580. ScienceDirect.com|Science, health and medical journals, full text articles and books. Retrieved on 10 June, 2023.
- [51] Wolor, C. W., Ardiansyah, A., Rofaida, R., Nurkhin, A., & Rababah, M. A. (2022). Impact of toxic leadership on employee performance. *Health Psychology Research*, 10(4). <https://doi.org/10.52965/001c.57551>. Retrieved on 5 May, 2023.
- [52] Wolor, C. W., Wibawa, E. A., Eranza, D. R. D., Nurkhin, A., & Rababah, M. A. (2023). Impact of bullying on work motivation and job satisfaction. *Health Psychology Report*, 1–9. <https://doi.org/10.5114/hpr/166427>. Retrieved on January 10, 2024.
- [53] Yassien, B. B. M. B., Albadarneh, M. M. T., Alazzam, A. A. A. M., & Rababah, M. A. (2023). Relationship between organisational trust and decision-making participation. *Journal of Higher Education Theory and Practice*, 23(7). <https://doi.org/10.33423/jhetp.v23i7.6021>. Retrieved on January 10, 2024.



Nour Mohammad Harara is an assistant professor in the basic sciences department at Al-Balqa Applied University, Aqaba University College. Her main research interests are English language, translation, and linguistics. n.harara@bau.edu.jo



Emad Farouq Amarnah is an Associate Professor of Applied Linguistics at Al Ain University, Abu Dhabi, United Arab Emirates. His areas of interest are curriculum development, e-learning, blended learning, teacher training, and educational evaluation. Email: emad_amarnh@hotmail.com



Raid N. Al Hammouri received a PhD in Literature and Criticism from the Aristotle University of Thessaloniki, Greece 2007. He is an Assistant Professor at the Department of English Language and Translation, Jadara University, Jordan. His research interests are literature, criticism, and applied linguistics. Email: rhammouri@jadara.edu.jo



Mahmoud Ali Rababah has a PhD in Applied Linguistics from UUM Malaysia. He is a senior lecturer at Al-Balqa Applied University, Irbid University College, Department of English Language and Literature. His areas of interest are socio-pragmatics, sociolinguistics, applied linguistics, and translation.



Luqman Rababah is an associate professor of applied linguistics at Jadara University in Jordan. He teaches sociolinguistics, pragmatics, and second language acquisition. His research interests include pragmatics, semantics, discourse analysis, and sociolinguistics. Email: rababah80@gmail.com



Abdallah Hussein El-Omari is an associate professor of curriculum and methods of teaching English. His areas of interest are curriculum development, e-learning, blended learning, teacher training, and educational evaluation. Email: amri53@bau.edu.jo

University Students' Plagiarism Behaviours in Writing Instruction: A Systematic Review

Edhy Rustan

Institut Agama Islam Negeri Palopo, Palopo, Indonesia

Abstract—The literature indicates that students' understanding of plagiarism and academic writing skills impact their plagiarism behaviour. However, there has yet to be a review that explores the methods, supporting tools, and content of writing instruction that can effectively reduce plagiarism behaviour at the university level. Therefore, this systematic review aims to present academic writing instruction that can prevent plagiarism behaviour. The review data was derived from four different databases, EBSCO, Wiley, Proquest, and JSTOR, published from 2010 to 2022. The Preferred Reporting Items for Systematic Review and Meta-Analyses (PRISMA) standards were used to ensure that the review was systematically carried out. Based on the 22 articles reviewed, tutorial methods and workshops were most used to provide knowledge on plagiarism, followed by writing skills content, and guided writing practice. Writing skills content comprised word choice, grammar, citation, paraphrasing, and referencing concerning plagiarism prevention. This study also found that Rubrics and Turnitin applications were widely used as supporting tools for plagiarism checking and as feedback for the students. Implementing writing instruction coupled with plagiarism education and feedback can change students' plagiarism behaviour and improve their confidence in academic writing.

Index Terms—writing instruction, plagiarism, universities

I. INTRODUCTION

Plagiarism is reprehensible conduct that students may engage in, reflecting a breach of academic integrity (Bretag et al., 2019). Several types of plagiarism that often occur include (1) incorporating quotations in the text that are not listed in the bibliography, (2) writing a paper by copying the framework from another source without attribution, (3) allowing someone else to revise a paper extensively, and (4) recycling one's previous work without proper citation (Wangaard, 2016). Efforts that have been made to minimize plagiarism behaviour include promoting academic integrity, conducting writing instruction using various methods, and utilizing anti-plagiarism tools. However, despite these efforts, the prevalence of plagiarism among students continues to persist (Gureyev & Mazov, 2022). Therefore, this kind of academic breach is of paramount importance to examine.

Several studies have shown that some individuals continuously commit plagiarism despite understanding the concepts of academic writing ethics and academic integrity (Awasthi, 2019). The ease of accessing the internet and the lack of ethical maturity can trigger plagiarism behaviour (Bretag, 2016). Students can easily copy, include, and claim the work of others that already exist. Plagiarism can also be attributed to cultural, environmental, and time constraints, limited language proficiency, and inadequate writing skills (Liu & Wu, 2020). Furthermore, it is suggested that the lack of academic writing skills is the primary cause of committing plagiarism (Guraya & Guraya, 2017; Stander, 2020). Therefore, a comprehensive study is needed to explore prevention efforts to address plagiarism behaviour in academic writing.

Implementing academic writing instruction and teaching plagiarism to students significantly improves their knowledge, skills, attitudes, and positive behaviour in academic writing (Awasthi, 2019). Another contributing variable to plagiarism behaviour is the content of the academic writing instruction. Students with good academic writing skills have confidence in their writing ability, which affects their attitudes and plagiarism behaviour (Fazilatfar et al., 2018). The ability to paraphrase and cite sources is necessary to enhance students' academic writing skills and integrity (Stephens & Wangaard, 2016). In addition to content, using plagiarism prevention tools can aid in reducing instances of plagiarism and improving the quality of academic work. Thus, it is imperative to examine appropriate writing pedagogy to prevent plagiarism.

A comprehensive review of academic writing instruction at the university level in preventing plagiarism remains sparse despite numerous studies on this topic. A review is crucial as it thoroughly overviews existing research findings. Previous reviews have discussed plagiarism prevention and reduction by raising nursing students' awareness of plagiarism, but they did not specifically focus on academic writing. Therefore, there is a need for a review that specifically examines the effectiveness of academic writing instruction in preventing plagiarism at the university level (Lynch et al., 2017). Another review has addressed pedagogical interventions but only focused on using sources/references, with results that have not significantly reduced plagiarism (Pecorari & Petrić, 2014). Based on this, this paper presents a literature synthesis on methods, writing content, supporting tools, and changes in plagiarism

behaviour after participating in academic writing learning. This study aims to fill the gap in academic writing learning by preventing plagiarism behaviour that can be applied at the university level.

II. METHOD

A. Study Design

This review presents a synthesis through a systematic review of the primary literature examining academic writing instruction in preventing plagiarism. This review follows the PRISMA guidelines developed by Page et al. (2021) to select appropriate studies and improve the quality of systematic reviews. Study selection criteria passed through four phases: identification, screening, eligibility, and inclusion. The systematic review asked critical questions (Alexander, 2020). The research questions for this review were:

What methods, content, and supporting tools can be used in academic writing instruction to prevent plagiarism behaviour among students? What students' plagiarism behaviour changes after academic writing instructions are provided?

This review was registered on the Open Science Framework on March 18, 2023 (DOI: <https://doi.org/10.17605/OSF.IO/WKUZE>).

B. Criteria of Study

This review covers an overview of academic writing instruction to prevent and reduce plagiarism among university students. The scope of the review is limited to English-language literature to minimize the risk of the researcher's misinterpretation of the studies reviewed. The researcher has limited proficiency in languages other than English, and including articles in languages other than English may lead to errors in the review process. Studies were excluded if they were reference books, book reviews, or critical discussion papers. It is because reference books often use outdated sources of information, whereas this review aims to present the latest information. However, articles from Handbooks that met the study criteria were still included.

C. The Search and Selection Strategies

The systematic literature search was performed using various databases, including EBSCO, Wiley, PROQUEST, and JSTOR, covering January 1, 2010, to December 31, 2022. The selection of these databases and timeframe was intended to provide educators with evidence-based and up-to-date information for selecting effective academic writing pedagogies at the university level. Since adopting anti-plagiarism tools has been widespread since 2010 (Mozgovoy et al., 2010), investigating methods and tools obtained is more adaptable. The search for articles was conducted using the keywords "university OR college" AND "writing skills OR writing ability OR writing development OR writing improvement" AND "plagiarism OR academic integrity OR patchwriting". A total of 481 references were found and published from 2010 to 2022. Duplicate articles from the search results were subsequently removed.

In selecting the studies, the researcher was assisted by two independent reviewers (MY and Hs). Before carrying out their tasks, both reviewers were given the same understanding of the study criteria. Then, the inter-rater reliability was measured to assess the consistency between the reviewers' abilities. The obtained result was 0.93, indicating that the reviewers' perceptions were the same. The next step involved screening the titles and abstracts of the identified articles from the databases to determine their relevance to the study. The full texts of the relevant articles were then retrieved for inclusion assessment. Any discrepancies between the two reviewers were resolved through a consensus process involving the author and the two independent reviewers in a discussion forum.

D. Extraction and Data Analysis

In this review, a data extraction tool was designed to guide the information retrieval from the notes following the review objectives. The data extracted from each included study included: author(s), year, country, study design, research objective, academic writing pedagogy, plagiarism checking tools, writing content taught, changes in plagiarism behaviour after implementing the writing pedagogy, and other impacts resulting from each study. The next step involved data analysis using thematic analysis based on the methods, content, and tools used in academic writing pedagogy to reduce student plagiarism behaviour.

III. RESULT

A. Characteristics of the Studies

Out of the 481 studies that were identified, 22 articles met the criteria. The results of the study selection can be seen in Figure 1.

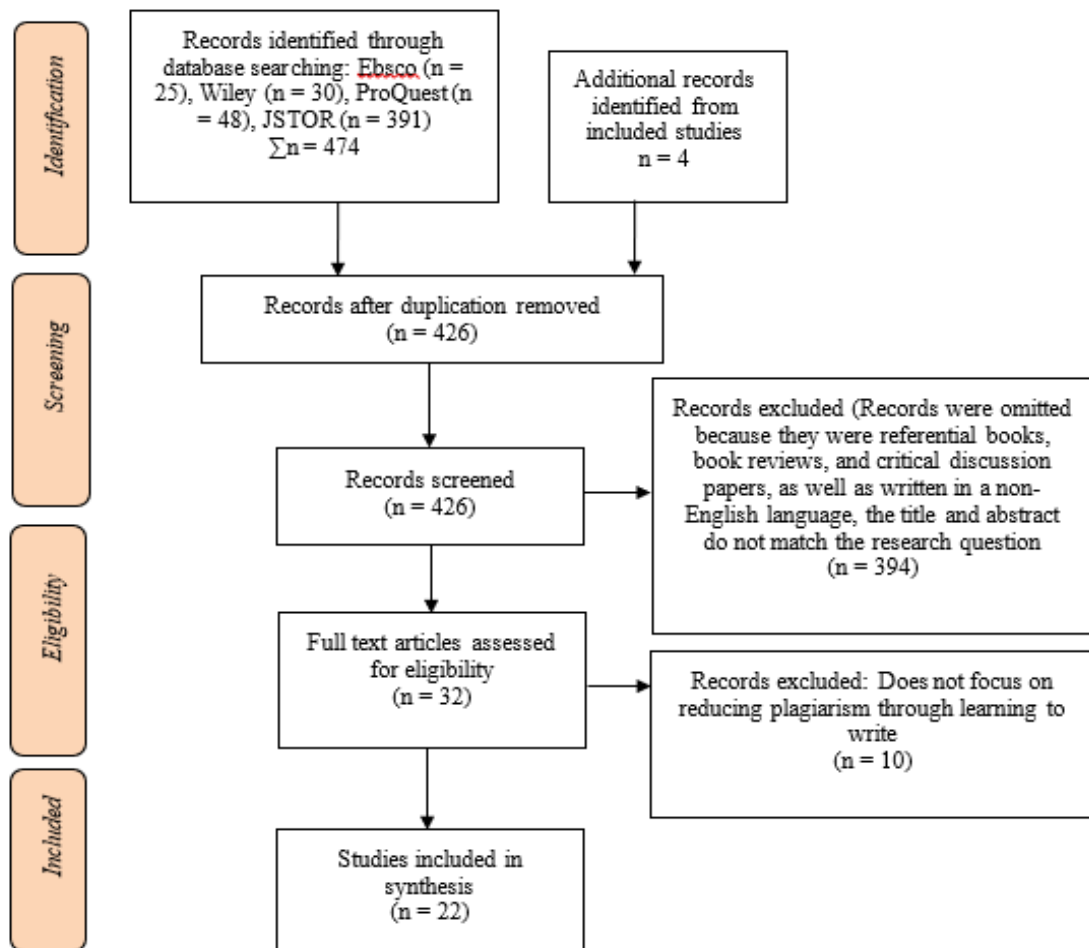


Figure 1. PRISMA Flow Diagram

The analyzed studies were conducted with various research designs from different countries. The characteristics of the studies can be seen in Table 1.

TABLE 1
STUDY CHARACTERISTICS

No.	Author, Year, Country	Design	Sample	Number of sessions
1.	Elander (2010) UK	An instructional intervention	364 psychology students at three post-1992 universities in London	Not explain
2.	Holt (2012) USA	Experiment with a control group design	148 students, in 2010 (n=94) and in 2011 (n=54).	Not explain
3.	Owens and White (2013) Australia	Prospective cohort	14338 undergraduate students	The number of sessions is not explained, but learning outcomes are evaluated every semester.
4.	Teh and Paull (2013) Australia	Descriptive papers	-	-
5.	Larsson and Hansson (2013) Sweden		169 students	2 stages
6.	Burgess-Proctor et al. (2014) USA	Descriptive	Undergraduate students of sociology	Each session lasts 40 minutes.
7.	Colton and Surasinghe (2014) USA	Descriptive	38 undergraduate students of biology divided into two sessions	Lessons are conducted twice a week, and the meeting lasts 1.5 hours.
8.	Chew et al. (2015) UK	Cross-disciplinary group	128 people filling out the online questionnaire 10 students and 7 lecturers were interviewed	
9.	Dalal (2015) USA		26 students are attending information systems courses.	Not explain

10.	Divan et al. (2015) UK	Experiment cohort	90 magister students of biological sciences consisting of 30 UK students and 60 international students	Not explain
11.	Odom and Helfers (2016) USA	The grounded theory approach contains qualitative and quantitative	38 students of criminal justice	Not explain
12.	Carnero et al. (2017) Peru	Case study	Magister students in Peru.	Learning is carried out in six sessions, with each session lasting 1.5 hours
13.	Watson (2017) USA	Descriptive	-	Not explain
14.	Liu et al. (2018) Taiwan	Mixed method	14 undergraduate EFL students (11 female and 3 male) with intermediate English language proficiency	Meetings are held weekly, and each session lasts 50 minutes
15.	Rathore et al. (2018) Palestine	Cross-sectional	80 consisting of 38 males and 42 females (the average of age: 26.2 years)	Learning is carried out in 4 workshop sessions, with each session lasting 40 minutes
16.	El Tantawi et al. (2018) Saudi Arabia	Quasi-experiment pre-test–post-test	Participants were 92 first-year students of dental science in two different classes (47 males and 45 females) with an average of age: 20 years.	Not explain
17.	Dayyeh and Skakiyya (2018) Palestine	Survey	727 undergraduate students consisting of 80.6% female and 19.4% male	Not explain
18.	Wrigley (2019) UK	Phenomenological research	Students in academic writing classes	Not explain
19.	Yang et al. (2019) USA	Quasi-experiment with a control group	185 undergraduate students of biological science divided into the control group (n = 91) and the intervention group (n = 94)	Not explain
20.	Perkins et al. (2020) Vietnam	Quasi-experiment with a control group	Not explain	Not explain
21.	Du (2020) China	Quasi-experiment without a control group	33 graduated students	The course is conducted over 3 sessions in 3 consecutive weeks. Each session lasts two hours per week
22.	Vaccino-Salvadore and Hall Buck (2021) Saudi Arabia		A total of 18 international students	Not explain

B. Writing Learning Methods

The reviewed studies (n=22) revealed that various methods were utilized in teaching writing to prevent and reduce plagiarism (see Table 2).

TABLE 2
WRITING LEARNING METHODS, TOOLS USED, AND THE RESULT OF INTERVENTION

No.	Author	Procedure	Learning content	Supporting tools	Result
Tutorial					
1.	Owens and White (2013)	Semester 1 students write an essay on a topic while semester 2 students write a simple research report The assignment was then checked using WCopyfind, students who copied a lot were sent emails about their plagiarism behavior.	Plagiarism and parafrase	WCopyfind and peer feedback	There has been a decrease in plagiarism cases from 109 to no plagiarism cases
2.	Chew et al. (2015)	Students are given an initial understanding of the use of Turnitin and then assigned to write an essay	Use Turnitin	Turnitin and lecturer feedback	It shows students to be independent and have much better paraphrasing skills
3.	Wrigley (2019)	Students are given the task of writing essays using a laptop or handwriting	Basic rules of writing	Not explain	Students in writing papers produce better and more original writing by handwriting than using google translate or web-based paraphrasing software.
4.	Colton and	Students in groups develop proposals and	Basic rules of writing	Friends and	Students find it very

	Surasinghe (2014)	then present them and give feedback		lecture feedback	helpful to avoid plagiarism with group tutorial programs accompanied by a peer-review process.
5.	Odom and Helfers (2016)	Students write systematic essays according to the sources that have been distributed by the lecturer	Academic integrity and detecting plagiarism, discussing grammar/mechanics, academic diction, APA citation style, citing and writing references	Friends feedback	Students can improve grammar skills, diction selection, paraphrasing, and quotations. Students' confidence in writing without plagiarism also increases
6.	Buargess-Proctor et al. (2014)	Students follow online tutorials regarding plagiarism material and how to avoid it. After that, students took part in library orientation and writing workshops	Plagiarism, Paraphrase, quote, reference writing, mencari sumber yang relevan	Not explain	Students can complete assignments without plagiarism and their self-confidence increases in writing without plagiarism
7.	Liu et al. (2018)	Blending face-to-face and online	Paraphrase, quote, reference writing	Turnitin	Students can paraphrase and feel confidence by changing grammar and using synonyms, citing, and writing references
Workshop					
1.	Watson (2017)	Adaptation of the Citation Project program. Students are taught about plagiarism and how to avoid it and then analyze their own writing	Using proper references, how to integrate sources into writing, how best to acknowledge and cite sources, syntax, paraphrasing, patchwriting	Not explain	Students are aware of patchwriting and how to quote correctly so that students can avoid plagiarism
2.	Rathore et al. (2018)	Learning to write includes scientific writing errors, ethical and non-ethical writing criteria, plagiarism and how to detect and avoid plagiarism	Basic rules of writing	Not explain	There is an increase in positive attitudes towards plagiarism
Tutorial and workshop					
1.	Divan et al. (2015)	The habit of writing according to campus rules and writing literature reviews from various sources	Search and find high-quality scientific literature, writing references, use of reference managers, and plagiarism	Turnitin	The number of plagiarism cases decreased and student confidence increases in using accurate references, not plagiarizing, writing critically and synthesizing material from different sources
2.	Larsson and Hansson (2013)	Preventive learning on the prevention and prevention of plagiarism in academic writing	Plagiarism policy and academic writing	Turnitin	Educational activities repeatedly raise awareness of the problem of plagiarism.
Reflective writing course					
1.	Dalal (2015)	Students identified as having committed plagiarism were invited to have a dialogue and reflect on the essay	Paraphrase	Turnitin	The remaining 1 out of 26 students copied the textbook while the other students had Turnitin results <10%
2.	Vaccino-Salvadore and Hall Buck (2021)	Focuses on introducing critical writing and literacy skills	Plagiarism, how to find reference sources, using APA citations, writing references	Not explain	Perceptions of plagiarism changed in terms of having ideas, having language, and having time that could be planned for the research process.
3.	Yang et al. (2019)	Students in the essay writing intervention group were then asked to analyze the plagiarism they had done. After that, students learn to write using their own voice	Paraphrase	Not explain	The decrease in plagiarism cases in the intervention group was 0.67 cases per report, while in the control group, it was 1.31 times plagiarism cases.

4.	Dayyeh and Skakiyya (2018)	Educate students about plagiarism and equip them with basic writing skills	Summarize, paraphrase, quote, and cite	Not explain	Not explain
5.	Elander (2010)	Changing students' attitudes about themselves as scholar writers. Writing practice is accompanied by giving examples of work to help students illustrate the general rules of plagiarism	Authorship and knowledge avoid plagiarism	Not explain	The intervention led to significantly increased confidence in writing, understanding of authorship, and knowledge to avoid plagiarism
Games					
1.	El Tantawi et al. (2018)	Students in groups collect the most points by writing essays	Basic rules of writing	Turnitin	The percentage of plagiarism decreased marked by the ability to detect and avoid plagiarism and use quotes and references.
Methods of training and mentoring					
1.	Carnero et al. (2017)	Students teach every part of scientific work and are always evaluated without tolerance for plagiarism.	Basic rules of writing	iThenticate	Students are protected from plagiarism and cheating
2.	Teh and Paull (2013)	Students are given education about plagiarism and how to avoid it. After that, they were given writing assignments and gave feedback to each other	Plagiarism and Paraphrase	Friends feedback	Not explain
3.	Du (2020)	Students are taught plagiarism knowledge and skills in making source references in the form of paraphrasing and summarizing	Plagiarism, paraphrasing, summarizing, writing references	Discussion with lecturers	The students indicated that they had improved their ability to recognize textual authorship that required references, verbatim copying by students decreased, and extensive copying of source texts increased
Writing basics course					
1.	Perkins et al. (2020)	Students write essays according to the question items. Fraud committed by students is dealt with in stages starting from the faculty to the university	Plagiarism, paraphrasing, grammatical quality, lexical, paragraphing skills, coherence, vocabulary, paraphrasing, reference writing, and critical thinking.	Turnitin	The intervention showed a 37.01% reduction in detected plagiarism cases
2.	Holt (2012)	Students are guided on how to quote and paraphrase	Paraphrase, quote, reference writing	Turnitin	Students can complete assignments without plagiarism accompanied by increased understanding and awareness of plagiarism

The tutorial was the most used method in preventing and reducing plagiarism. The tutorial method included individual, group, and online tutorials. Individual tutorials were conducted in 3 studies (Chew et al., 2015; Owens & White, 2013; Wrigley, 2019). In Owens' (2013) study, the individual tutorial method began with educating students on plagiarism policies before providing writing exercises. Writing exercises were accompanied by feedback and peer review. Chew et al. (2015) conducted a study in which students were trained to write essays independently, beginning with training in using and interpreting Turnitin's plagiarism detection software. Efforts to reduce plagiarism in student writing relied on improvement from reading Turnitin's results. In contrast, individual tutorial compared student plagiarism behaviour in essay writing between using a laptop and writing by hand (Wrigley, 2019).

Group tutorials were conducted in 2 studies (Colton & Surasinghe, 2014; Odom & Helfers, 2016). The study by Colton and Surasinghe (2014) discussed group-based tutorials on research proposal writing for students based on their expertise. A collaborative tutorial by Odom (2016), applying the plagiarism prevention method in writing papers by students involves the steps of paraphrasing the given sources by the tutor. In addition, two studies have combined online tutorials and writing workshops. Burgess-Proctor et al. (2014) provided knowledge and ways to avoid plagiarism through an online tutorial. Another study oriented EFL students through online and face-to-face tutorials in recognizing and preventing plagiarism (Liu et al., 2018).

The workshop conducted by Watson (2017) utilized an application that adopted the Citation Project (CP) program. The workshop did not focus on penalizing plagiarism but on orienting students to recognize and understand their mistakes. In contrast, Rathore's (2018) research focused on a four-hour workshop, which included explanations of scientific writing topics and errors, ethical policies, and guidelines for avoiding plagiarism. The focus of this workshop was on knowledge rather than practical application.

Divan's (2015) study aimed to address unintentional plagiarism among international students through a two-stage writing course and workshop. During the workshop, the focus of the feedback provided by instructors was on errors in referencing format, inadequate citation, and the need for further paraphrasing. In contrast, Larsson and Hansson's (2013) workshop was assisted by the SciPro application to reduce plagiarism. The focus of this workshop was on the prevention and detection of plagiarism in academic writing.

The method for preventing plagiarism through reflective writing courses, as implemented by Dalal (2015), combines two practices: reflective dialogue to build awareness of plagiarism and reflective dialogue toward student essays. The writing course with reflective practice, conducted by Vaccino-Salvadore and Hall Buck (2021), aims to introduce critical writing and literacy skills. The course commences with a discussion on plagiarism before students practice writing simple essays. The course emphasizes the method of searching for reference sources, using APA citations, and integrating a minimum of six academic sources into their writing.

In contrast to other writing courses, the study conducted by Yang et al. (2019) examined the implementation of writing instruction that utilized students' own words. The course was designed to help students become more aware of several types of plagiarism and writing issues through analysis of their writing. Students identified instances of plagiarism and made corrections to their actions. Similarly, Dayyeh and Skakiyya (2018) study focused on academic writing training by increasing students' awareness of academic standards. Students received education on plagiarism and were equipped with basic research skills through a mandatory university course in their first year. The course also utilized the library to raise awareness of plagiarism, practiced theory, and activated the writing centre for academic assistance. Elander et al.'s (2010) course was designed to change students' attitudes about themselves as academic writers. Writing practices were accompanied by examples of works to help students illustrate general plagiarism rules. However, the study revealed that students preferred learning in groups, receiving professor feedback, and using internet-sourced plagiarism content.

Holt's (2012) plagiarism prevention course focused on understanding plagiarism and improving paraphrasing skills and citation methods. Efforts were made to ensure that citations and paraphrasing were plagiarism-free by giving assignments to summarize literature using their own words. It differs from the writing course in Perkins et al.'s (2020) study. The class began with analyzing students' needs related to knowledge of plagiarism, research, and academic writing. Students were provided with information about the course procedures and plagiarism's dangers and penalties. In the study, students wrote essays based on several questions and reading sources offered in the Academic English Masterclass (AEM) application. If there was a potential suspicion or occurrence of plagiarism by students, it was addressed in a graduated manner, starting from the faculty to the university.

The prevention of plagiarism through gradual training and mentoring in academic writing was carried out in three studies. Carnero et al. (2017) conducted writing courses by gradually presenting the contents of each section and the basics of scientific writing. This learning process was done with strict plagiarism detection and zero tolerance for plagiarism behaviour. Meanwhile, Teh and Paull's (2013) study presented three aspects of a gradual writing education model. The first aspect was a systematic education on plagiarism. The second aspect was guided instruction for students to complete tasks designed to enhance their understanding of plagiarism. The third aspect was collaborative learning in writing skills by having students give feedback to each other in groups. Du's (2019) course focused on providing knowledge about plagiarism and abilities in making source references over two hours for three weeks. In writing exercises, students were expected to distinguish between quoted/paraphrased/summarized sources, ideas, and reflections.

In contrast to the approaches above, El Tantawi et al. (2018) study-oriented plagiarism prevention in writing instruction through gamification. Students competed in groups to collect the highest number of points in detecting and avoiding plagiarism, with score acquisition accompanied by evidence of using supporting references in their writing. The task was submitted through an LMS, given anonymous feedback, and checked through Turnitin. The gamification method implemented in this study cannot be utilized for a prolonged time with the same pattern, as it may cause students to become bored.

C. Contents of Writing Instructions

A diverse range of learning content is provided to prevent and reduce plagiarism in writing (Table 2). Although different content is given, all reviewed studies provide knowledge about plagiarism and writing ethics, aiming to increase students' awareness of plagiarism. In addition, the provision of writing content is based on the issues faced by students and the duration of the writing intervention. Among the 22 reviewed studies, ten studies teach paraphrase content along with academic writing techniques (Carnero et al., 2017; Colton & Surasinghe, 2014; El Tantawi et al., 2018; Elander et al., 2010; Larsson & Hansson, 2013; Odom & Helfers, 2016; Owens & White, 2013; Perkins et al., 2020; Rathore et al., 2018; Wrigley, 2019). Academic writing content includes grammar, scientific paper components, word choice, writing style, and referencing. Nine studies combine paraphrase content with citation, referencing, and using various sources (Burgess-Proctor et al., 2014; Chew et al., 2015; Dayyeh & Skakiyya, 2018; Divan et al., 2015;

Du, 2020; Holt, 2012; Liu et al., 2018; Vaccino-Salvadore & Hall Buck, 2021). Three studies focus solely on paraphrasing content (Dalal, 2015; Teh & Paull, 2013; Yang et al., 2019).

D. Supporting Tools for Plagiarism Checking in Writing Instruction

Several supporting learning tools were used to assess the changes in students' writing abilities related to plagiarism (Table 2). Of all the reviewed studies, the software most commonly used for plagiarism checking was Turnitin (Chew et al., 2015; Dalal, 2015; Divan et al., 2015; Du, 2020; El Tantawi et al., 2018; Holt, 2012; Larsson & Hansson, 2013; Liu et al., 2018; Perkins et al., 2020). Other software tools were iThenticate (Carnero et al., 2017) and WCopyfind (Owens & White, 2013). In addition to using software, the use of rubrics in assessing student writing was also found (Burgess-Proctor et al., 2014; Odom & Helfers, 2016; Yang et al., 2019). In the study by Owens and White (2013), plagiarism checking was done by directly comparing articles or reading sources that had been given previously.

The assessment of similarity through Turnitin output has been employed in several studies as a feedback tool to address student plagiarism. In addition to Turnitin, some studies have utilized the SciPro application with an itemized checklist containing peer-reviewed evaluations and assessments as a reflective tool for student self-evaluation. The purpose of providing feedback through these supporting tools is to enhance student knowledge and awareness of plagiarism (Larsson & Hansson, 2013).

E. Changes in Plagiarism Behaviour After Writing Instructions

Of the total studies reviewed, 18 examined changes in students' knowledge, attitudes, and behaviours regarding plagiarism after writing instruction (Table 2). These studies include (Burgess-Proctor et al., 2014; Carnero et al., 2017; Chew et al., 2015; Colton & Surasinghe, 2014; Dalal, 2015; Du, 2020; El Tantawi et al., 2018; Elander et al., 2010; Holt, 2012; Larsson & Hansson, 2013; Liu et al., 2018; Odom & Helfers, 2016; Perkins et al., 2020; Rathore et al., 2018; Vaccino-Salvadore & Hall Buck, 2021; Watson, 2017; Wrigley, 2019; Yang et al., 2019). In addition to changes in plagiarism behaviour, four studies examined changes in students' confidence in writing (Burgess-Proctor et al., 2014; Divan et al., 2015; Elander et al., 2010; M. Liu & Wu, 2020; Odom & Helfers, 2016). Through the courses provided, students felt confident in writing essays well. They thought they had paraphrased and cited correctly.

Several obstacles were encountered during the implementation of academic writing courses. Students were afraid of the feedback from Turnitin (Chew et al., 2015). Another impact of plagiarism prevention efforts found that students tended to overuse citations due to signing an integrity statement and a desire to avoid plagiarism (Burgess-Proctor et al., 2014). Watson's (2017) study showed that students who struggled with language were more likely to engage in patchwriting (Watson, 2017). Divan et al. (2015) argued that to reduce/prevent plagiarism, it is not enough to educate students about plagiarism simply, but it must be accompanied by writing practice from sources and instructor feedback. Student characteristics should be distinguished based on their understanding of plagiarism culture and writing abilities, including foreign learners.

IV. DISCUSSION

This review's findings contradict Wette's (2010) claim that literature on plagiarism tends to be more problem-oriented than the solution or practice-oriented. Many alternatives can be implemented to address student plagiarism behaviour, including using methods that reflect best practices in plagiarism prevention, providing content, and using plagiarism prevention tools, as well as addressing plagiarism behaviour. The most employed learning method in plagiarism prevention practice in writing is tutorials and workshops. The tutorial method can help students understand lesson content well (Azer, 2015). With tutorials, students can interact to provide feedback with the guidance of a tutor. Interaction can broaden insights, add ideas about topics, and add experience. The combination of tutorial and workshop methods makes the learning process and interaction integrated into one learning unit. As evidence of their effectiveness in addressing student writing plagiarism behaviour, several studies in this review also found that combining tutorials with workshops can provide knowledge and practice in preventing plagiarism (Divan et al., 2015; Larsson & Hansson, 2013). Furthermore, combining both allows students to experience a more interactive writing process.

The provision of knowledge and training has been found to address academic writing plagiarism effectively. All the studies in this review corroborate this, which indicates that students need to be educated on plagiarism content as a preventive measure. The attitude and behaviour of student plagiarism are influenced by the implementation of writing training accompanied by plagiarism education (Awasthi, 2019). Plagiarism education needs to clarify the broad and diverse definition of plagiarism to prevent opportunities for misunderstanding and ambivalence among students (Elaine, 2017). In addition, knowledge of plagiarism in academic writing must be integrated with cultivating anti-plagiarism attitudes. Individuals who possess knowledge coupled with the cultivation of attitudes are more effective in changing their behaviour (Memon & Mavrinac, 2020). Furthermore, the study strengthens the argument that to enhance academic integrity, students must be equipped with moral identity as the fundamental basis for forming academic attitudes (Wangaard, 2016). Thus, students need to be equipped with knowledge of plagiarism and the cultivation of anti-plagiarism attitudes to strengthen academic integrity.

In addition to plagiarism education, this review also highlights the need for providing writing skills training for students. The best practical form of this training, according to various studies, involves writing exercises with feedback

and peer review by classmates. The involvement of students in the process of developing their understanding and skills is crucial. Providing feedback on the plagiarism behaviour of students is appropriate for self-reflection. Moreover, feedback activities can also be a form of self-directed learning to inform the improvement of students' writing skills (Chew et al., 2015). Most studies on feedback refer to Turnitin's plagiarism-checking results. It is done to help students reflect on their plagiarism behaviour in writing. It accords with Eaton and Edino (2018), who argue that Turnitin can be utilized to strengthen students' academic integrity. This tool can be used at the university level, as students are capable of self-directed learning through reflection and self-efficacy improvement (Lock et al., 2017). Furthermore, Liu et al. (2018) advocate that providing feedback is a form of self-evaluation to prevent plagiarism (Liu et al., 2018).

In addition to Turnitin, feedback can be provided through the method of comparing source writing previously given based on a rubric (Odom & Helfers, 2016). Students favour workshop activities with the assistance of writing rubrics as they can prepare assignments more effectively (Burgess-Proctor et al., 2014). Considering the advantages and responses to rubrics, scientific writing learning exercises need to be provided to self-check students. This would also anticipate findings indicating that students feel anxious about the results of Turnitin checks (Chew et al., 2015). Using plagiarism detection tools such as Turnitin needs to consider student privacy and avoid unintentional plagiarism identification errors.

Similarly, the study by Burgess-Proctor et al. (2014) found that exercise activities accompanied by peer review were disliked by students due to unsatisfactory review results and uncomfortable feelings about evaluating peers. A solution to this issue in Odom's study is providing anonymous student writing samples in the classroom. Inconvenience about evaluating peers can be overcome by not including student names in peer review/blind peer review activities. Using anonymity helps reviewers be more professional in assessing writing (Brown, 2007). Furthermore, their narrative review found that anonymous peer assessment benefits student perceptions of peer assessment learning outcomes, provides more critical peer feedback, and enhances self-perception of social effects (Panadero & Alqassab, 2019).

In providing academic writing content, consideration must also be given to the varying linguistic abilities of students. This review indicates that teaching writing to prevent plagiarism includes grammar, word choice, language style, paraphrasing, citation, and reference writing. Students must be taught good writing skills, paraphrasing techniques, citation techniques, and citation styles to develop academic integrity skills (Stephens & Wangaard, 2016). Furthermore, explicit teaching of academic integrity, citation techniques, and paraphrasing has the potential to reduce cases of academic integrity violations (Stoesz & Yuditseva, 2018). This view is supported by Bacha et al. (2012), who also recommended that students be given knowledge of paraphrasing and reference usage, how to access references, and encouraged to read more information related to the discussed topic. They provide academic writing content by gradually presenting each part's content and the basics of writings necessary (Carnero et al., 2017). With the appropriate knowledge, it is hoped that student plagiarism behaviour can be reduced.

Collaborative efforts are needed to reduce the incidence of plagiarism among students. University lecturers and officials should possess competencies that support academic integrity, create a learning environment and culture of academic integrity within the institution, apply strategies to address student cheating and develop students' moral identity (Wangaard, 2016). This review reveals prevention efforts integrated with the library as a comprehensive step towards preventing plagiarism through writing education. Studies suggest that library orientation provides research skills and enhances students' confidence in preparing academic papers (Burgess-Proctor et al., 2014). Using the library to raise awareness of plagiarism, apply theory, and activate the writing centre to seek academic assistance (Dayyeh & Skakiyya, 2018). Comprehensive education on plagiarism, specifically within writing education, is essential to instil habits among students that will prevent plagiarism in their future endeavours, including in the workforce. It is crucial because research has shown that academic cheating among students tends to increase as they progress to higher levels of education, even into their professional lives (Mulisa & Ebessa, 2021). In case of suspected plagiarism or other forms of academic misconduct, all stakeholders should be involved. Action should be taken stepwise from the faculty level up to the university level (Perkins et al., 2020).

Furthermore, this review reveals a conflict among the interventions of several studies regarding the follow-up actions on plagiarism behaviour. Two studies consider that the strictness and clarity of punishment are essential in preventing/reducing plagiarism (Carnero et al., 2017; Roe & Perkins, 2022). Moreover, a zero-tolerance policy's success in a course is due to the policy's implementation (Carnero et al., 2017). On the other hand, three studies believe that involving students in self-assessing their writing, accompanied by writing support, is more effective in preventing plagiarism behaviour than punishing students (Dalal, 2015; Owens & White, 2013; Yang et al., 2019). This view is supported by Chew et al.'s (2015) study, which suggests that students who commit plagiarism through email were not given punishment. Similarly, the Watson (2017) study focused on orienting students towards recognizing and identifying their own errors rather than punishing them for their plagiarism behaviour. Therefore, policies related to punishment for plagiarism behaviour in institutions need further examination.

To facilitate further research, this review presents the distribution of countries that focus on strengthening academic integrity through writing instruction. The countries with the most studies on this topic are America and Europe, while studies from Asia and Australia are still scarce, and no studies from Africa were found. It is acknowledged that practitioners in the classroom, library, and writing centre are trying to prevent plagiarism. However, the low percentage of articles found on preventing plagiarism through writing instruction reflects the low publication rate in this field.

Based on this, it is an opportunity for researchers in this area to focus their studies and provide more references on this topic for publication.

V. LIMITATIONS

This review has limitations, as it only investigates articles published in English, which may lead to incomplete findings and restrictions in accessing some full texts. Additionally, the review summarizes a relatively small number of studies and is limited to articles from higher education settings. The review is constrained by the selection of language and databases used to identify studies. Therefore, it is recommended that future research use a more diverse range of languages and databases. Another limitation is that the review only addresses interventions related to plagiarism behaviour. Two trends are identified in the studies reviewed: punishment for plagiarism behaviour or focusing on orienting students to become aware of and understand their own mistakes. However, the review does not address the effectiveness of these trends, indicating a need for studies that measure the effectiveness of follow-up actions for plagiarism.

Furthermore, cultural differences among students may affect their knowledge and behavioral responses to plagiarism. This finding suggests that understanding students' cultural backgrounds can help educators design more culturally appropriate academic integrity programs. In addition, the review identified challenges in teaching writing and preventing plagiarism in the digital era. With easy access to online sources, students can easily copy and paste text or paraphrase without considering changes in meaning. There is also a recent phenomenon of using artificial intelligence software to complete writing tasks. Future research should investigate these challenges and develop learning designs that solve the problems identified.

VI. CONCLUSION

Overall, this review focuses on the appropriate methods, supporting tools, and content for implementing effective writing instruction at the university level and the impact of such education on reducing student plagiarism. Tutorial and workshop methods were the most used approaches for teaching plagiarism and writing skills, with content focusing on word choice, grammar, citations, paraphrasing, reference writing, and knowledge of plagiarism. Supporting tools such as rubrics and Turnitin were utilized to facilitate reflection, feedback, peer review, and plagiarism detection. Across all studies, implementing writing instruction improved knowledge, attitudes, confidence, and behaviour related to writing and plagiarism. However, the review is limited in scope and may not fully represent all types of writing instruction at all universities. The study aims to stimulate discussion among policymakers and practitioners regarding effective methods for teaching writing and preventing plagiarism at the university level while also identifying areas for future research.

REFERENCES

- [1] Alexander, P. A. (2020). Methodological Guidance Paper: The Art and Science of Quality Systematic Reviews. *Review of Educational Research*, 90(1), 6–23. <https://doi.org/10.3102/0034654319854352>
- [2] Awasthi, S. (2019). Plagiarism and Academic Misconduct: A Systematic Review. *Journal of Library & Information Technology*, 39(2), 94–100. <https://doi.org/10.14429/djlit.39.2.13622>
- [3] Azer, S. (2015). Group interaction in problem-based learning tutorials: A systematic review. *European Journal of Dental Education*, 19(4), 194–208. <https://doi.org/10.1111/eje.12121>
- [4] Bacha, N. N., Bahous, R., & Nabhani, M. (2012). High schoolers' views on academic integrity. *Research Papers in Education*, 27(3), 365–381. <https://doi.org/10.1080/02671522.2010.550010>
- [5] Bretag, T. (2016). *Handbook of Academic Integrity*. Springer Reference. https://doi.org/10.1007/978-981-287-098-8_4
- [6] Bretag, T., Harper, R., Burton, M., Ellis, C., Newton, P., Rozenberg, P., Saddiqui, S., & van Haeringen, K. (2019). Contract cheating: a survey of Australian university students. *Studies in Higher Education*, 44(11), 1837–1856. <https://doi.org/10.1080/03075079.2018.1462788>
- [7] Brown, R. J. C. (2007). Double anonymity in peer review within the chemistry periodicals community. *Learned Publishing*, 20(2), 131–137. <https://doi.org/10.1087/174148507X185108>
- [8] Burgess-Proctor, A., Cassano, G., Condron, D. J., Lyons, H. A., & Sanders, G. (2014). A Collective Effort to Improve Sociology Students' Writing Skills. *Teaching Sociology*, 42(2), 130–139. <https://doi.org/10.1177/0092055X13512458>
- [9] Carnero, A. M., Mayta-Tristan, P., Konda, K. A., Mezones-Holguin, E., Bernabe-Ortiz, A., Alvarado, G. F., Canelo-Aybar, C., Maguilla, J. L., Segura, E. R., Quispe, A. M., Smith, E. S., Bayer, A. M., & Lescano, A. G. (2017). Plagiarism, Cheating and Research Integrity: Case Studies from a Masters Program in Peru. *Science and Engineering Ethics*, 23(4), 1183–1197. <https://doi.org/10.1007/s11948-016-9820-z>
- [10] Chew, E., Ding, S. L., & Rowell, G. (2015). Changing attitudes in learning and assessment: cast-off 'plagiarism detection' and cast-on self-service assessment for learning. *Innovations in Education and Teaching International*, 52(5), 454–463. <https://doi.org/10.1080/14703297.2013.832633>
- [11] Colton, J. S., & Surasinghe, T. D. (2014). Using Collaboration Between English and Biology to Teach Scientific Writing and Communication. *Journal of College Science Teaching*, 44(2), 31–39. <https://doi.org/10.1598/0872072681.11>
- [12] Dalal, N. (2015). Responding to plagiarism using reflective means. *International Journal for Educational Integrity*, 11(1), 1–12. <https://doi.org/10.1007/s40979-015-0002-6>
- [13] Dayyeh, I. A., & Skakiyya, I. (2018). Perspectives of Students and Faculty at Bethlehem University towards Plagiarism: Challenges and Solutions. *Bethlehem University Journal*, 35, 91–111. <https://doi.org/10.13169/bethunivj.35.2018.0091>

- [14] Divan, A., Bowman, M., & Seabourne, A. (2015). Reducing unintentional plagiarism amongst international students in the biological sciences: An embedded academic writing development programme. *Journal of Further and Higher Education*, 39(3), 358–378. <https://doi.org/10.1080/0309877X.2013.858674>
- [15] Du, Y. (2020). Evaluation of intervention on Chinese graduate students' understanding of textual plagiarism and skills at source referencing. *Assessment and Evaluation in Higher Education*, 45(1), 14–29. <https://doi.org/10.1080/02602938.2019.1601680>
- [16] Eaton, S. E., & Edino, R. I. (2018). Strengthening the research agenda of educational integrity in Canada: A review of the research literature and call to action. In *International Journal for Educational Integrity*, 14(1). BioMed Central Ltd. <https://doi.org/10.1007/s40979-018-0028-7>
- [17] El Tantawi, M., Sadaf, S., & AlHumaid, J. (2018). Using gamification to develop academic writing skills in dental undergraduate students. *European Journal of Dental Education*, 22(1), 15–22. <https://doi.org/10.1111/eje.12238>
- [18] Elaine, S. (2017). Comparative Analysis of Institutional Policy Definitions of Plagiarism : A Pan-Canadian University Study. *Interchange*, 48, 271–281. <https://doi.org/10.1007/s10780-017-9300-7>
- [19] Elander, J., Pittam, G., Lusher, J., Fox, P., & Payne, N. (2010). Evaluation of an intervention to help students avoid unintentional plagiarism by improving their authorial identity. *Assessment and Evaluation in Higher Education*, 35(2), 157–171. <https://doi.org/10.1080/02602930802687745>
- [20] Fazilatfar, A. M., Elhambakhsh, S. E., & Allami, H. (2018). An Investigation of the Effects of Citation Instruction to Avoid Plagiarism in EFL Academic Writing Assignments. *SAGE Open*, 8(2), 1–13. <https://doi.org/10.1177/2158244018769958>
- [21] Guraya, S. Y., & Guraya, S. S. (2017). The confounding factors leading to plagiarism in academic writing and some suggested remedies: A systematic review. *JPM. The Journal of the Pakistan Medical Association*, 67(5), 767–772. Retrieved May 23, 2022, from <https://europepmc.org/article/med/28507368>
- [22] Gureyev, V. N., & Mazov, N. A. (2022). Bibliometrics as a promising tool for solving publication ethics issues. *Heliyon*, 8(3), e09123. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.heliyon.2022.e09123>
- [23] Holt, E. A. (2012). Education improves plagiarism detection by biology undergraduates. *BioScience*, 62(6), 585–592. <https://doi.org/10.1525/bio.2012.62.6.9>
- [24] Larsson, K., & Hansson, H. (2013). Anti-plagiarism strategies: How to manage it with quality in large-scale thesis productions. *International Journal for Educational Integrity*, 9(2), 60–73. <https://doi.org/10.21913/ijei.v9i2.893>
- [25] Liu, G. Z., Lu, H. C., Lin, V., & Hsu, W. C. (2018). Cultivating undergraduates' plagiarism avoidance knowledge and skills with an online tutorial system. *Journal of Computer Assisted Learning*, 34(2), 150–161. <https://doi.org/10.1111/jcal.12223>
- [26] Liu, M., & Wu, Y. (2020). Chinese undergraduate EFL learners' perceptions of Plagiarism and use of citations in course papers. *Cogent Education*, 7(1), 1855769. <https://doi.org/10.1080/2331186X.2020.1855769>
- [27] Lock, J., Eaton, S. E., Kessy, E., & Eaton, S. (2017). Fostering Self-Regulation in Online Learning in K-12 Education. *Northwest Journal of Teacher Education*, 12(2). <https://doi.org/10.15760/nwjte.2017.12.2.2>
- [28] Lynch, J., Everett, B., Ramjan, L. M., Callins, R., Glew, P., & Salamonson, Y. (2017). Plagiarism in nursing education: an integrative review. *Journal of Clinical Nursing*, 26(19–20), 2845–2864. <https://doi.org/10.1111/jocn.13629>
- [29] Memon, A. R., & Mavrinac, M. (2020). Knowledge, Attitudes, and Practices of Plagiarism as Reported by Participants Completing the AuthorAID MOOC on Research Writing. *Science and Engineering Ethics*, 26, 1067–1088. <https://doi.org/10.1007/s11948-020-00198-1>
- [30] Mozgovoy, M., Kakkonen, T., & Cosma, G. (2010). Automatic student plagiarism detection: Future perspectives. *Journal of Educational Computing Research*, 43(4), 511–531. <https://doi.org/10.2190/EC.43.4.e>
- [31] Mulisa, F., & Ebessa, A. D. (2021). The carryover effects of college dishonesty on the professional workplace dishonest behaviors: A systematic review. *Cogent Education*, 8(1), 1935408. <https://doi.org/10.1080/2331186X.2021.1935408>
- [32] Odom, S., & Helfers, R. C. (2016). Improving Criminal Justice Students' Writing Outcomes Through Systematic Writing Instruction. *Journal of Criminal Justice Education*, 27(4), 549–566. <https://doi.org/10.1080/10511253.2016.1148749>
- [33] Owens, C., & White, F. A. (2013). A 5-year systematic strategy to reduce plagiarism among first-year psychology university students. *Australian Journal of Psychology*, 65(1), 14–21. <https://doi.org/10.1111/ajpy.12005>
- [34] Page, M. J., McKenzie, J. E., Bossuyt, P. M., Boutron, I., Hoffmann, T. C., Mulrow, C. D., Shamseer, L., Tetzlaff, J. M., Akl, E. A., Brennan, S. E., Chou, R., Glanville, J., Grimshaw, J. M., Hróbjartsson, A., Lalu, M. M., Li, T., Loder, E. W., Mayo-Wilson, E., McDonald, S., ... Moher, D. (2021). The PRISMA 2020 statement: An updated guideline for reporting systematic reviews. *The BMJ*, 372. <https://doi.org/10.1136/bmj.n71>
- [35] Panadero, E., & Alqassab, M. (2019). An empirical review of anonymity effects in peer assessment, peer feedback, peer review, peer evaluation and peer grading. *Assessment and Evaluation in Higher Education*, 44(8), 1253–1278. <https://doi.org/10.1080/02602938.2019.1600186>
- [36] Pecorari, D., & Petrić, B. (2014). Plagiarism in second-language writing. *Language Teaching*, 47(3), 269–302. <https://doi.org/10.1017/S0261444814000056>
- [37] Perkins, M., Gezgin, U. B., & Roe, J. (2020). Reducing plagiarism through academic misconduct education. *International Journal for Educational Integrity*, 16(1), 1–15. <https://doi.org/10.1007/s40979-020-00052-8>
- [38] Rathore, F. A., Fatima, N. E., Farooq, F., & Mansoor, S. N. (2018). Combating Scientific Misconduct: The Role of Focused Workshops in Changing Attitudes Towards Plagiarism. *Cureus*, 10(5). <https://doi.org/10.7759/cureus.2698>
- [39] Roe, J., & Perkins, M. (2022). What are Automated Paraphrasing Tools and how do we address them? A review of a growing threat to academic integrity. *International Journal for Educational Integrity*, 18(1), 1–10. <https://doi.org/10.1007/s40979-022-00109-w>
- [40] Stander, M. (2020). Strategies to help university students avoid plagiarism: a focus on translation as an intervention strategy. *Journal of Further and Higher Education*, 44(2), 156–169. <https://doi.org/10.1080/0309877X.2018.1526260>
- [41] Stephens, J. M., & Wangaard, D. B. (2016). The achieving with integrity seminar: An integrative approach to promoting moral development in secondary school classrooms. *International Journal for Educational Integrity*, 12(1). <https://doi.org/10.1007/s40979-016-0010-1>
- [42] Stoesz, B. M., & Yudinseva, A. (2018). Effectiveness of tutorials for promoting educational integrity : a synthesis paper.

- International Journal for Educational Integrity*, 1–22. <https://doi.org/10.1007/s40979-018-0030-0>
- [43] Teh, E. C., & Paull, M. (2013). Reducing the prevalence of plagiarism: A model for staff, students and universities. *Issues in Educational Research*, 23(2), 283–298. Retrieved May 23, 2022, from <https://www.iier.org.au/iier23/teh.pdf>
- [44] Vaccino-Salvadore, S., & Hall Buck, R. (2021). Moving from plagiarism police to integrity coaches: assisting novice students in understanding the relationship between research and ownership. *International Journal for Educational Integrity*, 17(1), 1–19. <https://doi.org/10.1007/s40979-021-00085-7>
- [45] Wangaard, D. B. (2016). Practices to Support Developing Academic Integrity in Secondary School Students. In *Handbook of Academic Integrity* (T. Bretag, pp. 429–448). Springer. <https://doi.org/10.1007/978-981-287-098-8>
- [46] Watson, M. (2017). Reworking the Policing of Plagiarism: Borrowings from Basic Writing, Authorship Studies, and the Citation Project. *Journal of Basic Writing*, 36(2), 78–108. Retrieved May 23, 2022, from <https://files.eric.ed.gov/fulltext/EJ1199690.pdf>
- [47] Wette, R. (2010). Evaluating student learning in a university-level EAP unit on writing using sources. *Journal of Second Language Writing*, 19(3), 158–177. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jslw.2010.06.002>
- [48] Wrigley, S. (2019). Avoiding ‘de-plagiarism’: Exploring the affordances of handwriting in the essay-writing process. *Active Learning in Higher Education*, 20(2), 167–179. <https://doi.org/10.1177/1469787417735611>
- [49] Yang, A., Stockwell, S., & McDonnell, L. (2019). Writing in your own voice: An intervention that reduces plagiarism and common writing problems in students’ scientific writing. *Biochemistry and Molecular Biology Education*, 47(5), 589–598. <https://doi.org/10.1002/bmb.21282>



Edhy Rustan an Indonesian language lecturer at the State Islamic Institute of Palopo (IAIN Palopo) was born on August 17th 1984 in Kampubbu. He completed his Master studies in 2008 at the State University of Makassar, Indonesia. His Doctoral Degree in Linguistics was completed in 2016. His research interest includes higher education, academic integrity, writing academic, creative writing, Language Learning and Teaching.

Dr. Rustan is currently working as a lecturer at the State Islamic Institute of Palopo (IAIN Palopo), Indonesia. He is also a deputy director of the graduate program at IAIN Palopo.

The Attitudes and Perceptions of Saudi EFL Learners Toward Using English Language Learning Mobile Apps for Learning English

Hamad Mohammed Alluhaydan

Department of English and Translation, College of Science and Arts at Alrass, Qassim University, Saudi Arabia

Abstract—This study investigated the views of Saudi EFL students toward using English Language Learning Mobile Apps (MELLA) to learn English. A quantitative approach consisting of questionnaires was used to collect data from eighty-nine participants who shared their attitudes and perceptions about MELLAs. Questionnaire items were rated on a Likert scale which ranged from “Strongly Disagree” (1, very low) to “Strongly Agree” (5, very high). Mean Likert scale scores were used to evaluate participants’ responses. The study found that Saudis’ perceptions of MELLA exceeded their attitudes. Moreover, gender differences were found in Saudis’ attitudes toward the use of MELLA. The highest-ranking female attitude mean scores were observed on items related to pronunciation, dictionary, and listening apps while the highest-ranking male attitude mean scores were related to dictionary, listening, and vocabulary apps. Furthermore, the Saudis’ mean score for MELLA perception was higher than the mean score for MELLA attitude. Results also show that females have a higher perception than males. Finally, minor gender differences regarding MELLA perception were also found; the highest female mean scores were based on easiness and flexibility in the use of apps while males highly perceived the convenience of using an app anywhere and at any time as being most important to them.

Index Terms—mobile, perception, attitude, Saudi males, Saudi females

I. INTRODUCTION

These days, traditional technological devices such as desktop computers have been replaced with new and innovative digital devices such as mobile phones. As a result, the most up-to-date educational systems, including schools and universities, employ the use of mobile devices in learning (Aldowah et al., 2019). Al-Zahrani (2015) argues that mobile learning positively affects both educators and learners. Due to their unlimited availability and benefits, mobile devices allow educational institutions to be more creative in their teaching processes (Alsswey et al., 2020; Alblowi, 2019; Aldowah et al., 2019; Almaiah & Alismaiel, 2018). Thus, technology is now an essential component of any modern educational system where it is used to provide learners with vast opportunities to access and acquire knowledge.

Language learners primarily tend to use mobile technology outside of the classroom or curriculum setting to enhance their language competencies in a foreign language. Nowadays, language learners utilize mobile apps such as YouTube, Facebook, Duolingo, and so on in their personal learning environments. Moreover, mobile technology has also become widely used in language learning (Hsu & Lin, 2021) as it provides learners with unlimited access to multiple language learning resources and the opportunity to engage and collaborate with native speakers at their convenience (Taj et al., 2016; Kukulska-Hulme & Viberg, 2018). Consequently, learners using mobile-assisted language learning (MALL) routinely improve their fluency in a spoken language.

The first two decades of the 21st century witnessed 3.2 billion active internet users and 2 billion mobile phone users (Taj et al., 2016). In a study on the use of cell phones for teaching English, Klimova (2018) found that more than 90% of the population in developed countries had at least one phone, and 92% of cell phone users were between 18 to 29 years old. Furthermore, the advantages of mobile phones in learning exceed that of any other portable device due to their accessibility, mobility, variety and number of apps used for learning, especially language learning apps.

Recently, an unlimited number of mobile apps have been created for language learning. Learners prefer language learning apps to traditional ways of learning and teaching language as language learning apps conveniently grant access to language learning materials (Cheng & Kim, 2019). The present study investigated Saudis’ perceptions and attitudes in using mobile language learning apps while considering their gender differences.

II. LITERATURE REVIEW

There is no consensus on the definition of mobile-assisted language learning (MALL) (Yükselir, 2017); however, MALL is “often regarded to be a subfield of m-learning, a process of language learning utilizing mobile devices” (Van, 2022, p. 153). Hence, MALL facilitates learning and information access via mobile devices. Although many scholars consider the terms MALL and computer-assisted language learning (CALL) interchangeable, MALL is portable with

multifunctional and personalizable services that can be accessed at any time and from anywhere when compared to PCs or other technological devices.

Recently, MALL apps have attracted the increasing attention of language learning researchers (Annamalai, 2019; Annamalai & Kumar, 2020; Moroz, 2013; Annamalai et al., 2022). Earlier studies posited smartphone apps as potential learning resources (Kim & Kwon, 2012; Vazquez-Cano, 2014; Gangaiamaran & Pasupathi, 2017). Kim and Kwon (2012) demonstrated the effectiveness of mobile English language learning apps (MELLA) in facilitating self-centered learning and flexible access to resources. Steel (2012) found that 56% of language learning students reported that their use of apps was supportive of their learning while 23% ranked their use of apps highest among language learning resources. Wu (2015) demonstrated that apps granted learners opportunities to learn English vocabulary.

Furthermore, MALL provides users with contextual opportunities, free time, and place-dependent language learning experiences (Metruk, 2021; Mortazavi et al., 2021). Gangaiamaran and Pasupathi (2017) documented the existence of numerous learning apps for EFL learners to learn and practice language skills including reading, listening, speaking, and writing) and established that smartphone apps helped learners acquire better listening skills than any other technological device. Still, Abdullah et al. (2019) illustrated that, despite mobile apps displaying the potential to improve language learning, their use requires guidance.

When it comes to the question of teachers, Aljaoud et al. (2019) found that using smartphone apps promotes both student-student and student-teacher interaction. Similarly, Annamalai and Kumar (2020) revealed that using smartphones to complete English coursework created opportunities for distance education students to interact, collaborate, listen, obtain feedback, and review their work. Moreover, Mindog (2016) found that Japanese university students believed that using mobile apps in EFL learning enhanced their listening, speaking, reading, and writing English language skills. Likewise, Ishaq (2018) showed that Indian university students were in favor of using the electronic dictionary on their phones to develop their vocabulary. Kanchana and Saha (2015) demonstrated a similar outcome among Indian students using mobile apps to learn language skills.

A learner's motivation is essential in L2 learning, and researchers have investigated the relationship between motivation and using MALL by language learners (Teodorescu, 2015; Balula et al., 2015). Kim and Lee (2016) demonstrated that Korean students found using MALL enjoyable, user-friendly, and reliable; thus, it positively impacts Korean students' acceptability of using MALL. Likewise, Klínová (2018) showed that smartphones had a positive impact on EFL learners' English terminology and language learning motivation.

Ekinci and Ekinci (2017) concluded that using apps helped Turkish university students acquire English vocabulary and develop their reading and writing skills. In addition, students found using mobile apps enjoyable and they were highly motivated to use them to learn vocabulary. Kaceti and Klínová (2019) showed that using mobile apps developed foreign language learners' cognitive capacities and enhanced their motivation for learning, confidence, and autonomy in self-learning.

Mobile technology has influenced every aspect of modern Saudi lives, particularly in Saudi higher educational institutions where mobile technology has strengthened the use of mobile apps in learning (Alharbi et al., 2017). Alsswey et al. (2020) highlighted the usefulness of mobile learning in Arab universities and educational systems. Muhammed (2014) established that Iraq Sulaimani EFL students regarded the use of different smartphone apps related to language learning as useful resources for language learning. Moreover, junior Lebanese applied science learners found using mobile learning acceptable and very effective (Kadry & Ghazal, 2019). Salameh et al. (2020) presented evidence that Palestinian students at the Arab American University were familiar with the use of mobile learning applications.

Seliaman and Al-Turk (2012) found that Saudi college students used mobile technology to access lectures and learning materials on foreign language learning. Teachers in Saudi Arabia are encouraged to adequately utilize devices such as smartphones to teach EFL students (Alamer, 2016). In addition, Al-Fahad (2009) documented an official endeavor to promote mobile learning through distance learning. However, Taif University faculty members had limited technological knowledge in the use of virtual learning (Rhamatullah et al., 2020) despite the wide use of mobile apps such as video streaming in Saudi learning institutions. Abugohar et al. (2019) documented Saudi teachers' positive perceptions of using smartphone apps in speaking classes.

Conversely, Heil et al. (2016) found three main trends in 50 commercial language learning apps. Vocabulary was taught isolated from text, apps rarely adapted to learners' skill sets, and learners rarely received corrective feedback. Still, several studies indicate positive perceptions towards using smartphones in language learning (Alamer, 2016; Kadry & Ghazal, 2019; Abugohar et al., 2019; Rhamatullah et al., 2020).

Gender differences have been observed in accepting technology in the language learning process (Kim & Yoo, 2017). A study conducted by Huang et al. (2013) found that male participants displayed higher competencies and less anxiety in using technology than female participants. Baker et al. (2012) revealed that male learners' acceptance rates of using cell phones in classrooms exceeded those of female learners. Another study by Liu and Guo (2017) that examined gender differences in the acceptance of using mobile devices in learning found that male Asian college students displayed more positive perceptions of the use of mobile devices as they found it to be a useful and beneficial tool for society. Females, however, preferred to use mobile devices for social interaction as social utilities.

On the other hand, some research studies did not reflect major gender differences in perceiving or using mobile learning apps (Serin, 2012; Yaman et al., 2015; Uzunboylu & Ozdamli, 2011; Fouh et al., 2014; MacCallum, Jeffrey, & Kinshuk, 2014; Nami, 2020). Serin et al. (2012) studied Turkish EFL pre-service teachers' perspectives on using smartphones in language learning classes and found no significant gender differences in the opinions of EFL teachers. A Turkish study conducted by Yaman et al. (2015) on 120 English language students' use of smartphones for language learning revealed that both males and females use smartphones for language learning to a similar degree.

Uzunboylu and Ozdamli (2011) found no gender differences in teachers' points of view towards utilizing mobiles in language learning classes. Nami (2020) also found that gender had no impact on 380 Mirkabir University of Technology college students enrolled in general English classes and their perceptions toward the use of smartphones for language learning. Studies conducted by both Fouh et al. (2014) and MacCallum, Jeffrey, and Kinshuk (2014) did not find gender differences concerning general perceptions toward utilizing smartphones in general education programs.

Research studies that have examined gender differences in the perceptions or use of smartphones in education or English language learning yielded conflicting information. Hence, further investigation is highly recommended to illustrate the impact of gender differences on using MELLA, especially in the Saudi education context which has a gender-segregated education system. The primary aim of this study was to explore Saudi perceptions and attitudes toward using English language learning apps on their smartphones while considering their gender differences.

III. METHODOLOGY

A questionnaire was used to assess Saudis' attitudes toward using mobile apps in learning the English language in alignment with the study purpose. The questionnaire items were set to answer the following research questions:

1. What is the common English language learning skill that Saudis frequently use to develop through their smartphone apps?
2. What are Saudi EFL learners' attitudes toward using smartphone English learning apps to learn or practice English?
3. What are the Saudi EFL learners' perceptions regarding smartphone English language learning apps?
4. Do Saudis' perceptions or attitudes toward using smartphone English learning apps vary by gender?

A. Research Instrument

The study questionnaire items were adopted from Swamy (2007) and Metruk (2021). Swamy (2007) developed a questionnaire to assess users' attitudes and perceptions towards using smartphones in language learning while Metruk (2021) further developed this questionnaire to include items that concentrated on language development. The present study made some minor modifications to the questionnaire to suit the Saudi environment; for instance, the list of smartphones was revised so that it listed only those that were available in Saudi Arabia.

There were a total of 32 study questionnaire items; the first three items asked about background information (age, gender, education), followed by two items eliciting the type of smartphone used by the participant, and the number of English learning apps installed on his or her smartphone. Subsequently, ten attitude items examined participants' attitudes toward using smartphone apps in learning English while another 17 items assessed participants' perceptions toward using these apps. Participants were asked to rank their use of their smartphone apps in learning English on a five-point Likert scale ranging from Strongly Agree (score 5) to Strongly Disagree (score 1). The reliability of the study instrument was measured using Cronbach's Alpha formula. The instrument's internal consistency was 0.95 which implied that the study questionnaire was reliable.

B. Data Collection

Social media is one of the most recent and commonly used approaches to collect study data due to its accessibility and convenience. Hence, a link to a survey prepared on Survey Monkey was sent to study participants through WhatsApp, Facebook, and Twitter over three to four weeks.

C. Data Analysis

Mean scores were used to evaluate participants' attitudes and perceptions about their use of MELLA. A mean score of 1.00 to 1.80 represented "Strongly Disagree" (Very Low) while 1.81 to 2.60 referred to "Disagree" (Low). Furthermore, 2.61 to 3.40 represented "Undecided or Neutral Level of Agreement" (Moderate), 3.41 to 4.19 referred to "Agree" (High), and 4.20 to 5.00 points referred to "Strongly Agree" (Very High).

IV. STUDY RESULTS

A. Gender Distribution of EFL Learners

A total of 89 Saudi EFL students enrolled in BA and MA degree courses in Saudi universities reported their use of smartphones for language learning. There were fifty male and thirty-nine female participants as shown in Table 1. Most participants were aged 18 to 24 years old (college students) and 25 to 30 years old (graduate students).

TABLE 1
GENDER DISTRIBUTION OF SAUDI EFL COLLEGE STUDENTS WHO REPORTED THEIR PERSPECTIVES
ON USING SMART PHONE APPS IN LEARNING THE ENGLISH LANGUAGE

Study Participants		
Gender	Percentage	Number
Males	56.18%	50
Female	43.82%	39
Total	100.00%	89

B. Education Level of Saudi EFL Learners

Study participants were EFL students who had to use English for academic purposes; that is, either for science classes such as biology, chemistry, computer science, and so on, as well as English majors. A large portion of the study participants were college sophomores, juniors and graduate students from different Saudi colleges (See Figure 1).

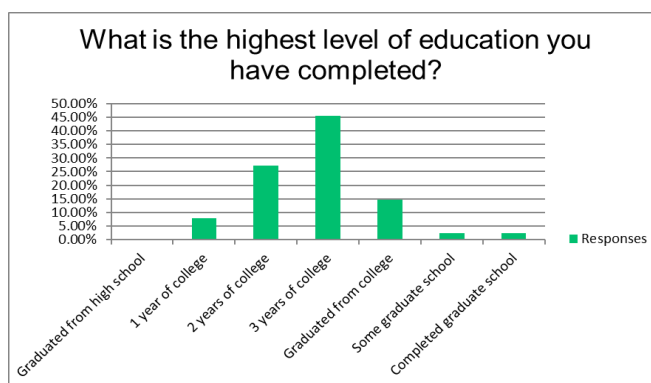


Figure 1. Education Level of Saudi EFL College Students Who Reported Their Perspectives on Using Smart Phone Apps in Learning the English Language

C. Types of Smart Phone Devices Used by Saudi EFL Learners

The most common smartphone devices used by Saudi college students were Apple (88.76%) and Galaxy (7.87%). Less than 4% of participants used other smartphone devices such as Huawei or LG.

D. Number of English Language Learning Apps Installed on Smartphones by Saudi EFL Learners

The study results indicated that 38.20% of Saudi EFL students had installed at least one English learning app on their smartphones, while 25.84% had two apps, 23.60% had three apps and 7.87% had five apps installed on their smartphones. Most students had more than one MELLA on their phones reflecting the popularity of using apps in language learning. Fewer participants had four or more apps installed on their phones (See Figure 2).

How many English learning apps on your smartphone?

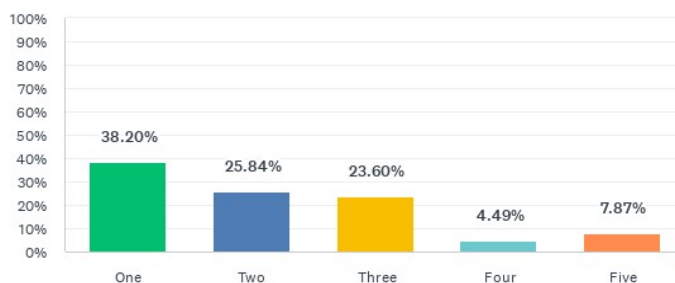
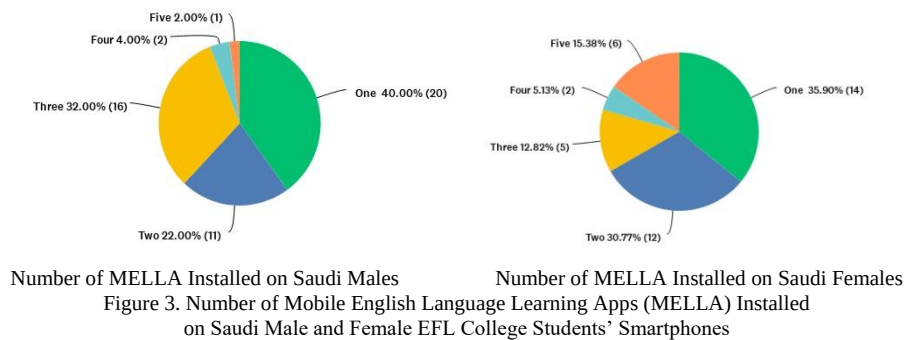


Figure 2. Number of English Learning Apps on Saudi EFL College Students Smartphones



A. Number of English Language Learning Apps Installed on Smartphones by Saudi EFL Learners by Gender

Most male and female students had one MELLA installed on their phones. More males than females had three MELLAs installed on their smartphones (32.5%) while fewer males than females had two MELLAs installed on their smartphones (22.00%). In contrast, more females than males had two MELLAs installed on their phones (30.77%) while fewer females than males had more than three MELLAs installed on their phones (12.62%). Very few students of either gender had four MELLAs on their phones. More female students (15.38%) had five MELLA installed on their phones when compared to males (4.00%). The majority of both male and female students with MELLA on their smartphones reflect a wide interest in using technology in learning English (See Figure 3).

The most commonly practiced skills by Saudis on their mobile phones were using MELLAs for dictionary apps, pronunciation, and listening. More Saudi females than males use language learning apps at home to practice reading, pronunciation, and writing. On the other hand, more males than females use apps to practice vocabulary, speaking, and grammar. Nevertheless, both males and females used the dictionary apps on their mobile phones equally.

B. Saudi Females' Attitudes Towards the Use of MELLA

Most Saudi females used MELLA to practice pronunciation (4.08= 1.00) and access an English dictionary (3.97 = 0.89) with scores related to accessing the English dictionary having the lowest SD. This indicates that the data points were close to the mean.

Females used MELLA equally at home and to practice listening (mean attitude score of 3.74). However, the use of smartphones to practice listening had the highest standard deviation (SD= 1.35) meaning participants' attitudes regarding this item were spread out. In addition, Saudi females displayed a high attitude score (3.67) in their use of MELLA in their commute or travel implying the wide acceptability of smartphone apps in practicing English.

Saudi females frequently used vocabulary-learning smartphone apps (3.51) and apps to practice reading (3.49). Likewise, females displayed similar practicing reading and speaking high mean attitude scores (3.44). However, they expressed neutral attitude scores in their use of MELLA at school (3.26) and in practicing grammar (3.15) (See Table 2).

C. Saudi Males' Attitudes Toward the Use of MELLA

Saudi males frequently used MELLA to access a dictionary (4.06) and to develop their listening skills (3.90), pronunciation (3.84) and vocabulary (3.78). The use of MELLA to develop English vocabulary had the lowest standard deviation (SD=0.70) implying participants' scores were more concentrated closer to the mean. Saudi males also displayed very high or high mean scores for the use of MELLA to practice English at home (3.68), practice reading (3.54) and practice speaking (3.50).

Saudi males had neutral attitudes toward the use of MELLA for grammar practice (3.36). Commuting or traveling came next with a 3.26 mean score, and the lowest mean scores were for practicing writing (3.02) and practicing English at school (2.96). The study data indicated that practicing writing had the highest standard deviation point (SD= 1.27) meaning that the participants' answers were less concentrated around the mean (See Table 2).

D. Comparing Saudis' Attitudes Toward the Use of MELLA by Gender

According to Table 2, whether by male or female, all Saudi responses generally had either moderate or high mean scores on their attitudes towards MELLA with no very high, low, or very low mean scores recorded. Females had a high mean score on "Using MELLA while traveling or commuting" while males had a moderate score. There were no other gender differences in participants' attitudes toward the use of MELLA.

TABLE 2
SAUDI EFL COLLEGE STUDENTS' ATTITUDES TOWARDS MELLA

Item No.	Statement	Females Mean (SD)	Males Mean (SD)
1	I use English language learning apps installed on my smartphone to practice vocabulary.	3.51 (1.22)	3.78 (0.70)
2	I use English language learning apps on my smartphone to practice English when I am at home.	3.74 (1.10)	3.68 (0.79)
3	I use English dictionary apps on my smartphone on a regular basis.	3.97 (0.89)	4.06 (0.86)
4	I use English language learning apps installed on my smartphone for practicing Grammar.	3.18 (1.26)	3.36 (1.13)
5	I use English language learning apps installed on my smartphone for practicing reading.	3.49 (1.20)	3.54 (1.19)
6	I use English language learning apps on my smartphone to practice English while commuting/travelling to school or work.	3.67 (1.07)	3.26 (1.16)
7	I use English language learning apps installed on my smartphone for practicing pronunciation.	4.08 (1.00)	3.84 (1.05)
8	I use English language learning apps installed on my smartphone to practice my writing skills.	3.15 (1.23)	3.02 (1.27)
9	I use English language learning apps installed on my smartphone for practicing Listening.	3.74 (1.35)	3.90 (1.0 6)
10	I use English language learning apps installed on my smartphone for practicing speaking.	3.44 (1.30)	3.50 (1.19)
11	I use English language learning apps installed on my smartphone for practicing English when I'm at school.	3.26 (1.23)	2.96 (1.18)

E. Saudi Females' Perceptions Toward MELLA

Overall, Saudi females' perceptions toward MELLA were very high or high with an average recorded score of 4.05, a high mean score of 4.31, and a low mean score of 3.67 reflecting an increased awareness about the use of MELLA in English learning by Saudi females (Table 3).

The highest recorded mean score regarding females' perception of MELLA concerned practicing English by using English learning apps because they are easy and flexible (4.31). Interestingly, three survey items - effectiveness, enjoyment, and convenience of practicing English by using apps - had the same mean score (4.18). However, Saudi females ranked "English learning apps on my smartphone help me develop and enhance my writing skills" lowest (3.67).

The highest recorded standard deviation regarding females' perception of MELLA was found in participants' preference to use English language learning apps to practice English over traditional English language learning methods (3.82 =1.22) implying that participants' answers were less concentrated around the mean even while having such a high mean score. Likewise, the second highest standard deviation with similar high mean scores was recorded on the importance of using English language learning apps in a participant's English language learning process (4.08 =1.19).

TABLE 3
SAUDI EFL COLLEGE STUDENTS' PERCEPTIONS TOWARD MELLA

Item No.	Statement	Females Mean (SD)	Males Mean (SD)
12	English language learning apps on my smartphone help me develop and enhance my lexical system (vocabulary).	4.10 (0.80)	4.16 (0.73)
13	English language learning apps on my smartphone allow me to practice my English anywhere and anytime.	4.28 (0.78)	4.44 (0.67)
14	Practicing English by using English language learning apps is easy and flexible.	4.31 (0.79)	4.34 (0.62)
15	Practicing English by using English language learning apps is convenient.	4.18 (0.93)	4.04 (0.72)
16	Practicing English by using English language learning apps is effective.	4.18 (0.98)	4.06 (0.88)
17	Practicing English by using English language learning apps is enjoyable.	4.18 (0.90)	4.04 (0.88)
18	Practicing English by using English language learning apps motivates me to study English.	3.90 (1.01)	3.80 (0.96)
19	Practicing English by using English language learning apps makes me autonomous.	3.72 (0.88)	3.31 (0.86)
20	Practicing English by using English language learning apps makes me more creative.	3.87 (1.11)	3.59 (0.95)
21	Practicing English by using English language learning apps makes me more confident.	4.08 (1.02)	3.78 (1.04)
22	Practicing English by using English language learning apps is an important part of my language learning process.	4.08 (1.19)	3.74 (0.80)
23	English learning apps on my smartphone help me develop and enhance my grammatical system and reading skills.	3.85 (1.10)	3.90 (0.57)
24	English learning apps help me find solutions on my own.	4.05 (1.01)	4.02 (0.81)
25	English learning apps on my smartphone help me develop and enhance my phonological system and speaking skills.	3.95 (0.93)	3.62 (0.85)
26	English learning apps on my smartphone help me develop and enhance my writing skills.	3.67 (1.14)	3.40 (0.98)
27	English learning apps on my smartphone help me develop and enhance my listening skills.	4.08 (1.02)	4.06 (0.88)
28	I prefer using English language learning apps to traditional English language learning methods to practice English.	3.82 (1.22)	3.42 (1.10)

F. Saudi Males' Perceptions About MELLA

The mean scores of Saudi males' perceptions ranged from 3.31 (moderate level) to 4.44 (high level), reflecting a higher variation in their responses when compared to females. The highest mean scores were observed with "Using MELLA in my smartphone allows me to practice my English anywhere and anytime" (4.44) followed by "Practicing English by using English language learning apps is easy and flexible" (4.34).

Males preferred using English language learning apps to practice English over traditional English language learning methods (3.42=1.10) which also had the highest standard deviation point indicating that participants' answers were less concentrated around the mean. The second highest standard deviation was observed with the survey item "Practicing English by using English language learning apps makes me more confident" (SD= 1.04). There were no low or very low mean scores for males' perceptions toward MELLA.

However, there were some moderate mean scores regarding males' perceptions about the use of MELLA. The lowest moderate mean score was observed with "Practicing English by using English language learning apps makes me autonomous" (3.31), "English learning apps in my smartphone help me develop and enhance my writing skills" (3.40), and "Preferring to use English language learning apps for practicing English in comparison to traditional English language learning method" (3.42).

G. Comparing Saudis' Perceptions About MELLA by Gender

Both gender responses displayed higher mean scores concerning MELLA perception when compared to MELLA attitudes, especially for females. Males recorded only one moderate score on the perception item regarding participants' autonomy in their use of MELLA. Moreover, researchers encountered very high mean scores concerning the perceptions toward both males and females' MELLA on the study item that discusses "Apps on my smartphone allow me to practice my English anywhere and anytime" as opposed to that observed with MELLA attitudes.

V. DISCUSSION

The iPhone was the most commonly used device by Saudi EFL college students with half of them having more than one MELLA app installed on their mobile phones proving the practicality and usefulness of MELLA apps for Saudi EFL learners as established by previous studies (Steel, 2012; Seliaman & Al-Turk, 2012). Therefore, the present study's findings concur with those of Gangaiamaran and Pasupathi (2017) and Abdullah, Tajuddin, and Soon (2019) which indicated that MALL or ELLA effectively contributed to developing EFL language skills.

Some studies found that MELLA was effective in developing vocabulary and learning or listening skills (Steel, 2012; Seliaman & Al-Turk, 2012; Wu, 2015; Gangaiamaran & Pasupathi, 2017; Abdullah, Tajuddin, & Soon, 2019); however, this study not only concurred with previous findings but also went further to illustrate MELLA's effectiveness in developing all language skills, specifically listening, speaking, dictionaries and vocabulary learning.

Mindog (2016) explained that Japanese students liked using MALL to learn the English language; similarly, Ishaq (2018) found that Indian college students favored the use of MALL. Likewise, the present study found that Saudis of either gender had a positive attitude towards the use of MALL in learning English and were also motivated to use MALL or MELLA in the learning process. Therefore, Saudis are equally motivated to use MALL as their Korean and Turkish peers (Kim & Lee, 2016; Ekinci & Ekinci, 2017).

Nevertheless, some studies indicate that MELLA is not always useful for EFL learners because students learn neither text in context nor obtain feedback. They are also limited by the unavailability of technological devices in the Third World (Heil et al., 2016; Rhamatullah et al., 2020). Moreover, several studies have established that MELLA is useful to Arab and Saudi learners (Seliaman & Al-Turk, 2012; Muhammed, 2014; Kadry & Ghazal, 2019; Alsswey et al., 2020; Salameh et al., 2020). The present study agrees with the results of previous studies that portray MELLA as useful for Saudi EFL learners and Saudi EFL learners' positive attitudes and confidence in using the MELLA in learning English.

Lastly, gender differences were found among Saudi participants in their frequent use of MELLA for language learning. Saudi females' use of MELLA for practicing reading, pronunciation, and writing outweighed that of males, while males' use of apps for practicing vocabulary, speaking, and grammar outweighed that of females. However, both males and females used dictionary apps equally on their mobile phones. Some MELLA studies illustrate gender differences in perceptions about MALL or MELLA; (Baker et al., 2012; Huang et al., 2013; Kim & Yoo, 2017; Liu & Guo, 2017); however, other studies disprove these findings (Serin, 2012; Yaman et al., 2015; Uzunboyly & Ozdamli, 2011; Fouh et al., 2014; MacCallum, Jeffrey, & Kinshuk, 2014; Nami, 2020). The present study demonstrated similarities between Saudi males' and females' attitudes toward the use of MELLA with perceptions about MELLA exceeding attitudes toward MELLA especially among Saudi females.

VI. CONCLUSION

The present study investigated the most common MELLA apps used by Saudis and their attitudes and perceptions towards using MELLA in language learning by gender.

Most Saudis had more than one MELLA app on their mobile phones and females were more likely to have more than three apps on their devices. The most commonly used apps by both genders (males/females) were dictionary apps, pronunciation apps, and listening apps.

Saudi females preferred using pronunciation apps, dictionary apps, and listening apps during commuting/ traveling while males preferred using dictionary apps, and MELLA apps for listening, pronunciation, and developing their vocabulary. On the other hand, females disliked using MELLA to practice grammar while males disliked using apps to practice writing. Consequently, both males and females had positive attitudes toward the use of MELLA especially with dictionary apps, pronunciation apps, and listening apps.

Saudis had high perceptions about using MELLA as evidenced by the number of apps downloaded on their mobile phones with higher perceptions observed among females than males. Females highly perceived using apps as flexible, easy, effective, convenient, and enjoyable and least perceived the use of apps to enhance writing skills. On the other hand, males highly perceived the convenient use of apps anywhere and at any time, and the ease and flexibility of using apps, and least perceived the use of apps to make them autonomous.

Saudi EFL students commonly use language learning mobile apps with gender variations in the number of MELLA downloaded on their mobiles, their attitude toward using MELLA, and their perceptions about using MELLA; moreover, these apps have significantly contributed to enhancing their skills. The study concludes that Saudi's perceptions of MELLA are higher than their MELLA attitudes.

ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

Researchers would like to thank the Deanship of Scientific Research, Qassim University for funding publication of this project.

REFERENCES

- [1] Abugohar, M. A., Yunus, K., & Ab Rashid, R. (2019). Smartphone applications as a teaching technique for enhancing tertiary learners' speaking skills: perceptions and practices. *International Journal of Emerging Technologies in Learning (Online)*, 14(9), 74-92.
- [2] Al-Zahrani, A. M. (2015). From passive to active: The impact of the flipped classroom through social learning platforms on higher education students' creative thinking. *British Journal of Educational Technology*, 46(6), 1133-1148. <https://doi.org/https://doi.org/10.1111/bjet.12353>
- [3] Alamer, A. (2016). The Role of EFL Learners' Motivation in Mobile Language Learning. *Asia Pacific Journal of Contemporary Education and Communication Technology*, 2, 121-133.
- [4] Alblowi MS. (2019). The impact of attitudes towards M-Learning on M-Learning Adoption: The case of the Public Universities in Saudi Arabia. *Journal of Educational Research*, 4(4), 41-57.
- [5] Aldowah, H., Al-Samarraie, H., & Fauzy, W. M. (2019). Educational data mining and learning analytics for 21st century higher education: A review and synthesis. *Telematics and Informatics*, 37, 13-49. <https://doi.org/https://doi.org/10.1016/j.tele.2019.01.007>
- [6] Aldowah, H., Al-Samarraie, H., & Ghazal, S. (2019). How Course, Contextual, and Technological Challenges Are Associated With Instructors' Individual Challenges to Successfully Implement E-Learning: A Developing Country Perspective. *IEEE Access*, 7, 48792-48806. <https://doi.org/10.1109/ACCESS.2019.2910148>
- [7] Alharbi, O., Alotebi, H., Masmali, A., & Alreshidi, N. (2017). Instructor Acceptance of Mobile Learning in Saudi Arabia: A Case Study of Hail University. *International Journal of Business and Management*, 12, 27-35. <https://doi.org/10.5539/ijbm.v12n5p27>
- [8] Aljaloud, A. S., Gromik, N., Kwan, P., & Billingsley, W. (2019). Saudi undergraduate students' perceptions of the use of smartphone clicker apps on learning performance. *Australasian Journal of Educational Technology*, 35(1), 85-99. <https://doi.org/10.14742/ajet.3340>
- [9] Almaiah, M. A., & Alismaiel, O. A. (2019). Examination of factors influencing the use of mobile learning system: An empirical study. *Education and Information Technologies*, 24, 885-909.
- [10] Alsswey, A., Al-Samarraie, H., El-Qirem, F., & Zaout, F. (2020). M-learning technology in Arab Gulf countries: A systematic review of progress and recommendations. *Education and Information Technologies*, 25, 2919-2931. <https://doi.org/10.1007/s10639-019-10097-z>
- [11] Annamalai, N. (2019). Using WhatsApp to Extend Learning in a Blended Classroom Environment. *Teaching English with technology*, 19, 3-20.
- [12] Annamalai, N., Kabilan, M. K., & Soundrarajan, D. (2022). Smartphone apps as a motivating tool in English language learning. *Indonesian Journal of Applied Linguistics*, 12(1), 201-211.
- [13] Annamalai, N., & Kumar, J. A. (2020). Understanding Smartphone use Behavior among Distance Education Students in Completing their Coursework in English: A Mixed-Method Approach. *The Reference Librarian*, 61(3-4), 199-215. <https://doi.org/10.1080/02763877.2020.1815630>
- [14] Baker, W. M., Lusk, E. J., & Neuhauser, K. L. (2012). On the use of cell phones and other electronic devices in the classroom: Evidence from a survey of faculty and students. *Journal of Education for Business*, 87(5), 275-289.
- [15] Balula, A., Marques, F., & Martins, C. (2015). Bet on top hat—challenges to improve language proficiency. In *Edulearn15 Proceedings*, pp. 2627-2633. IATED.
- [16] Cheng, J., & Kim, H.-J. (2019). Attitudes towards English Language Learning Apps from Korean and Chinese EFL Student. *English Teaching*, 74(4), 205-224.

- [17] Chua, N. A., & Ahmad Tajuddin, A. J. (2019). Mandarin Students' Perceptions of Smartphone Applications in Mandarin Learning. *Universal Journal of Educational Research*, 7, 61-70. <https://doi.org/10.13189/ujer.2019.071608>
- [18] Ekinici, E., & Ekinici, M. (2017). Perceptions of EFL learners about using mobile applications for English language learning: A case study. *International Journal of Language Academy*, 5(5), 175-193.
- [19] Fahad, N. (2009). Students' attitudes and perceptions towards the effectiveness of mobile learning in King Saud University, Saudi Arabia. *Turkish Online Journal of Educational Technology*, 8, 111-119.
- [20] Fouh, E., Breakiron, D. A., Hamouda, S., Farghally, M. F., & Shaffer, C. A. (2014). Exploring students learning behavior with an interactive etextbook in computer science courses. *Computers in Human Behavior*, 41, 478-485.
- [21] Gangaiamaran, R., & Pasupathi, M. (2017). Review on use of mobile apps for language learning. *International Journal of Applied Engineering Research*, 12(21), 11242-11251.
- [22] Hassan Taj, I., Sulan, N., Sipra, M., & Ahmad, W. (2016). Impact of mobile assisted language learning (MALL) on EFL: A meta-analysis. *Advances in language and literary studies*, 7(2), 76-83.
- [23] Heil, C. R., Wu, J. S., Lee, J. J., & Schmidt, T. (2016). A review of mobile language learning applications: Trends, challenges, and opportunities. *The EuroCALL Review*, 24(2), 32-50.
- [24] Hsu, H. T., & Lin, C. C. (2022). Extending the technology acceptance model of college learners' mobile-assisted language learning by incorporating psychological constructs. *British Journal of Educational Technology*, 53(2), 286-306.
- [25] Huang, W.-H. D., Hood, D. W., & Yoo, S. J. (2013). Gender divide and acceptance of collaborative Web 2.0 applications for learning in higher education. *The Internet and Higher Education*, 16, 57-65.
- [26] Iffat Rahmatullah, S., Sultana, S., & Sultan, G. (2020). E-Teaching in higher education: An innovative pedagogy to generate digitally competent students at King Khalid University. *Arab World English Journal (AWEJ)*, 6, 248-260. DOI: <https://dx.doi.org/10.24093/awej/call6.16>
- [27] Ishaq, M. (2018). The Role of Electronic Dictionary in English Language Learning in ESL Context (Unpublished M. Phil Thesis). *Department of English, the Islamia University of Bahawalpur*.
- [28] Kanchana, S., & Saha, P. (2015). Integrating Smartphones in Teaching Listening, Speaking, Reading and Writing Skills. *International Journal of English Language, Literature and Translation Studies (IJELR)*, 2(1), 8-11.
- [29] Kadry, S., & Ghazal, B. (2019). Design and assessment of using smartphone application in the classroom to improve students' learning. *International Journal of Engineering Pedagogy (IJEP)*, 9(2), 17-34. <https://doi.org/10.3991/ijep.v9i2.9764>
- [30] Kim, G.-m., & Lee, S.-j. (2016). Korean Students' Intentions to Use Mobile-Assisted Language Learning: Applying the Technology Acceptance Model. *International Journal of Contents*, 12(3), 47-53.
- [31] Kim, H. (2012). Exploring Smartphone Applications for Effective Mobile-Assisted Language Learning. *Multimedia-Assisted Language Learning*, 15(1), 31-57.
- [32] Kim, S., Pyon, T., & Yoo, S. J. (2017). Does Gender Still Matter? The Usage and Acceptance of Smartphones for Learning in Higher Education. *Journal of Learner-Centered Curriculum and Instruction*, 17(20), 665-687.
- [33] Klimova, B. (2018). Mobile phones and/or smartphones and their apps for teaching English as a foreign language. *Education and Information Technologies*, 23, 1091-1099.
- [34] Kukulska-Hulme, A., & Viberg, O. (2018). Mobile collaborative language learning: State of the art. In *British Journal of Educational Technology* (Vol. 49, Issue 2). <https://doi.org/10.1111/bjet.12580>
- [35] Liu, D., & Guo, X. (2017). Exploring gender differences in acceptance of mobile computing devices among college students. *Information Systems and e-business Management*, 15, 197-223.
- [36] MacCallum, K., & Jeffrey, L. (2014). Comparing the role of ICT literacy and anxiety in the adoption of mobile learning. *Computers in Human Behavior*, 39, 8-19.
- [37] Metruk, R. (2021). The use of smartphone English language learning apps in the process of learning English: Slovak EFL students' perspectives. *Sustainability*, 13(15), 8205. <https://doi.org/10.3390/su13158205>
- [38] Mindog, E. (2016). Apps and EFL: A case study on the use of smartphone apps to learn English by four Japanese university students. *Jalt Call Journal*, 12(1), 3-22.
- [39] Moroz, A. (2013). *App assisted language learning: How students perceive Japanese smartphone apps* (Master's thesis). Retrieved from https://era.library.ualberta.ca/items/8da6af3f-a184-4a45-bff6-a15b12471c3c/view/60040c1e-00ed-4e8f-b1da-9d05e883716f/Moroz_Ashley_Spring2013.pdf
- [40] Mortazavi, M., Nasution, M. K., Abdolazadeh, F., Behroozi, M., & Davarpanah, A. (2021). Sustainable learning environment by mobile-assisted language learning methods on the improvement of productive and receptive foreign language skills: A comparative study for Asian universities. *Sustainability*, 13(11), 6328. <https://doi.org/10.3390/su13116328>
- [41] Muhammed, A. A. (2014). The impact of mobiles on language learning on the part of English foreign language (EFL) university students. *Procedia-Social and Behavioral Sciences*, 136, 104-108.
- [42] Nami, F. (2020). Educational smartphone apps for language learning in higher education: Students' choices and perceptions. *Australasian Journal of Educational Technology*, 36(4), 82-95.
- [43] Salameh, B., Ewais, A., & Salameh, O. (2020). Integrating M-learning in teaching ECG reading and arrhythmia management for undergraduate nursing students. *International Journal of Interactive Mobile Technologies (iJIM)*, 14(1), 83-95.
- [44] Seliaman, M. E., & Al-Turki, M. (2012). Mobile learning adoption in Saudi Arabia. *World Academy of Science, Engineering and Technology*, 69(9), 391-293.
- [45] Serin, O. (2012). Mobile learning perceptions of the prospective teachers (Turkish Republic of Northern Cyprus sampling). *Turkish Online Journal of Educational Technology-TOJET*, 11(3), 222-233.
- [46] Steel, C. (2012). Fitting learning into life: Language students' perspectives on the benefits of using mobile apps. In M. Brown, M. Hartnett & T. Stewart (Eds.), *Future challenges, sustainable future, Proceedings of ascilite conference Wellington 2012*. (pp. 875-880).
- [47] Swamy, S. (2007). How should you frame questions to measure user attitudes accurately? An experimental design study. Usability and Internationalization. Global and Local User Interfaces: Second International Conference on Usability and

Internationalization, UI-HCII 2007, Held as Part of HCI International 2007, Beijing, China, July 22-27, 2007, *Proceedings*, Part II 2.

- [48] Teodorescu, A. (2015). Mobile learning and its impact on business English learning. *Procedia-Social and Behavioral Sciences*, 180, 1535-1540.
- [49] Uzunboyulu, H., & Ozdamli, F. (2011). Teacher perception for m-learning: scale development and teachers' perceptions. *Journal of Computer assisted learning*, 27(6), 544-556.
- [50] Van, L. T. (2022). Exploring Vietnamese university students' perception of using Mobile Assisted Language Learning (MALL) to study English. *Ho Chi Minh City Open University Journal of Science-Social Sciences*, 12(2), 152-163.
- [51] Vazquez-Cano, E. (2014). Mobile distance learning with smartphones and apps in higher education. *Educational Sciences: Theory and Practice*, 14(4), 1505-1520.
- [52] Wu, Q. (2015). Pulling mobile assisted language learning (MALL) into the mainstream: MALL in broad practice. *PLoS One*, 10(5), e0128762. <https://doi.org/10.1371/journal.pone.0128762>
- [53] Yaman, _ I., S enel, M., & Yes illel, D. B. A. Programme of English Language Teaching, Faculty of Education, Ondokuz Mayıs University, Samsun, Turkey. (2015). Exploring the extent to which ELT students utilise smartphones for language learning purposes. *South African Journal of Education*, 35(4), 1–9. doi:10.15700/saje.v35n4a1198
- [54] Yükselir, C. (2017). A meta-synthesis of qualitative research about mobile assisted language learning (MALL) in foreign language teaching. *Arab World English Journal (AWEJ) Volume*, 8(3), 302-318.



Hamad Mohammed Alluhaydan was born and raised in the Gassim region of the Kingdom of Saudi Arabia. He finished his bachelor's degree at the Department of English and Translation at Qassim University. Later, Dr. Hamad earned an MA in English Language Learning from the University of Arizona-Tucson, USA, in 2015 and a PhD in Applied Linguistics in 2020 from The University of Memphis Tennessee, USA. Most of his work experience is in the field of language education and acquisition starting with teaching high school students in Saudi schools and then moving on to college and graduate students. He also had the opportunity to practice teaching in American schools and colleges. His primary research scope includes discourse analysis, language metacognition, and psycholinguistics. Dr. Alluhaydan is a former member of both the South East TESOL in USA and Tennessee TESOL.

Transformative Impact of Teacher Activity Groups on Vietnamese K-12 Teachers' Professional Growth: A Study of Satisfaction

Phuong Hoang Yen

School of Foreign Languages, Can Tho University, Can Tho, Vietnam

Helen Lunney

Celtic English Academy, Cadiff, Wales, UK

Nguyen Anh Thi

School of Foreign Languages, Can Tho University, Can Tho, Vietnam

Pham Trut Thuy

Department of English, Nam Can Tho University, Can Tho, Vietnam

Nguyen Huong Tra

School of Foreign Languages, Can Tho University, Can Tho, Vietnam

Huynh Thi Anh Thu

School of Foreign Languages, Can Tho University, Can Tho, Vietnam

Le Thanh Thao

School of Foreign Languages, Can Tho University, Can Tho, Vietnam

Abstract—This study aims to examine the satisfaction of Vietnamese K-12 teachers with the impact of Teacher Activity Groups (TAGs) on their professional development (PD). In the context of a rapidly evolving education system, PD plays a crucial role in enhancing teachers' knowledge, skills, and effectiveness in the classroom. Collaborative approaches, such as TAGs, have gained attention as promising strategies for fostering teacher growth and satisfaction. However, limited research has explored the specific impact of TAGs in the Vietnamese context. To address this gap, a quantitative approach was employed, and data were collected using a questionnaire from 147 K-12 teachers. The questionnaire consisted of 21 items measured on a 5-point scale, assessing various aspects of participants' satisfaction with the TAGs program. The results reveal high levels of overall satisfaction with the TAGs program, indicating positive perceptions of its interest, value, usefulness, and impact on professional development. Notably, variations in satisfaction levels were observed in relation to learner attendance and dropout rates. These findings provide valuable insights for educational policymakers and school administrators in designing and implementing effective PD initiatives tailored to the specific needs of teachers and students. By promoting teacher satisfaction and growth, TAGs have the potential to contribute to the continuous improvement of the Vietnamese education system.

Index Terms—satisfaction, Vietnamese K-12 teachers, teacher activity groups, professional development

I. INTRODUCTION

The pivotal role of professional development (PD) in ameliorating the pedagogical acumen of educators (Lei & Medwell, 2020), thereby augmenting the caliber of instruction, cannot be understated. Recently, there has been an emergent emphasis on cooperative strategies for PD (Koukis & Jimoyiannis, 2019), exemplified by Teacher Activity Groups (TAGs). The TAGs initiative is an avant-garde, synergistic venture brokered by an institution from the United Kingdom, where English prevails as the first language, and Vietnam, where English is dispensed as a foreign language. The scheme has been orchestrated with the aim of engendering cooperative education and problem-solving prowess among teachers, and was executed entirely in the virtual sphere over a span of six months. Rather than adhering to a conventional educational paradigm, the TAGs initiative championed a facilitative methodology, harnessing digital media such as Zoom and Google Meet for connectivity and interaction. The distinctive framework of TAGs designated native English linguists from Wales as the primary facilitators, helming the operation and imparting their proficiencies in English language instruction. Simultaneously, Vietnamese lecturers from a prestigious academic institution

functioned as facilitating auxiliaries, creating a mutually beneficial rapport that enhanced the collaborative educational milieu. Consequently, the TAGs initiative is a vanguard instance of international pedagogical synergy, accentuating reciprocal communication, practical utility, and the elevation of teachers to the status of co-learners within a supportive online community. This project underscores the latent potential of technology-augmented, trans-cultural alliances in propelling PD and augmenting English language education and acquisition. These initiatives are designed to cultivate a spirit of camaraderie and mutual learning among educational practitioners (Chickering et al., 2015).

Within the Vietnamese context, K-12 pedagogical institutions grapple with manifold challenges, including the task of accommodating the shifting needs of students and the dynamism of the education sector (Nguyen & Trent, 2020; Nguyen et al., 2020). In order to negotiate these hurdles, TAGs, as a so-called collaborative PD activity for teachers, have been heralded as a viable solution, offering teachers a stage for engaging in synergistic activities, promulgating effective methodologies, and devising innovative pedagogical stratagems (Xulu, 2018). These congregations proffer opportunities for teachers to collaborate, introspect on their pedagogical techniques, and amplify their professional evolution (Tichenor & Tichenor, 2019; Zeng & Day, 2019).

Nevertheless, despite the escalating popularity of TAGs, the research exploring their efficacy and the degree of satisfaction among participating teachers is scarce. Comprehending the viewpoint of Vietnamese K-12 teachers vis-à-vis the impact of TAGs on their PD is integral for guiding future enhancements in cooperative PD schemes. The primary aim of this research is to scrutinize the satisfaction levels of Vietnamese K-12 teachers who have participated in TAGs, and analyze the perceived influence of these assemblies on their PD. The conclusions drawn from this study will augment the extant scholarship on PD within the Vietnamese educational milieu and offer significant insights for policymakers, administrative personnel, and educators endeavoring to elevate PD via cooperative initiatives like TAGs. Ultimately, the ambition is to underpin the ongoing development and enhancement of K-12 teachers, positively influencing student scholastic outcomes and the aggregate standard of education in Vietnam.

II. LITERATURE REVIEW

A. Professional Development Activities

PD efforts are integral to the advancement and efficacy of educators, offering avenues for continuous learning, skill development, and instructional enhancement (Guskey, 2003; Guskey & Yoon, 2009). PD programs are designed to address the shifting needs of teachers within a constantly evolving educational context (Zein, 2017). These programs include a broad spectrum of activities such as workshops, seminars, conferences, collaborative learning communities, coaching, mentoring, and TAGs (Gümüş & Bellibaş, 2021). The main objective of these initiatives is to assist teachers in gaining new knowledge, skills, and teaching strategies, while also encouraging reflective practices and fostering a culture of continuous improvement (Boei et al., 2015).

Empirical research suggests that well-structured PD activities can greatly influence instructional practices (Mohamad et al., 2022; Quick et al., 2009). Evidence indicates that involvement in focused PD programs results in better subject matter knowledge, enhanced teaching techniques, and improved classroom management abilities (Nutta et al., 2020). Effective PD activities enable teachers to engage in active learning, observe best practices, and receive feedback and support from colleagues and facilitators (Archambault et al., 2010).

Collaborative PD activities, including TAGs, have seen substantial growth in recent years. TAGs provide a structured environment for educators to work together, share experiences, and participate in reflective dialogue (Lipscombe et al., 2020). Research supports the idea that such collaborative initiatives enhance pedagogical learning and positively impact instructional practices (Darling-Hammond et al., 2020). Through participation in these activities, teachers can broaden their teaching techniques, assimilate new perspectives, and refine their instructional methods based on shared knowledge and experiences (Darling-Hammond & Bransford, 2007).

Various factors contribute to the effectiveness of PD initiatives. The literature emphasizes the importance of ongoing engagement, dynamic learning experiences, and alignment with the specific needs and goals of teachers (Ottenbreit-Leftwich et al., 2010). Moreover, continuous support and follow-up are crucial for helping teachers implement their learning in the classroom (Putnam & Borko, 2000). Adequate resources, time, and organizational support are also significant determinants of the success and sustainability of PD initiatives (Desimone, 2002).

Ultimately, the effectiveness of PD activities should be evident in improved student outcomes. Studies have found positive correlations between teacher participation in high-quality PD activities and increased student achievement (Baker et al., 2018). Effective PD contributes to greater student engagement, better learning environments, and the adoption of evidence-based instructional strategies that positively influence student learning outcomes (Nishimura, 2014).

B. What Makes TAGs Different From Other Types of Collaborative Professional Development Activities?

In this study, TAGs are examined as a specific form of cooperative PD platforms aimed at encouraging collaborative learning and problem-solving among teachers (Lipscombe et al., 2020; Yen et al., 2023). By fostering a supportive environment and promoting professional growth, TAGs empower teachers, enhancing their self-efficacy and motivation (Bray-Clark & Bates, 2003). Their success hinges on trust, respect, open communication, and alignment with teachers'

professional needs. Despite challenges such as time constraints and heavy workloads, integrating TAGs within existing PD frameworks and ensuring resource availability and schedule compatibility can bolster their effectiveness.

TAGs represent an innovative approach to collaborative PD, differing significantly from traditional models in several key ways. Firstly, TAGs create an atmosphere of active engagement and mutual interaction, contrasting with the one-way communication often found in conventional PD settings (Dickson et al., 2021). The structure of TAGs is based on the exchange of expertise and experiential knowledge, fostering a deeper understanding that can be directly applied in teaching contexts. Secondly, TAGs are often established to address immediate, practical challenges within the educational environment. This contextual relevance enhances the effectiveness and applicability of the PD, moving beyond the theoretical focus of traditional PD initiatives (Njenga, 2023). Thirdly, TAGs emphasize self-directed learning, allowing teachers to chart their own learning paths, thereby moving away from the uniform approach typical of traditional PD (Waitoller & Artiles, 2013).

The effectiveness of TAGs is closely tied to the development of a supportive community of practice, built on trust. The synergy within these communities encourages full engagement in PD activities (Bond & Lockee, 2018), a level of engagement rarely seen in other PD paradigms. Moreover, TAGs involve a sustained commitment over a longer period, facilitating a continuous cycle of learning, implementation, reflection, and refinement (Saint-Onge & Wallace, 2012). This iterative process is essential for ongoing professional growth, often lacking in sporadic PD workshops or courses. Additionally, TAGs are typically formed within specific institutional or district contexts, ensuring that PD activities are closely aligned with local needs, goals, and resources (Vangrieken et al., 2017). This contextual alignment is often missing in PD programs developed and delivered by external organizations.

Furthermore, in this study, the involvement of native English speakers as facilitators within the TAG framework adds another dimension to this pedagogical model. Acting as both resource persons and facilitators, native English speakers offer valuable insights into the complexities of English language teaching, enriching the learning experience (Richards & Rodgers, 2014). Their presence provides an authentic linguistic environment and bridges cultural understanding, broadening the global perspectives of participating teachers (Truong & Murray, 2020). These facilitators can illuminate real-world contexts and the nuanced cultural aspects of language, which are often difficult to convey in traditional PD programs (Prabjandee, 2020). Their role extends beyond language instruction into mentorship and guidance, creating a supportive, engaging, and collaborative space that encourages teachers to reflect, question, and experiment with their teaching practices (Mann & Walsh, 2017). This collaborative relationship between facilitators and teachers in TAGs amplifies the potential for professional growth and enhances the overall learning experience. Consequently, TAGs present a promising path for PD, potentially overcoming the limitations inherent in traditional formats.

C. Five-Level Evaluation of the Effectiveness of Professional Development Activities

Evaluation is a crucial element of effective professional development (PD) activities, providing insights into their impact and efficiency. Guskey (2000) introduced a comprehensive five-level evaluation model, offering a thorough approach to assess PD outcomes and effectiveness. This literature review examines existing research and theoretical perspectives on Guskey's five-tiered model and its application in evaluating PD activities.

Level 1: Participants' Reactions

The first level focuses on participants' responses to PD activities. Studies highlight the importance of gathering feedback to gauge satisfaction, engagement, and perceptions of the program (Main & Pendergast, 2015). Positive reactions, such as high engagement, interest, and perceived value, are critical for effective PD outcomes (Bragg et al., 2021). Evaluating participants' reactions helps identify areas for improvement, tailor future programs to participants' needs, and maintain sustained engagement and motivation (De Vries et al., 2014).

Level 2: Participants' Learning

The second level assesses the extent to which participants gain new knowledge, skills, and strategies through PD activities. Effective PD should facilitate deep learning and provide opportunities for active, meaningful, and collaborative experiences (Hord & Tobia, 2015). Evaluation at this stage involves measuring participants' learning outcomes, mastery of content, and ability to apply new knowledge and skills in practice (Guskey, 2000).

Level 3: Organizational Support and Change

The third level examines the impact of PD activities on the organization and its support for participants. Effective PD requires organizational backing, resources, and alignment with institutional goals (Bryk, 2010). Studies suggest that organizational support enhances the implementation and sustainability of new practices (Gao, 2022; Zhou et al., 2022). Evaluation at this level assesses the extent of organizational support, resources, collaboration opportunities, and alignment with the broader organizational context (Guskey, 2000).

Level 4: Participants' Use of New Knowledge and Skills

The fourth level evaluates how participants apply their newly acquired knowledge and skills in their teaching practices. Effective PD should encourage continuous reflection, provide practice opportunities, and support implementation (Darling-Hammond & McLaughlin, 1995). Assessing the application of new knowledge and skills helps determine PD's impact on instructional practices and student outcomes (Earley & Porritt, 2014).

Level 5: Student Learning Outcomes

The final level focuses on the ultimate goal of PD activities: improving student learning outcomes. Research shows that high-quality PD positively affects student achievement, engagement, and attitudes towards learning (Shagrir, 2011).

Evaluation at this level involves measuring changes in student performance, engagement, and other relevant outcomes to determine PD's effectiveness in enhancing student learning (Guskey, 2000).

Guskey's five-tier evaluation model provides a comprehensive framework for assessing PD activities' effectiveness. By considering participants' reactions, learning, organizational support, application of new knowledge and skills, and student learning outcomes, this model offers a holistic evaluation approach. Using this model helps identify strengths and areas for improvement in PD initiatives, informs decision-making, and promotes continuous professional growth. Implementing this evaluative framework allows educators and policymakers to enhance PD activities' effectiveness, ultimately improving student learning outcomes.

In the context of this study, Guskey's evaluation framework is particularly suitable for assessing teacher satisfaction with TAGs. The model's comprehensive approach, encompassing various PD aspects such as participants' reactions, learning outcomes, organizational support, and the application of new knowledge and skills, enables the evaluation of teacher satisfaction with collaborative learning experiences. By applying this framework to TAGs, educators can gain valuable insights into the effectiveness of TAGs in meeting teachers' needs, fostering satisfaction, and leading to enhanced professional growth and improved instructional practices.

III. METHODS

A. Research Design

This investigation implements a quantitative methodological approach to meticulously examine the satisfaction index of Vietnamese K-12 teachers with respect to the repercussions of TAGs on their PD. The principal tool for data procurement within this methodological structure is a questionnaire, devised to aggregate responses from the chosen study cohort. The research embraces a theoretical structure substantiated by two seminal theories: Firstly, the Adult Learning Theory and secondly, the Community of Practice (CoP) Theory. Adult Learning Theory, attributed to Zepeda et al. (2014), provides a crucial perspective for comprehending the inherent motivations and autonomous learning behavior of adult scholars. This theory, based on the supposition that adults are self-determined in their learning trajectory and possess the ability to leverage their previous experiences to guide their ongoing learning process, proffers an impactful comprehension into the potential of TAGs to nurture an ambiance conducive to autonomous learning amongst teachers. In its essence, it furnishes a rationale for probing how TAGs, by catering to the innate motivations and autonomous learning propensities of teachers, may possibly contribute to improved satisfaction indices and, consequently, augment PD outcomes. On the contrary, the CoP theory, proposed by Mak and Pun (2015), constitutes the second critical element of the theoretical framework. CoP theory accentuates learning as a social process, driven by interaction, collaboration, and knowledge transfer within a community bonded by a shared interest or practice. This theory bears considerable relevance to comprehending the collective and cooperative characteristics of TAGs. It provides a theoretical foundation for investigating how the communal participation within TAGs could foster a supportive ambiance, encourage knowledge dissemination, and collaborative problem-solving, thereby potentially influencing teachers' satisfaction levels and professional expansion.

B. Participants

To harness a broad spectrum of teacher perspectives regarding the impact of TAGs on their PD, a strategy rooted in the convenience sampling technique was judiciously employed. This method, although opportunistic, was deliberately chosen for its capacity to expedite the data collection process while ensuring a diverse, comprehensive representation of respondents. The sample encompassed diversity in critical domains such as subject areas, grade levels, years of teaching experience, and geographical locations. The deliberate pursuit of this heterogeneity within the sample aimed to enrich the data with a myriad of viewpoints, thus fostering a more holistic understanding of the phenomenon under investigation. By capitalizing on the practical advantages of convenience sampling, such as accessibility and speed, the study ensured inclusivity and wide-ranging insights, thereby enhancing the robustness of the resultant findings and facilitating nuanced interpretations of the influence of TAGs on teachers' PD. A total of 147 K-12 teachers from a diverse array of educational establishments across Vietnam were incorporated into this study. Of these, 39 were male and 108 were female. Age distribution was as follows: nine teachers were in their 20s, 64 in their 30s, 67 in their 40s, and seven in their 50s. In terms of pedagogical experience, fourteen participants had less than 5 years, thirty-five had between 5 and 10 years, fifty-three had between 10 and 20 years, and forty-five had more than 20 years of teaching experience. With regard to subject specializations, one hundred and three participants were English teachers, while the remaining forty-four taught various subjects through the medium of English. The teachers were drawn from disparate geographical locations, with thirty-four originating from urban areas, twenty-one from suburban locales, and ninety-two from rural regions.

C. Data Collection Instrument

The questionnaire developed for this study was designed to evaluate Vietnamese K-12 teachers' satisfaction with the impact of TAGs on their PD. Comprising 21 items, the questionnaire sought to measure participants' satisfaction levels in alignment with the five levels proposed by Guskey's (2000) evaluation framework for PD activities. Participants

were asked to express their level of satisfaction on a 5-point Likert scale, spanning from “1 - Strongly Unsatisfactory” to “5 - Strongly Satisfactory”.

In order to ensure the questionnaire’s validity and reliability, several measures were undertaken. It was developed following an exhaustive review of the literature on PD, TAGs, and Guskey’s (2000) five-tier evaluation framework. Additionally, feedback from two experts in the fields of education and PD was solicited to verify the relevance and appropriateness of the items. Prior to its formal administration, a pilot test of the questionnaire was conducted with a small group of 30 teachers whose characteristics mirrored those of the actual study participants. Feedback on the questionnaire’s instructions, item wording, and overall structure was elicited, leading to necessary revisions to enhance clarity and comprehension. The questionnaire’s reliability was gauged by measuring its internal consistency, ascertained via the calculation of Cronbach’s alpha coefficient ($\alpha=.82$), indicative of item consistency within the questionnaire. The reliability analysis was performed using SPSS version 20.0 to ascertain that the items in the questionnaire were reliable measures of the constructs under investigation. Adherence to ethical guidelines throughout the questionnaire design process and the data collection procedure was paramount. Informed consent was secured from the participants, and measures were taken to ensure their anonymity and confidentiality. The study’s purpose, voluntary participation, and data protection measures were communicated transparently to the participants. These strategies bolstered the validity and reliability of the questionnaire, ensuring its effectiveness in measuring participant satisfaction with the TAGs program and perceptions of its impact on their PD.

D. Data Analysis

The accumulated questionnaire data was subjected to a descriptive statistical analysis in order to summarize and interpret participant responses. Descriptive statistics provided an overview of the distribution, central tendency, and variability of the data, thereby facilitating a comprehensive understanding of Vietnamese K-12 teachers’ satisfaction levels concerning the impact of TAGs on their PD. The application of descriptive statistical measures, including the calculation of means and standard deviations, allowed for an estimation of the average satisfaction scores for each questionnaire item and an assessment of the dispersion of responses around the mean.

IV. RESULTS AND DISCUSSIONS

The results of the Descriptive Statistics test conducted on the questionnaire to measure participants’ satisfaction with the TAGs program are presented in Table 1.

TABLE 1
TEACHERS’ SATISFACTION WITH TAGS (N=147)

	Impacts	Min	Max	Mean	SD
1.	Program’s interesting	2.00	5.00	4.10	.81
2.	Reasonableness of training course duration	1.00	5.00	3.70	.79
3.	Value of training course materials	1.00	5.00	3.85	.86
4.	Future usefulness of training course	1.00	5.00	4.01	.75
5.	Trainers’ knowledge	1.00	5.00	4.38	.73
	Level 1	1.00	5.00	4.01	.64
6.	Knowledge acquisition	1.00	5.00	3.96	.81
7.	Skills acquisition	1.00	5.00	3.88	.79
8.	Impact on organizing future professional development events	1.00	5.00	3.76	.89
	Level 2	1.00	5.00	3.87	.77
9.	School support	1.00	5.00	4.06	.80
10.	Recognition of trainees	1.00	5.00	3.66	.92
11.	Issue resolution	1.00	5.00	4.07	.73
12.	Adequacy of course materials	1.00	5.00	3.72	.79
13.	Recognition of outstanding participants	1.00	5.00	3.65	.85
	Level 3	2.00	5.00	3.83	.61
14.	Acquisition of new and useful knowledge	1.00	5.00	3.86	.77
15.	Gain of teaching effectiveness improvement skills	2.00	5.00	3.85	.72
16.	Impact on students’ learning outcomes	2.00	5.00	3.88	.75
17.	Students’ performance improvement	2.00	5.00	3.86	.73
	Level 4	2.00	5.00	3.86	.68
18.	Positive impact on students’ physical and mental well-being	1.00	5.00	3.80	.81
19.	Boost in learners’ self-confidence	2.00	5.00	3.86	.74
20.	Increase in class attendance	1.00	5.00	3.67	.83
21.	Reduction in student dropout rate	1.00	5.00	3.56	.81
	Level 5	2.00	5.00	3.72	.71
	Overall	2.00	5.00	3.86	.60

The findings of the present study reveal that the participants manifested elevated levels of satisfaction with the TAGs program, as corroborated by the mean scores that ranged from 3.56 to 4.38 on a 5-point Likert scale. The maximal mean scores were observed for item 5, thus indicating participants’ favorable perception of the trainers’ level of expertise. Contrarily, the minimal mean scores were noticed for items 20 and 21, which pertained to the influence on student

attendance and dropout rates. Moreover, the mean scores across each level of the PD framework suggested a marked degree of participant satisfaction spanning different aspects of PD, with scores oscillating 4.01 for Level 1, 3.87 for Level 2, 3.83 for Level 3, 3.86 for Level 4, and 3.72 for Level 5. These results potentially indicate positive perceptions regarding the program's impact on aspects such as knowledge acquisition, skill development, organizational support, and student outcomes. In essence, the TAGs program was favorably received by the participants, evoking positive responses concerning its interest, value, usefulness, and its impact on their PD.

These empirical outcomes align congruently with prior research conducted in the Vietnamese context, which similarly indicated elevated levels of satisfaction among participants regarding the TAGs program. This finding corroborates previous studies, which underscored the beneficial impact of collaborative PD initiatives on teachers' satisfaction and professional growth within the confines of the Vietnamese milieu (Hashimoto & Nguyen, 2018; Ho, 2016). The abovementioned impact can be attributed to several interrelated factors. First and foremost, the socio-cultural norms of Vietnam emphasize collective action and shared responsibility (Truong et al., 2017), which align with the collaborative nature of these PD initiatives. Teachers engage in a process of mutual learning, exchange of ideas, and shared problem-solving, which not only strengthens their professional competence but also fosters a sense of camaraderie and mutual support (Olitsky, 2017). This collaborative engagement directly enhances their professional satisfaction and growth by providing a contextually relevant, supportive environment for continuous learning (Lipscombe et al., 2020). Moreover, these initiatives often involve mentorship from more experienced educators or experts, providing teachers with valuable insights and feedback that further bolster their professional skills (Heikkinen et al., 2012). When real-world classroom issues are tackled and teaching methods tailored to specific contexts are incorporated, the extensive expertise of educators and trainers helps to elevate the value and impact of these PD programs. As a result, these initiatives not only enhance teacher satisfaction but also foster their PD, particularly in the Vietnamese setting.

The higher mean score associated with "Trainers' knowledge" ($M=4.38$) reinforces past research emphasizing the pivotal role of competent and knowledgeable trainers in amplifying the effectiveness of PD programs. This result underscores the criticality of involving local trainers who are not only well-prepared but are also capable of imparting invaluable insights and support to participants within the Vietnamese educational landscape (Vu, 2020). The selection process for local trainers in the TAGs program in Vietnam is a meticulous process that ensures the selection of high-quality teacher educators (Mai & Hall, 2017), contributing to the high satisfaction reported by the teachers. The process often involves a thorough evaluation of potential local trainers' academic qualifications, teaching experience, expertise in the subject matter, and interpersonal skills (Vu, 2020). Typically, these local trainers possess advanced degrees in their field and have a proven track record in the classroom, showcasing their competence in their subject areas (Lunenberget al., 2014). Their deep knowledge, combined with their years of pedagogical practice, allows them to understand and address the real-world challenges teachers face. Moreover, the Vietnamese educational system values the capacity to foster supportive learning environments and encourages cooperation and collaboration (Economides, 2008), which are integral attributes considered during trainer selection. Additionally, the integration of native English speakers as facilitators significantly enhanced the quality of the TAGs under investigation, contributing to heightened participant satisfaction. These facilitators, fluent in English and culturally aware, not only delivered language instruction but also enriched the learning milieu (Truong & Murray, 2020). Their expertise and practical wisdom imbued authenticity to the learning process and broadened participants' perspectives (Prabjandee, 2020). Navigating complex cultural aspects of language often overlooked in traditional PD initiatives, they provided real-world context. Beyond knowledge dissemination, their mentorship role in TAGs stimulated a collaborative and reflective environment (Mann & Walsh, 2017). Their capacity to address diverse learning needs and facilitate self-directed learning, along with their adaptability (Richards & Rodgers, 2014), enriched the learning experience and bolstered participants' English teaching competence. By prioritizing these factors, the selection process ensures that trainers are well-equipped to facilitate engaging, effective, and relevant PD activities, which in turn leads to the high satisfaction observed among the teachers who have partook in the TAGs program.

The lesser mean scores observed for "Increase in class attendance" ($M=3.67$) and "Reduction in student dropout rate" ($M=3.56$) indicate that the participants perceived these aspects as potential areas warranting enhancement. This finding resonates with the existing challenges that teachers in Vietnam grapple with, specifically regarding fostering student engagement and curtailing dropout rates (Tri, 2021). The challenges stem from socio-cultural, economic, and institutional factors. For some students, particularly those in rural areas or from disadvantaged backgrounds, economic pressures may compel them to leave school early in favor of work to support their families (Doepke & Zilibotti, 2019). Furthermore, the rote-learning and examination-centered pedagogical approach traditionally employed in the Vietnamese educational system can sometimes fail to stimulate students' interest and active engagement (Tran, 2007; Tran, 2019), leading to student disinterest and eventual dropout. Additionally, discrepancies in educational resources and support between urban and rural schools (Nguyen et al., 2018), and between different socioeconomic groups (Ho et al., 2020), can exacerbate these challenges. A lack of specialized training and resources for teachers to effectively tackle these issues (Tran-Thanh, 2020), coupled with high student-to-teacher ratios (Van et al., 2019; Baum, 2020), often make it challenging to provide individualized attention and address the specific needs of each student, further hindering efforts to enhance student engagement and reduce dropout rates.

Analogously, the lower mean scores recorded for “Recognition of trainees” ($M=3.66$) and “Recognition of outstanding participants” ($M=3.65$) signify that the participants identified these facets as elements necessitating improvement. This observation is congruent with the prevalent issues that participants in the TAGs project contend with, notably concerning acknowledgment of participation and meritorious performance. These issues can be traced back to a multitude of operational, inter-personal, and institutional factors. For some participants, particularly those who contribute significantly or excel in their roles, lack of recognition may lead to disengagement and reduced motivation to participate (Akafo & Boateng, 2015). Moreover, the focus on collective learning and collaboration in the TAGs project could sometimes overshadow individual achievements (Ouyang & Chang, 2019), leading to dissatisfaction among the high-performing participants. Additionally, variations in digital competence and access to resources among participants from diverse backgrounds (Le et al., 2019), can intensify these concerns. The absence of a robust system to identify and reward excellent performances, in conjunction with large participant-to-facilitator ratios (Davis et al., 2022), often poses a challenge in offering personalized acknowledgment and catering to the specific needs of each participant, further impeding endeavors to improve participant satisfaction and engagement.

V. CONCLUSION

This study embarked upon an exploration into the satisfaction levels of K-12 Vietnamese teachers with the influence of TAGs on their PD. The outcomes indicate an overarching sense of satisfaction among participants with the TAGs program. The mean scores, varying from 3.56 to 4.38 on a 5-point scale, manifest positive perceptions regarding the program’s appeal, value, utility, and impact on PD. These findings concur with prior studies undertaken in the Vietnamese milieu, accentuating the beneficial influence of collaborative PD activities on teachers’ satisfaction and progression. The substantial mean scores corresponding to the trainers’ expertise reflect the criticality of having adept and knowledgeable trainers to boost the effectiveness of PD programs. Nonetheless, the lesser mean scores pertaining to the impact on student attendance and dropout rates signal the necessity for targeted interventions to tackle these specific concerns. The mean scores across each level of PD denote participants’ satisfaction across varied facets, encompassing reactions, learning, organizational support, application of knowledge and skills, and student outcomes. These findings reaffirm the multifaceted nature of efficacious PD programs within the Vietnamese setting, underlining the success of the TAGs program in meeting participants’ needs for knowledge acquisition, skill enhancement, and support from the school environment. Taken as a whole, this study enriches the burgeoning body of literature on PD in Vietnam, yielding insights into K-12 teachers’ satisfaction with TAGs and their perceptions of its impact on their PD. The findings underscore the importance of collaborative activities, knowledgeable trainers, and targeted interventions to address specific challenges in the Vietnamese educational framework, such as student attendance and dropout rates.

VI. IMPLICATIONS

The findings of this study underscore the efficacy of TAGs in fostering teacher satisfaction and professional growth within the Vietnamese setting. This has implications for educational policymakers and school administrators, who can prioritize the implementation of collaborative PD programs akin to TAGs to facilitate teachers’ continuous learning and development. Furthermore, the positive perceptions regarding trainers’ knowledge underscore the importance of investing in trainers who possess expertise and can effectively buttress teachers’ PD. Teacher trainers in Vietnam can be spurred to continually develop their knowledge and skills, ensuring they are equipped to proffer valuable insights and support to participants. Next, the lower satisfaction scores related to the impact on student attendance and dropout rates suggest the need for targeted interventions to address these challenges in the Vietnamese educational system. Further research and initiatives could focus on implementing strategies that enhance student attendance, retention, and overall engagement in the classroom.

In broader contexts, the positive satisfaction levels observed in this study highlight the importance of collaborative PD activities in various educational contexts worldwide. The findings reinforce the idea that providing opportunities for teachers to collaborate, exchange ideas, and learn from each other is integral to their professional growth and satisfaction. Additionally, the emphasis on trainers’ knowledge underscores the significance of competent and well-prepared trainers in facilitating effective PD. Education systems in other countries can prioritize the selection, training, and ongoing support of trainers to ensure they possess the necessary expertise and can effectively contribute to teachers’ PD. Moreover, the study’s implications for addressing specific challenges, such as student attendance and dropout rates, can be valuable for other contexts worldwide. Recognizing and addressing local educational challenges within PD initiatives can lead to more targeted and impactful interventions that positively influence both teacher and student outcomes. Last but not least, the positive perceptions of the TAGs program highlight the value of fostering a culture of continuous learning among educators. Education systems globally can encourage and provide opportunities for teachers to engage in collaborative PD activities, empowering them to enhance their teaching practices, support student learning, and contribute to their own professional growth.

VII. LIMITATIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

This study is not without limitations. Firstly, the sample size of 147 K-12 teachers, while adequate for the scope of this study, may limit the generalizability of the findings to the broader population of teachers in Vietnam. Future studies could aim for larger and more diverse samples to enhance the generalizability of the results and provide a more comprehensive understanding of the impact of TAGs on teacher satisfaction. Secondly, the reliance on self-reported data from participants may introduce response biases or social desirability effects. Even though the research team implemented several strategies, such as employing the use of anonymous surveys, embedding consistency checks within the questionnaire to cross-verify the authenticity and reliability of the responses, and assuring the participants of the confidential handling of the data and the importance of honesty in responses to the accuracy and value of the research outcomes, they could not avoid the fact that participants may provide responses that they believe align with societal expectations or the perceived goals of the study. Therefore, to mitigate this limitation, future studies could incorporate multiple sources of data, such as classroom observations or interviews, to provide a more comprehensive and well-rounded understanding of the impact of TAGs on PD. Lastly, while the study briefly explored the impact of TAGs on student outcomes, a more comprehensive investigation is needed. Further studies could delve deeper into the direct and indirect effects of TAGs on student learning and achievement. This would provide valuable insights into the program's effectiveness in improving educational outcomes.

Additionally, several recommendations can guide future research. Firstly, conducting long-term impact assessments would enable a better understanding of the sustained effects of participating in TAGs on teachers' PD and student outcomes. A longitudinal approach would provide insights into the durability and effectiveness of the program over an extended period. Secondly, comparative studies involving multiple PD programs or interventions would allow for a more comprehensive analysis. Comparing TAGs to other approaches would shed light on the unique contributions and advantages of TAGs, helping to identify best practices and inform decision-making for PD initiatives. Incorporating mixed-methods approaches would also enrich future studies. Integrating qualitative research methods, such as interviews or focus groups, alongside quantitative data collection, would offer a deeper understanding of teachers' experiences, perceptions, and the contextual factors that influence the effectiveness of TAGs. This combined approach would provide a more comprehensive and nuanced analysis of the program's impact. Exploring potential moderating factors that may influence the effectiveness of TAGs is another avenue for future research. Factors such as teachers' prior experience, subject area, or school characteristics could be investigated to identify specific contextual elements that contribute to successful implementation and outcomes. Additionally, conducting similar studies in different educational contexts beyond Vietnam would contribute to a broader understanding of collaborative PD practices worldwide. This would help determine the generalizability and effectiveness of TAGs in diverse settings and facilitate cross-cultural comparisons. Finally, exploring the combination of TAGs with other PD approaches, such as mentoring, coaching, or online learning, could provide valuable insights into the synergistic effects and potential benefits of integrating multiple strategies to enhance teacher professional growth.

REFERENCES

- [1] Akafo, V., & Boateng, P. A. (2015). Impact of reward and recognition on job satisfaction and motivation. *European Journal of Business and Management*, 7(24), 112-124.
- [2] Archambault, L., Wetzel, K., Foulger, T. S., & Kim Williams, M. (2010). Professional development 2.0: Transforming teacher education pedagogy with 21st century tools. *Journal of Digital Learning in Teacher Education*, 27(1), 4-11. <https://doi.org/10.1080/21532974.2010.10784651>
- [3] Baker, J., Chaseling, M., Boyd, W., & Shipway, B. (2018). Teachers' response to a new mandatory professional development process: does it make a difference?. *Professional Development in Education*, 44(4), 570-582. <https://doi.org/10.1080/19415257.2017.1378706>
- [4] Baum, M. A. (2020). *Vietnam's development success story and the unfinished SDG agenda*. International Monetary Fund.
- [5] Boei, F., Dengerink, J., Geursen, J., Kools, Q., Koster, B., Lunenberg, M., & Willemse, M. (2015). Supporting the professional development of teacher educators in a productive way. *Journal of Education for Teaching*, 41(4), 351-368. <https://doi.org/10.1080/02607476.2015.1080403>
- [6] Bond, M. A., & Lockee, B. B. (2018). Evaluating the effectiveness of faculty inquiry groups as communities of practice for faculty professional development. *Journal of Formative Design in Learning*, 2, 1-7. <https://doi.org/10.1007/s41686-018-0015-7>
- [7] Bragg, L. A., Walsh, C., & Heyeres, M. (2021). Successful design and delivery of online professional development for teachers: A systematic review of the literature. *Computers & Education*, 166, 104158. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.compedu.2021.104158>
- [8] Bray-Clark, N., & Bates, R. (2003). Self-efficacy beliefs and teacher effectiveness: Implications for professional development. *Professional Educator*, 26(1), 13-22.
- [9] Bryk, A. S. (2010). Organizing schools for improvement. *Phi Delta Kappan*, 91(7), 23-30. <https://doi.org/10.1177/003172171009100705>
- [10] Chickering, A. W., Dalton, J. C., & Stamm, L. (2015). *Encouraging authenticity and spirituality in higher education*. John Wiley & Sons.
- [11] Darling-Hammond, L., & Bransford, J. (Eds.). (2007). *Preparing teachers for a changing world: What teachers should learn and be able to do*. John Wiley & Sons.

- [12] Darling-Hammond, L., Flook, L., Cook-Harvey, C., Barron, B., & Osher, D. (2020). Implications for educational practice of the science of learning and development. *Applied Developmental Science*, 24(2), 97-140. <https://doi.org/10.1080/10888691.2018.1537791>
- [13] Davis, A., Meloncelli, N., Hannigan, A., & Ward, W. (2022). Evaluation of a model of online, facilitated, peer group supervision for dietitians working in eating disorders. *Journal of Eating Disorders*, 10(1), 1-9. <https://doi.org/10.1186/s40337-022-00617-7>
- [14] De Vries, S., van de Grift, W. J., & Jansen, E. P. (2014). How teachers' beliefs about learning and teaching relate to their continuing professional development. *Teachers and Teaching*, 20(3), 338-357. <https://doi.org/10.1080/13540602.2013.848521>
- [15] Desimone, L. (2002). How can comprehensive school reform models be successfully implemented?. *Review of Educational Research*, 72(3), 433-479. <https://doi.org/10.3102/00346543072003433>
- [16] Dickson, K. S., Glass, J. E., Barnett, M. L., Graham, A. K., Powell, B. J., & Stadnick, N. A. (2021). Value of peer mentoring for early career professional, research, and personal development: a case study of implementation scientists. *Journal of Clinical and Translational Science*, 5(1), e112. <https://doi.org/10.1017/cts.2021.776>
- [17] Doepke, M., & Zilibotti, F. (2019). *Love, money, and parenting: How economics explains the way we raise our kids*. Princeton University Press.
- [18] Earley, P., & Porritt, V. (2014). Evaluating the impact of professional development: The need for a student-focused approach. *Professional Development in Education*, 40(1), 112-129. <https://doi.org/10.1080/19415257.2013.798741>
- [19] Economides, A. A. (2008). Culture-Aware Collaborative Learning. *Multicultural Education & Technology Journal*, 2(4), 243-267. <https://doi.org/10.1108/17504970810911052>
- [20] Gao, Y. (2022). Overcoming mental health stigma through student's awareness and project-based inclusive pedagogy in English teaching colleges: Moderating role of institutional support in China. *Frontiers in Psychiatry*, 13, 992904. <https://doi.org/10.3389/fpsy.2022.992904>
- [21] Gümüş, E., & Bellibaş, M. Ş. (2021). The relationship between the types of professional development activities teachers participate in and their self-efficacy: a multi-country analysis. *European Journal of Teacher Education*, 46(1), 1-28. <https://doi.org/10.1080/02619768.2021.1892639>
- [22] Guskey, T. R. (2000). *Evaluating professional development*. Corwin Press.
- [23] Guskey, T. R. (2003). What makes professional development effective?. *Phi Delta Kappan*, 84(10), 748-750. <https://doi.org/10.1177/003172170308401007>
- [24] Guskey, T. R., & Yoon, K. S. (2009). What works in professional development?. *Phi Delta Kappan*, 90(7), 495-500. <https://doi.org/10.1177/003172170909000709>
- [25] Hashimoto, K., & Nguyen, V. T. (Eds.). (2018). *Professional development of English language teachers in Asia: Lessons from Japan and Vietnam*. Routledge.
- [26] Heikkinen, H. L., Jokinen, H., & Tynjälä, P. (Eds.). (2012). *Peer-group mentoring for teacher development*. Routledge.
- [27] Ho, M. T., La, V. P., Nguyen, M. H., Pham, T. H., Vuong, T. T., Vuong, H. M., ... & Vuong, Q. H. (2020). An analytical view on STEM education and outcomes: Examples of the social gap and gender disparity in Vietnam. *Children and Youth Services Review*, 119, 105650. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.childyouth.2020.105650>
- [28] Ho, T. Y. (2016). *A Narrative Inquiry into ESL Teachers' Experiences of Professional Development* (Doctoral dissertation).
- [29] Hord, S. M., & Tobia, E. F. (2015). *Reclaiming our teaching profession: The power of educators learning in community*. Teachers College Press.
- [30] Koukis, N., & Jimoyiannis, A. (2019). MOOCS for teacher professional development: exploring teachers' perceptions and achievements. *Interactive Technology and Smart Education*, 16(1), 74-91. <https://doi.org/10.1108/ITSE-10-2018-0081>
- [31] Le, A. V., Do, D. L., Pham, D. Q., Hoang, P. H., Duong, T. H., Nguyen, H. N., ... & Vuong, Q. H. (2019). Exploration of Youth's Digital Competencies: A Dataset in the Educational Context of Vietnam. *Data*, 4(2), 1-37.
- [32] Lei, M., & Medwell, J. (2020). How do English language teachers understand the idea of professional development in the recent curriculum reforms in China?. *Asia Pacific Journal of Education*, 40(3), 401-417. <https://doi.org/10.1080/02188791.2020.1717440>
- [33] Lipscombe, K., Buckley-Walker, K., & McNamara, P. (2020). Understanding collaborative teacher teams as open systems for professional development. *Professional Development in Education*, 46(3), 373-390. <https://doi.org/10.1080/19415257.2019.1613256>
- [34] Lunenberg, M., Dengerink, J., & Korthagen, F. (2014). *The professional teacher educator: Roles, behaviour, and professional development of teacher educators*. Springer Science & Business Media.
- [35] Mai, H. N. T., & Hall, C. (2017). Changing views of teachers and teaching in Vietnam. *Teaching Education*, 28(3), 244-256. <https://doi.org/10.1080/10476210.2016.1252742>
- [36] Main, K., & Pendergast, D. (2015). Core features of effective continuing professional development for the middle years: A tool for reflection. *RMLE Online*, 38(10), 1-18.
- [37] Mak, B., & Pun, S. H. (2015). Cultivating a teacher community of practice for sustainable professional development: Beyond planned efforts. *Teachers and Teaching*, 21(1), 4-21.
- [38] Mann, S., & Walsh, S. (2017). *Reflective practice in English language teaching: Research-based principles and practices*. Taylor & Francis.
- [39] Mohamad Hasim, S., Rosli, R., Halim, L., Capraro, M. M., & Capraro, R. M. (2022). STEM professional development activities and their impact on teacher knowledge and instructional practices. *Mathematics*, 10(7), 1109-1129. <https://doi.org/10.3390/math10071109>
- [40] Nguyen, C. D., & Trent, J. (2020). Community perceptions as a source of knowledge for transforming teaching and teacher education in Vietnam. *Journal of Education for Teaching*, 46(3), 281-295. <https://doi.org/10.1080/02607476.2020.1733401>
- [41] Nguyen, Q. T., Naguib, R. N., Das, A. K., Papathomas, M., Vallar, E. A., Wickramasinghe, N., ... & Nguyen, V. A. (2018). Primary education in Vietnam and pupil online engagement. *International Journal of Educational Management*, 32(1), 71-83. <https://doi.org/10.1108/IJEM-11-2016-0242>

- [42] Nguyen, V. B. H., Vu, T. M. H., Hoang, T. K. H., & Nguyen, T. M. N. (2020). Vietnamese education system and teacher training: Focusing on science education. *Asia-Pacific Science Education*, 6(1), 179-206. <https://doi.org/10.1163/23641177-BJA10001>
- [43] Nishimura, T. (2014). Effective professional development of teachers: A guide to actualizing inclusive schooling. *International Journal of Whole Schooling*, 10(1), 19-42.
- [44] Njenga, M. (2023). Teacher participation in continuing professional development: A theoretical framework. *Journal of Adult and Continuing Education*, 29(1), 69-85. <https://doi.org/10.1177/14779714221123603>
- [45] Nutta, J. W., Mokhtari, K., & Strebel, C. (Eds.). (2020). *Preparing every teacher to reach English learners: A practical guide for teacher educators*. Harvard Education Press.
- [46] Olitsky, S. (2017). Crossing the boundaries: Solidarity, identity, and mutual learning in a K-20 partnership. *Science Education*, 101(3), 399-425. <https://doi.org/10.1002/sce.21272>
- [47] Ottenbreit-Leftwich, A. T., Glazewski, K. D., Newby, T. J., & Ertmer, P. A. (2010). Teacher value beliefs associated with using technology: Addressing professional and student needs. *Computers & Education*, 55(3), 1321-1335. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.compedu.2010.06.002>
- [48] Ouyang, F., & Chang, Y. H. (2019). The relationships between social participatory roles and cognitive engagement levels in online discussions. *British Journal of Educational Technology*, 50(3), 1396-1414. <https://doi.org/10.1111/bjet.12647>
- [49] Prabjandee, D. (2020). Teacher professional development to implement Global Englishes language teaching. *Asian Englishes*, 22(1), 52-67. <https://doi.org/10.1080/13488678.2019.1624931>
- [50] Putnam, R. T., & Borko, H. (2000). What do new views of knowledge and thinking have to say about research on teacher learning?. *Educational Researcher*, 29(1), 4-15. <https://doi.org/10.3102/0013189X029001004>
- [51] Quick, H. E., Holtzman, D. J., & Chaney, K. R. (2009). Professional development and instructional practice: Conceptions and evidence of effectiveness. *Journal of Education for Students Placed at Risk*, 14(1), 45-71. <https://doi.org/10.1080/10824660802715429>
- [52] Richards, J. C., & Rodgers, T. S. (2014). *Approaches and methods in language teaching*. Cambridge university press.
- [53] Saint-Onge, H., & Wallace, D. (2012). *Leveraging communities of practice for strategic advantage*. Routledge.
- [54] Shagrir, L. (2011). Professional development of the teacher educator: Orientations and motivations. *International Journal of University Teaching and Faculty Development*, 2(1), 17-32.
- [55] Tichenor, M., & Tichenor, J. (2019). Collaboration in the Elementary School: What Do Teachers Think?. *Journal of Curriculum and Teaching*, 8(2), 54-61. <https://doi.org/10.5430/jct.v8n2p54>
- [56] Tran, L. T. (2007). Learners' motivation and identity in the Vietnamese EFL writing classroom. *English Teaching: Practice and Critique*, 6(1), 151-163.
- [57] Tran, V. D. (2019). Does Cooperative Learning Increase Students' Motivation in Learning?. *International Journal of Higher Education*, 8(5), 12-20. <https://doi.org/10.5430/ijhe.v8n5p12>
- [58] Tran-Thanh, V. (2020). Queer identity inclusion in the EFL classroom: Vietnamese teachers' perspectives. *TESOL Journal*, 11(3), e00512. <https://doi.org/10.1002/tesj.512>
- [59] Tri, N. M. (2021, March). Developing Education in Vietnam in the context of international integration. In *17th International Conference of the Asia Association of Computer-Assisted Language Learning (AsiaCALL 2021)* (pp. 234-240). Atlantis Press.
- [60] Truong, M. T., & Murray, J. (2020). Understanding obstacles to online professional development through the lens of EFL teachers' attitudes: A qualitative study in Vietnam context. *Computer-Assisted Language Learning Electronic Journal (CALL-EJ)*, 21(3), 23-40.
- [61] Truong, T. D., Hallinger, P., & Sanga, K. (2017). Confucian values and school leadership in Vietnam: Exploring the influence of culture on principal decision making. *Educational Management Administration & Leadership*, 45(1), 77-100. <https://doi.org/10.1177/1741143215607877>
- [62] Van, S. H., Minh, H. N. T., Vinh, K. N., Vinh, L. S., & Thien, V. G. (2019). Forecasting the Results of Students Attending School in Vietnam by Geographical Area. *International Journal of Education and Practice*, 7(3), 274-285. <https://doi.org/10.18488/journal.61.2019.73.274.285>
- [63] Vangrieken, K., Meredith, C., Packer, T., & Kyndt, E. (2017). Teacher communities as a context for professional development: A systematic review. *Teaching and Teacher Education*, 61, 47-59. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.tate.2016.10.001>
- [64] Vu, T. N. (2020). Examining teacher agency among teacher educators: An action research in Vietnam. *Australian Journal of Teacher Education (Online)*, 45(7), 94-113. <https://search.informit.org/doi/10.3316/informit.526139228044245>
- [65] Waitoller, F. R., & Artiles, A. J. (2013). A decade of professional development research for inclusive education: A critical review and notes for a research program. *Review of Educational Research*, 83(3), 319-356. <https://doi.org/10.3102/0034654313483905>
- [66] Xulu, P. S. (2018). *To investigate the effectiveness of Japanese lesson study as a collaborative professional development activity for teachers at school level* (Doctoral dissertation).
- [67] Yen, P. H., Thi, N. A., Thao, L. T., Thuy, P. T., Tra, N. H., & Thu, H. T. A. (2023). Impact of Geographical Factors on Vietnamese Teachers' Satisfaction with "Teacher Activity Groups" Project. *International Journal of Learning, Teaching and Educational Research*, 22(9), 62-84. <https://doi.org/10.26803/ijlter.22.9.4>
- [68] Zein, M. S. (2017). Professional development needs of primary EFL teachers: Perspectives of teachers and teacher educators. *Professional Development in Education*, 43(2), 293-313. <https://doi.org/10.1080/19415257.2016.1156013>
- [69] Zeng, Y., & Day, C. (2019). Collaborative teacher professional development in schools in England (UK) and Shanghai (China): cultures, contexts and tensions. *Teachers and Teaching*, 25(3), 379-397. <https://doi.org/10.1080/13540602.2019.1593822>
- [70] Zepeda, S. J., Parylo, O., & Bengtson, E. (2014). Analyzing principal professional development practices through the lens of adult learning theory. *Professional Development in Education*, 40(2), 295-315. <https://doi.org/10.1080/19415257.2013.821667>
- [71] Zhou, F., Zhang, N., & Mou, J. (2022). Universities as incubators of innovation: The role of a university playfulness climate in teachers' sustainable teaching innovation. *The International Journal of Management Education*, 20(3), 100693. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.ijme.2022.100693>



Yen H. Phuong is currently an associate professor at the School of Foreign Languages, Can Tho University, Vietnam. She carries studies on language teaching approaches, students' learning autonomy, self-regulated learning strategies and teachers' professional development. She published articles in different journals and is the editor of one Scopus-indexed book on alternative assessment in language teaching.



Helen L. is the Director of Studies at Celtic English Academy in Cardiff, UK. She has been in EFL management and teacher training for over 20 years and has also acted as a local trainer for the online Cambridge DELTA Module 2 since 2009. Currently setting up a CELTA centre, Helen is committed to teacher training and encouraging her own and others' continual professional development within the dynamic learning environment of ELT.



Thi A. Nguyen is currently a lecturer of English at Can Tho University, Vietnam. His main research interests involve pre/in-service teacher training, teacher education and language teaching methodology, particularly in the field of Task-based Language Teaching (TBLT). Most of his publications on TBLT and English language teaching were oriented towards the development of a researched-pedagogy. An overarching goal of his research is to promote positive educational practices and experience exchange among researchers, teachers, and the like.



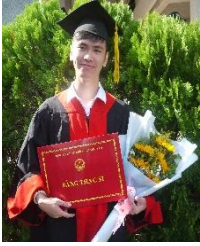
Thuy T. Pham is a lecturer at Nam Can Tho University, where she primarily teaches courses on language skills, translation, and interpretation. She is currently preparing for her Ph.D. studies, and her research interests focus on teacher professional development.



Tra H. Nguyen teaches French at School of Foreign Languages, Can Tho University, specializing in French as a Foreign Language Didactics. She holds a Master's degree in Language Science from the University of Rouen, France, and a Doctorate in Language Science from the Free University of Brussels, Belgium. Dr. Nguyen's research interests include French language didactics, action research, and linguistics research.



Anh-Thu T. Huynh is an English lecturer with a passion for language and literature. She holds a Master's degree in TESOL from Can Tho University, Vietnam, and has extensive experience teaching English to university students. She is committed to helping her students improve their language proficiency and develop their critical thinking skills.



Thao T. Le is a lecturer at Can Tho University, specializing in language skills courses. He also serves as an editor for Jurnal Komunikasi Pendidikan, an international journal managed by Universitas Veteran Bangun Nusantara. LE's research interests include TESOL, educational policies, and classroom-based studies.

The Attitudes of Chinese College Students Towards Utilizing Blended Learning to Enhance Their English Speaking Skills

Dongying Su

Faculty of Social Sciences and Humanities, Universiti Teknologi Malaysia, Malaysia;
Department of Foreign Languages, Ningxia Medical University, China

Nurhasmiza Sazalli

Faculty of Social Sciences and Humanities, Universiti Teknologi Malaysia, Malaysia

Abstract—This study aimed to investigate the attitudes of Chinese college students toward using a blended learning approach to enhance their English speaking skills. Participants include 105 non-English major students from a regular university in western China. A quantitative analysis was conducted based on the data from a designed questionnaire. The findings identify the majority of students were satisfied with using the blended learning approach during the courses to improve their English-speaking skills. Furthermore, most students showed a preference for using blended learning in future English-speaking learning because of its user-friendliness, flexibility in terms of time and location, access to self-directed learning, and diverse teaching resources. The study further demonstrated the successful and effective implementation of blended learning in English-speaking instruction as part of an educational reform process in a regular university in Western China. The researcher attempted to provide some tips to enhance blended English-speaking learning including diversified instructional designs, increased teacher-student interaction, the active use of spoken English in the classroom, practice opportunities outside of class, and the dissemination of rich oral language learning resources.

Index Terms—blended learning, attitude, English speaking skills, quantitative

I. INTRODUCTION

A. Background of the Study

As an international language, English plays a vital role in the contemporary world, serving as the primary medium of communication in various domains. Notably, it is a compulsory subject at all educational levels in China where it is taught as a foreign language. Despite its perceived difficulty, English continues to attract learners. Among the four key language skills of reading, writing, listening and speaking, it is speaking that is widely regarded as the most crucial in mastering a new language. Criollo-C (2022) emphasizes the significance of speaking skills as being vital to holding a successful conversation (p. 9320). Patel and Jain (2008) assert that language serves essential functions in communication, self-expression, and thinking. Consequently, mastering speaking skills is indicative of language proficiency (p. 158).

However, mastering spoken English poses challenges for learners, especially among college students in China. Research indicates a concerning low proficiency in English oral skills that can be attributed to factors such as lack of motivation, minimal dedication, and a scarcity of language-rich environments outside the classroom (Lü 2017; Lu, 2022). Driven by fear or shyness, learners often prefer independent practice over collaborative activities (Hu et al., 2021). In response to these challenges, current research focuses on reforming English oral teaching methods in universities and employing effective methods to enhance students' speaking skills. In the era of Industry 4.0, there is an increased use of devices like smartphones and laptops among students to access learning platforms and apps, and these devices are beneficial to paving the way for promoting the application of mobile-assisted language learning and facilitating English-speaking activities (Arvanitis, 2016).

With the use of blended learning models for instruction, the role of English teachers in encouraging students to participate in speaking activities becomes more and more important (Sharma, 2010; Zilka et al., 2019). Blended learning, combining traditional and online methods, has gained popularity in English language education with proven improvements in students' speaking proficiency (Ginaya, 2018), and online activities such as WebQuest contribute to enhanced English learning motivation and interest, maximizing language skills (Limbong, 2017).

While mobile-assisted blended learning is increasingly applied to English teaching, its adoption in oral instruction remains limited. Students' attitudes toward blended learning are crucial as they will influence the effectiveness of the method in the learning of English speaking skills. Using a questionnaire survey, this study aims to explore Chinese college students' attitudes toward using blended learning to enhance their English speaking skills.

B. *Statement of the Problem*

Though it is most often used in the developed countries of Britain and America, English has become the world's lingua franca in recent decades. Still, by improving their English skills, Chinese students will be able to better understand and learn from advanced research results in developed countries, helping the new generation of Chinese students broaden their horizons and enrich their knowledge. More specifically, it is the younger generation that needs to familiarize themselves with the knowledge available to them through English (Mohamed, 2021).

At present, there have been some foreign research results on students' attitudes toward learning English as a Foreign Language (EFL). For example, someone found that students had negative attitudes toward English learning. Moreover, research on attitudes toward English learning is quite abundant; however, most of that research regarded the attitudes of learners as one of the influencing factors of second language learning (Mohamed, 2021). Nevertheless, the emphasis on this issue has been relatively limited. Furthermore, those studies seldom focused solely on the attitudes toward English speaking; rather, they focused on English learning as a whole. Today, however, blended learning has become more widely used in English classes, thus the attitudes toward its use in English-speaking learning have also become significant.

With all of this in mind, the focus of this study is to examine and identify the factors that influence college students' attitudes toward blended learning in English as a Foreign Language learning. Because researchers believe that studying these factors can prepare students for different situations when learning English, this, in turn, will help them achieve higher levels in various areas of study. However, to achieve this goal, English language students should have a positive attitude toward learning.

It is generally accepted that students' attitudes toward foreign languages are an important indicator of success in foreign languages. In the context of English as a Foreign Language, students who view learning English as a positive and rewarding experience are less likely to suffer from foreign language anxiety. According to Gardner, Lambert, and Burstal (Stern, 1987), there is a positive relationship between learning outcomes and attitudes toward learning a second or foreign language. Moreover, attitudes arise from the values we place on objects or ideas. As Wright said, "Values are the basis of our attitudes" (Terenzini, 1987); that is, our negative or positive attitudes depend on our values. In his opinion, if a student believes in the importance of mastering a second or foreign language and behaves accordingly, it shows that he/she values learning the language and has a positive attitude toward it.

On the other hand, if a student does not believe in the importance of mastering a second or foreign language and behaves accordingly, it indicates that he/she does not value learning the language and has a negative attitude toward it. An example of this is a study conducted to investigate the factors that influence 10th-grade students' attitudes toward learning English as a Foreign Language at Debre Marcos Government Comprehensive High School, East Gojam District, Amhara Region, Ethiopia. The researcher believed pupils at the school seemed to have attitude problems and were less successful at learning English as a Foreign Language. Since the researcher had also studied at this school for seven years (grades 4-10), the students' haphazard approach to continuous assessment tasks and their excuses for not completing assignments seemed to be a problem that needed researching. Furthermore, most students did not seem to value the opportunity to practice English in school. Instead, they seemed to prefer their native language (Amharic), even in English classes. Given the steady decline in their Year 10 final results both nationally and regionally in the years leading up to the research, issues with learners' attitudes toward the English language may have been to blame.

In short, the lack of willingness or apparent attitudinal problems among 10th-grade Debre Marcos Comprehensive High School students to learn English may be responsible for the lack of critical English skills and achievement. Therefore, the researchers aimed to find out the factors that influence students' attitudes toward learning English as a Foreign Language and tried to propose some effective and practical solutions to the problem of students' negative attitudes toward learning English.

C. *Research Question*

The study was proposed to answer the following research question:

1. What are Chinese college students' attitudes toward using blended learning to enhance English speaking skills?
2. Is there a relationship between students' attitudes towards blended learning and their English speaking skills?

II. LITERATURE REVIEW

A. *Attitude*

Attitude is derived from social psychology; it is a subjective or mental preparation for action. The word originated in the 1660s from the Italian word "attitudine," meaning disposition, posture, aptness, and promptitude, and is derived from the late Latin "aptitudinem" and "aptitude" and the French "attitude" (Gelisi, 2007). According to philosophers Herbert Spencer and Alexander Bain, attitude refers to the inner stage of readiness for action (Aiken, 2002). What is more, attitude is a term widely used in academia. Positive attitudes toward language, culture, and the absorption of a foreign language contribute significantly to success in foreign language learning. A positive attitude can motivate students to interact with native speakers, thereby increasing the amount of language input learners receive. It is also

prone to encourage students to actively adopt different learning strategies to facilitate the development of their language learning skills. Positive attitudes encourage learners to make greater overall effort and often lead to greater achievements in both overall language proficiency and proficiency in specific language skills (such as listening, speaking, reading, and writing). It also helps students maintain their language skills after the regular courses and may even help motivate them to participate in various English-related activities in their free time. Conversely, negative language attitudes such as being shy to speak in the target language or being lazy when practicing can hinder a student's success in learning English. Therefore, as can be seen, both positive and negative attitudes can have a significant impact on language learning success.

Attitude is considered to be one of the factors affecting language acquisition, and researchers have confirmed the impact of attitudes on English learning through scientific research. There are some important aspects of learning about attitudes, and investigating students' attitudes is an effective way for language teachers, educational planners, curriculum designers, and researchers to better understand language teaching and learning (Noursi, 2013).

A review of the literature found that some studies only examined speaking attitudes worldwide (Üzüm, 2007; Babayigit, 2019). Furthermore, there have also been studies that jointly examined speaking postures, anxieties, and skills associated with EFL (Karagöl & Başbay, 2018; Gursoy et al., 2019) which have verified the relationship among them. Similarly, as another psychological factor, the fact that attitude influences English speaking skills, has not been emphasized as much as other factors have. Additionally, there has been little research on students' speaking attitudes and how they were measured. Furthermore, though the emerging approach of blended learning has been applied in actual English teaching, research on the attitudes toward blended learning has not been widely conducted. Thus, there is a gap which invites further study. As a result, the current study aims to fill in this research gap through the investigation of the attitudes toward the use of blended learning in English-speaking learning. It also attempts to shed some light on understanding college students' attitudes toward speaking English. Attitude is an individual's evaluation and behavioral tendency toward something or a specific situation (Omokhua, 2022). Attitude is the tendency to form a relatively stable psychological response to a specific situation (Chen, 2021). Based on the above definitions, the researcher concluded that foreign researchers define attitudes from the perspective of psychology while domestic researchers define attitudes from the perspective of human behavior tendencies.

To the best of the researcher's knowledge, there have not been any studies conducted to observe the attitudes of Chinese college students toward the use of blended learning to improve their English speaking skills. The present study was motivated by academic curiosity and a desire to understand the responses and reactions of Chinese college students towards the use of blended learning to improve English speaking skills.

B. Blended Learning

Strictly speaking, blended learning is not a new concept, and the idea has been discussed for many years. Thus, various definitions of blended learning have come about. Blended learning encompasses four distinct concepts: 1.) achieving educational goals by combining multiple online technologies; 2.) combining multiple instructional theories; 3.) integrating any form of instructional technology with individual teacher instruction; and 4.) combining instructional technology with practical work tasks (Driscoll, 2002). Blended learning is also used to describe learning that combines various event-based activities, including face-to-face courses, real-time e-learning, and self-paced learning (Bonk & Graham, 2006). Currently, academia generally considers blended learning as a combination of face-to-face learning and online learning (Singh, 2021).

In China, the concept of blended learning was introduced in 2003 and was first formally proposed by He Kekang at the 7th Global Chinese Computer Education Application Conference. He pointed out that blended learning was the combination of traditional face-to-face teaching and modern online learning.

In teaching practice, it is necessary to fully mobilize the initiative of students and emphasize the role of students in the learning process. At the same time, teachers should be the leaders, organizers, and observers of their classes (He, 2004). Since 2003, there have been profound changes in the ideology of the domestic educational technology field, and many educational researchers have seized this opportunity to reform their teaching practices.

In higher education, Guo (2018) integrated the "mobile phone live broadcast" classroom into university classrooms and adopted a hybrid teaching model to build a mobile learning community (p. 53). This model is also widely used in China's educational system, and some scholars have focused on the application of micro-classes and offline classes. Sahni (2019) surveyed more than 600 college students through a questionnaire on blended learning and the behavior of teachers while teaching and explored the influence of the blended teaching model on student involvement (p. 12).

Based on previous studies, it can be found that many blended learning researchers in China have focused on various topics in different fields to develop students' professional skills. Many related studies have been conducted by drawing lessons from foreign theories and combining them with the specific academic conditions of China.

In the end, it can be said that blended learning offers numerous advantages to teachers and learners, and overcomes time and space constraints. Learning activities can take place whenever and wherever learners need and want to learn. However, few studies have applied blended learning to college English learning, especially for college students in Western China. Therefore, this study intends to focus on exploring Chinese college students' attitudes toward using blended learning to enhance their English speaking skills.

In this study, to facilitate teachers gaining easy access and use of mobile apps, Rain Classroom was developed based

on Microsoft PowerPoint and WeChat, two apps most widely used by Chinese teachers on computers and mobile phones, respectively. Rain Classroom consists of three basic elements: a computer terminal, a mobile terminal, and a central server. On the computer side, teachers can download the Rain Classroom plug-in and install it in their PowerPoint for lesson preparation. On the mobile side, teachers and students can subscribe to the Rain Classroom service account through WeChat to interact freely. Central servers are used to store, process, and manipulate data for better analysis and decision-making. In this study, the researcher used the Rain Classroom platform to support English-speaking learning.

C. *English Speaking Skills*

Speaking is the ability to express opinions, thoughts, facts, and emotions verbally, enabling communication with others, animals, and even oneself. According to Nunan (2003), speaking is a productive oral skill involving the construction of systematic verbal expressions to convey meaning (p. 591). In a slightly different perspective, Bygate (2009) noted that “speaking is an interactive process involving the production, reception, and processing of information to construct meaning (p. 415).” In speaking, students learn how to organize ideas, structure sentences, and express language orally with clear pronunciation and comprehensible language, considering the context in which they are communicating.

Speaking ability has played a crucial role in the history of English language training. As stated by Bygate (2001), “Only in the past two decades has it started to develop as an area of education, learning, and assessment in its own right, seldom focused on the creation of spoken discourse (p. 34).” Today, English is widely used in many countries as an official language or the primary means of international communication more than any other language. Furthermore, English speaking has become a gateway in the contemporary world, facilitating better communication, trade, and academic development.

Access to spoken English or English-speaking skills helps learners convey their opinions, ideas, feelings and thoughts to others, receive information, and solve problems. The expansion of institutions offering spoken English courses reflects the increasing demand for English-speaking abilities in the nation. In countries where English is recognized as a second language, individuals are considered highly educated if they can speak English correctly as it is essential to master English speaking skills for further studies and technical research. Such individuals are offered various professional opportunities and can choose to pursue a career in their own country or elsewhere. Undoubtedly, opportunities are limitless for those who can speak English fluently.

In recent years, the education sectors in China have placed significant emphasis on training and improving college students’ oral abilities. In 2007, the Ministry of Education formulated the “College English Curriculum Requirements,” stating that the goal of college English teaching is to cultivate students’ comprehensive English abilities, especially in listening and speaking. It enables them to use English appropriately and effectively in learning, working, and social interaction, enhancing their autonomous learning ability and improving overall cultural competence to meet the needs of China’s social development and international exchanges. Universities have taken measures to strengthen oral English teaching, including the introduction of foreign teacher resources and the establishment of oral courses and have achieved positive results. Theoretical and empirical research in this area has also made significant progress.

However, the aim of learning English for many students is to pass various written tests which mostly focus on reading, listening, and writing. Thus, most of them seldom take the initiative to learn English, and their attitudes toward learning English are more negative. In this way, the skill of speaking has been ignored while learning English and effective communication in the language has been a challenge for most students. Moreover, English plays vital roles not only in academia but also in every aspect of life where it can be a useful skill. As a result, it is necessary to learn to speak English in real-life situations rather than merely knowing how to apply it on paper and classroom examinations. Therefore, teachers and students should prioritize the teaching and learning of spoken English.

Despite significant progress in college English teaching in China in recent years, teaching English speaking has consistently been identified as the weakest link to the mastery of English. College students’ English speaking and communication skills remain unsatisfactory. Often characterized by jokes about “dumb English” or “Chinglish”, the current English teaching situation is bleak. Issues, such as hesitancy to speak and difficulty in expressing oneself still bother most English learners. Moreover, oral communication ability continues to limit students’ overall English proficiency. In this study, the researcher will conduct a survey to investigate Chinese students’ attitudes toward using blended learning to enhance their English-speaking skills.

III. RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

This study will use quantitative descriptive methods which are similar to other quantitative research methods but are the least theoretical of all quantitative methods because they do not generate any theories (Lambert & Lambert, 2012). Quantitative descriptive methods are relatively new, and researchers are divided on their use due to some controversies. However, this approach is considered important in certain fields of study such as the social sciences where the goal is to describe phenomena rather than study them. Overall, this approach does not violate the general ideas of quantitative research, so it should be adapted to its unique research context and treated like other quantitative research methods (Lambert & Lambert, 2012).

Questionnaire surveys are one of the most common methods of collecting data on the attitudes and opinions of large numbers of participants. They have been used to investigate various issues in second language studies. Questionnaires allow researchers to gather information from participants that is not usually available from production data alone. One of the main advantages of using a questionnaire is that they are not only economical and practical, but in many cases, they can provide longitudinal information on learners in a short period of time. Questionnaires can also gather comparable information from multiple respondents. Additionally, they can be administered in a variety of formats, such as email, phone calls, mailed forms, and in person, allowing researchers greater flexibility in data collection.

This research used a questionnaire to collect data on Chinese college students' attitudes toward using a blended learning model to improve their English language skills. The questionnaire method is preferred because: 1.) the method is suitable for empirical research; 2.) the data collected by this method are easily quantified; 3.) the method allows sufficient time for the participants to provide accurate and correct answers; 4.), and this approach is cost-effective and time-saving.

The research questionnaire was created based on a previous study by Hiep (2022) and modified for this study. It comprises 17 items, with each item having 5 options (5 = strongly agree, 4 = agree, 3 = neutral, 2 = disagree, 1 = strongly disagree). When designing the questionnaire, special attention was paid to the standard and quality of the questions, as well as the reliability, clarity, practicality, and manageability of the instrument (Al Mamun et al., 2012).

This research is based on descriptive case studies that provide a comprehensive and contextualized understanding of a particular phenomenon. Descriptive case studies describe real phenomena and the context in which they occur. This research strategy is chosen for this study because it can depict and reflect the actual attitudes toward blended learning in the context of English as a Foreign Language (ESL) which is beneficial for the researcher to analyze the data.

IV. PARTICIPANTS

Convenience sampling (also known as Haphazard Sampling or Accidental Sampling) is a type of nonprobability or nonrandom sampling where members of the target population meet certain practical criteria such as easy accessibility, geographical proximity, availability at a given time, or the willingness to participate are included for the purpose of the study (Dörnyei Z., 2007). Convenience sampling is affordable and easy, and the subjects are readily available. Therefore, the researcher will use convenience sampling to choose student participants.

The researcher, a teacher at the China Yinchuan University of Energy, is responsible for teaching English to non-English majors. Therefore, it's convenient to recruit the students in this university as the research sample. A total of 105 students from four non-English major classes were enrolled at China Yinchuan University of Energy in September 2022, and they voluntarily participated in this experiment through registration. All of them were of similar age which ranged from 18 to 20 years at the time of the study. In addition, they were homogeneous regarding age, sex, ethnicity, mother tongue, exposure to English, and educational and cultural background.

V. RESEARCH INSTRUMENTS

The research is concerned with investigating students' attitudes toward utilizing blended learning to enhance English speaking skills. Therefore, all 105 students were asked to agree or disagree with certain statements on the questionnaire. The questionnaire used in this study was designed based on the questionnaire related to student attitudes developed by Nguyen (2022) with a Likert scale of 5 where the scores ranged from 0 to 5: strongly disagree (1), disagree (2), neutral (3), and agree (4), Couldn't agree more (5).

Furthermore, the questionnaire contained four parts: Part 1 displayed the demographic profile of the respondents, including gender, age, and profession. Part 2 contained six items covering mobile technology competencies and skills related to blended learning and activities. Part 3 contained ten items covering general attitudes toward improving English proficiency using blended learning with integrated mobile applications. Finally, Part 4 contained one item which was one sample test of oral English to detect the current English-speaking proficiency of the students. In order to ensure relative authority and authenticity, the oral questions from the College English Test-Four (CET-SET 4) were selected for testing including self-introduction, read-aloud, question-and-answer, and individual presentation. When answering the questions, students have to press the record button to record the whole answer. Students' proficiency in spoken English is graded by the researchers based on the students' answers, in line with the official standard for the assessment of CET-SET 4. Additionally, the total score for speaking was 20 points.

VI. DATA ANALYSIS

A Chinese version of the questionnaire was created on Questionnaire Star (a Chinese online questionnaire creation platform) and then distributed to the students by the researcher. Participants were requested to complete the questionnaire carefully. In April 2023, the quantitative data from the questionnaire was collected and analyzed. Fuzzy classification was adopted to recognize the attitudes of Chinese college students toward using blended learning to improve their English-speaking skills. Fuzzy methods use a series of values (optimistic, medium, and pessimistic) known as "fuzzy numbers" which also represent the highest, middle, and lowest values of the range (Phani, 2020).

A. Determine the Weighting Value per Questions

Due to the indicator explanatory ability perhaps being different, this paper determined its impacting grade initially by the entropy method. When the discrepancy between assessing objectives on the value of an indicator is high, the entropy of the indicator is small (Sinniah, 2021; Shen et al., 2018).

(a). Normalization of All Indicators

$$r_{ij} = \frac{x_{ij} - \text{Min}(x_{ij})}{\text{Max}(x_{ij}) - \text{Min}(x_{ij})} \quad (1)$$

This equation is used to normalize positive indicators where a larger value of indicator represents better performance. The variable is the original value of the indicator i for sample j and is the normalized value of the variable. The expressions respectively denote the maximum and minimum original values of indicator j .

(b). Entropy Value per Indicator

$$H_i = -k \sum_{j=1}^m f_{ij} \ln f_{ij} \quad (2)$$

Where: is the entropy value of the indicator, is number of road, and is calculated from the equation below:

$$f_{ij} = \frac{r_{ij}}{\sum_{j=1}^m r_{ij}}$$

$$K = \frac{1}{\ln m} \quad (3)$$

(c). Weighting Value per Indicator

$$w_{ij} = \frac{1 - H_{ij}}{n - \sum_{i=1}^n H_{ij}} \quad (4)$$

Where: w_{ij} is the weighting value per indicator

As shown in the results below, using the entropy method, this study computed sixteen questions to obtain the weighting value:

TABLE 1 THE WEIGHTING VALUE PER QUESTION			
Question	Weighting Value	Question	Weighting Value
A1	0.0716	A9	0.0511
A2	0.0679	A10	0.0558
A3	0.064	A11	0.0705
A4	0.0683	A12	0.055
A5	0.0567	A13	0.0512
A6	0.0717	A14	0.0583
A7	0.0553	A15	0.0535
A8	0.0691	A16	0.08

B. Fuzzy Classification

C. Build Factors Set

$$U = \{U_1, U_2, \dots, U_m\} \quad (6)$$

Where: U is per questions

D. Build the Matrix

E. Build Factors Set

Build the matrix depending on the factors and comments set.

$$R = \begin{bmatrix} r_{11} & \cdots & r_{1n} \\ r_{21} & \cdots & r_{2n} \\ \vdots & \vdots & \vdots \\ r_{m1} & \cdots & r_{mn} \end{bmatrix} = (r_{ij})_{m \times n}, \sum_{j=1}^n r_{ij} = 1 \quad (8)$$

Where: r_{ij} is factor U_i is rated as V_j degree of affiliation

The matrix of this survey as Table 2 shows.

TABLE 2
THE RESULT OF MATRIX

Question	Likert scale					Question	Likert scale				
	1	2	3	4	5		1	2	3	4	5
A1	0.1386	0.4257	0.396	0.0396	0	A9	0.0891	0.4455	0.4455	0.0198	0
A2	0.1287	0.4752	0.3663	0.0297	0	A10	0.099	0.4158	0.4455	0.0396	0
A3	0.1287	0.4455	0.4257	0	0	A11	0.1386	0.4653	0.3762	0.0198	0
A4	0.1089	0.396	0.3663	0.1089	0.0198	A12	0.0891	0.5347	0.3366	0.0396	0
A5	0.0891	0.3168	0.4257	0.1584	0.0099	A13	0.0891	0.4158	0.4653	0.0297	0
A6	0.1287	0.4356	0.3564	0.0792	0	A14	0.1089	0.4356	0.4356	0.0198	0
A7	0.099	0.3267	0.495	0.0792	0	A15	0.0891	0.5149	0.3663	0.0297	0
A8	0.1287	0.4158	0.4158	0.0297	0.0099	A16	0.1683	0.4851	0.3465	0	0

(d) Fuzzy evaluation

According to Fuzzy evaluation, the algorithm is Zadeh, as follow:

$\forall a, b \in [0,1]$, Zadeh algorithm is $(\vee)$ and $(\wedge)$, $a \vee b \Rightarrow \max(a, b)$, $a \wedge b \Rightarrow \min(a, b)$

The holistic level evaluation algorithm as follow:

$$B = \bar{A} \circ R \quad (9)$$

Where: A is the weighting value

According to equation (9), this study got the result of B as below shows:

$$B = (0.0679, 0.0716, 0.0691, 0.0576, 0.0198)$$

Then, normalization the B to obtained the final result, as below shows:

$$B = (0.238, 0.2511, 0.2424, 0.1989, 0.0694)$$

Therefore, we could deduce that the blended learning is positively to English study due to the 0.2511 is the highest value and it means high.

VII. RESULTS

This study collected 105 electronic questionnaires in total. During the filtering, the researchers deleted the questionnaires with a non-Ningxia IP address. Because this research chose college students from the Ningxia Hui Autonomous Region as the research sample, only questionnaires with a Ningxia IP address were regarded as valid. Thus, 101 valid questionnaires were collected as valid.

The gender of this questionnaire is set as Male (1), Female (2), Age: 18 (1), 19 (2), 20 (3), 21 (4), 22 (5), Major: preschool education major (1), big data (2), financial management (3), others (4), Evaluation level: very consistent (1), compliant (2), average (3), not compliant (4), very non-compliant (5).

A. Questionnaire Description Analysis

The majority of respondents (40.46%) were 21 years old. This was followed by 20-year-olds at 15.61% and 19-year-olds at 36.99% (Figure 1). Furthermore, 29 respondents were males between 20 and 21 years of age at 16.76% (Figure 2).

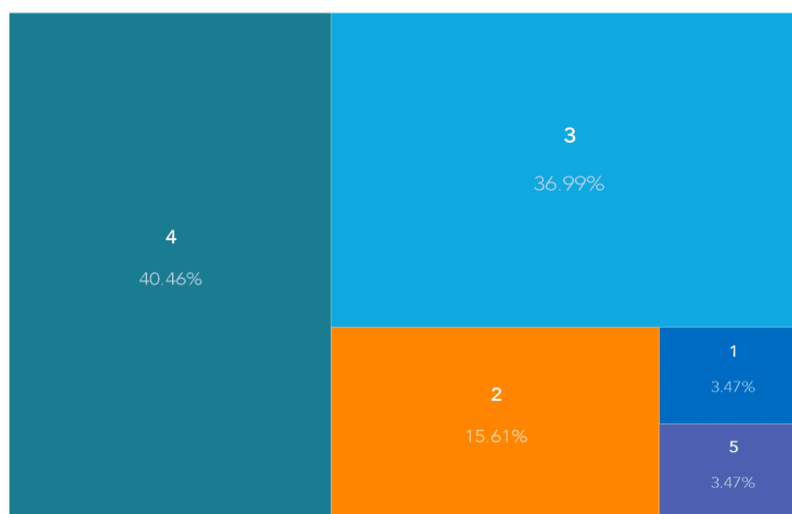


Figure 1. The Distribution of Respondent's Age

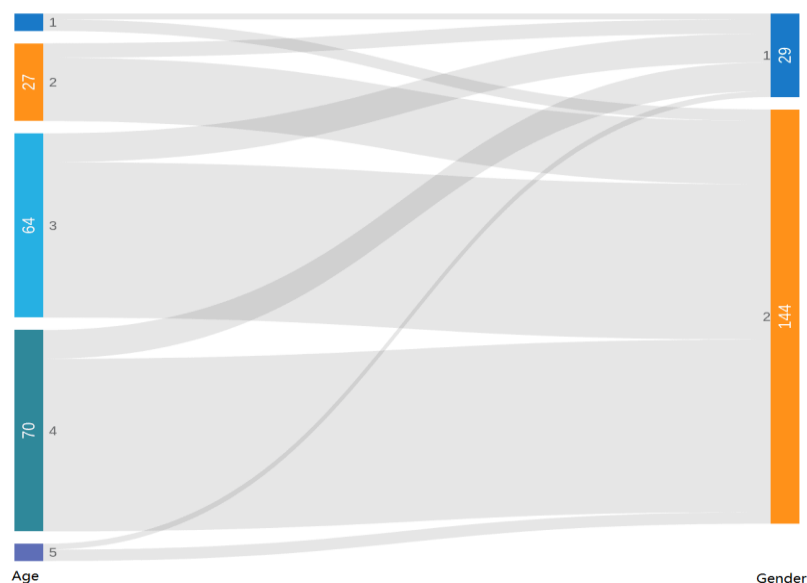


Figure 2. The Characteristics of Respondents' Age and Gender

The statistics of the questionnaire found that the majority of people consider feedback as “Acceptable” (with an evaluation level of 2) and “Normal” (with an evaluation level of 3). Moreover, very few questions obtained “Extremely agree” such as questions A4, A5 and A8 as Table 3 shows below.

TABLE 3
THE RESULT CALCULATION OF QUESTIONNAIRES

Question	Likert scale					Question	Likert scale				
	1	2	3	4	5		1	2	3	4	5
A1	14	43	40	4		A9	9	45	45	2	
A2	13	48	37	3		A10	10	42	45	4	
A3	13	45	43			A11	14	47	38	2	
A4	11	40	37	11	2	A12	9	54	34	4	
A5	9	32	43	16	1	A13	9	42	47	3	
A6	13	44	36	8		A14	11	44	44	2	
A7	10	33	50	8		A15	9	52	37	3	
A8	13	42	42	3	1	A16	17	49	35		

B. Impact Factor Identification

This study first examined the weighting value per question to calculate the feedback. As shown in Table 2, the weighting value was computed with sixteen questions based on the Entropy method. The most significant questions were A6 and A1 due to them being in the top two weighting values. A1 reflects students' strong willingness to use blended learning to enhance their English speaking skills. A6 indicates that the blended learning method has helped students improve their English speaking skills.

C. Attitude Toward Using Blended Learning to Improve English Speaking Skills

This study found that respondents showed a positive attitude toward using blended learning to improve their English speaking skills with the majority choosing “Acceptable” at 0.2511. As a result, it is clear that there is a significant relationship between the attitudes toward blended learning and English speaking proficiency.

TABLE 4
THE CORRELATION BETWEEN THE ATTITUDES AND ENGLISH SPEAKING PROFICIENCY

	Q1	Q2	Q3	Q4	Q5	Q6	Q7	Q8	Q9	Q10	Q11	Q12	Q13	Q14	Q15	Q16
Q1	0.529**	1														
Q2	0.506**	0.614**	1													
Q3	0.344**	0.599**	0.587**	1												
Q4	0.421**	0.448**	0.540**	0.472**	1											
Q5	0.336**	0.277**	0.346**	0.487**	0.333**	1										
Q6	0.304**	0.490**	0.537**	0.673**	0.409**	0.534**	1									
Q7	0.336**	0.496**	0.616**	0.581**	0.410**	0.532**	0.784**	1								
Q8	0.412**	0.580**	0.573**	0.524**	0.418**	0.581**	0.662**	0.773**	1							
Q9	0.368**	0.582**	0.558**	0.647**	0.422**	0.542**	0.730**	0.790**	0.775**	1						
Q10	0.485**	0.513**	0.680**	0.564**	0.537**	0.450**	0.622**	0.710**	0.688**	0.647**	1					
Q11	0.464**	0.493**	0.604**	0.461**	0.325**	0.530**	0.591**	0.643**	0.582**	0.643**	0.791**	1				
Q12	0.412**	0.559**	0.674**	0.585**	0.507**	0.487**	0.658**	0.725**	0.714**	0.779**	0.762**	0.720**	1			
Q13	0.434**	0.616**	0.713**	0.671**	0.500**	0.445**	0.688**	0.714**	0.685**	0.755**	0.759**	0.683**	0.756**	1		
Q14	0.447**	0.496**	0.670**	0.461**	0.434**	0.409**	0.555**	0.647**	0.731**	0.645**	0.700**	0.642**	0.704**	0.707**	1	
Q15	0.550**	0.596**	0.712**	0.489**	0.453**	0.455**	0.503**	0.598**	0.721**	0.646**	0.678**	0.613**	0.667**	0.610**	0.741**	1
Q16	0.503**	0.615**	0.616**	0.555**	0.462**	0.543**	0.646**	0.643**	0.713**	0.730**	0.711**	0.688**	0.737**	0.709**	0.700**	0.719**

**At the 0.01 level (two-tailed), the correlation is significant.

According to Table 4, it can be noticed that there is a significant positive correlation between students' attitudes toward the use of blended learning in learning English-speaking and oral English proficiency. This indicates that the more positive the attitude of non-English majors toward blended learning, the higher their oral English proficiency. This also suggests that English teachers should pay attention to guiding students' positive attitude toward using blended learning for learning English, helping them correctly understand the application of blended learning in oral English learning and improving their oral English level more effectively.

VIII. CONCLUSION

The purpose of this research is to understand the attitudes of Chinese college students toward utilizing blended learning for English-speaking learning and enhancing their English-speaking skills. The study reveals the statistically significant influences on students' attitudes toward blended learning. Moreover, students' attitudes toward the use of blended learning directly impact their English speaking skills. Students with positive attitudes invest more time and effort in learning to speak in English resulting in a noticeable improvement in their speaking skills. Conversely, students with negative attitudes resist oral learning and are unwilling to invest additional time and effort into it which leads to a lack of significant improvement in their speaking proficiency.

The researcher can confidently infer that Chinese college students are enthusiastic about using blended learning methods for English speaking skills given their generally positive attitudes toward blended learning. According to the survey results, blended learning holds significant promise for Chinese higher education and educational institutions with a large number of students being eager to improve their English speaking skills. Professors must devise strategies to transfer students' negative perceptions of blended learning by increasing the availability of mobile platforms or applications, encouraging students to interact with teachers and peers, and utilizing the internet or mobile learning platforms.

IX. LIMITATIONS AND FUTURE STUDIES

Based on the findings of this study, the researchers propose the following recommendations. Firstly, the sample size of this study is relatively small (105 participants). The study would be more reliable if a larger and more diverse population were included. Secondly, this study only explored learners' attitudes toward blended learning for improving English speaking skills. The results would be more persuasive and objective if the study also investigated teachers' perspectives on enhancing English speaking skills through blended learning. Therefore, research in this field should be

conducted to further explore teachers' views on blended learning. Lastly, this study only examined students' attitudes toward using blended learning, and further research should investigate factors such as gender, class level, learning styles, and motivation, to identify which elements may influence students' attitudes toward using blended learning.

REFERENCES

- [1] Aiken, L. (2002). *Attitudes and related psychosocial constructs: Theories, assessment, and research*. Sage.
- [2] Al Mamun, A. A. M., Lombardo, M. J., Shee, C., Lisewski, A. M., Gonzalez, C., Lin, D., ... & Rosenberg, S. M. (2012). Identity and function of a large gene network underlying mutagenic repair of DNA breaks. *Science*, 338(6112), 1344-1348. DOI: 10.1126/science.1226683
- [3] Arvanitis, P., Krystalli, P., & Panagiotidis, P. (2016). Applications for mobile assisted language learning: a current field research. In *INTED2016 Proceedings*, 7645-7651. DOI: 10.21125/inted.2016.0803
- [4] Babayigit, O. (2019). Examining the effect of creative writing activities on reading, writing and language lesson attitudes of elementary school fourth grade students. *European Journal of Educational Research*, 8(1), 213-220.
- [5] Bygate, M. (2001). Effects of task repetition on the structure and control of oral language. In M. Bygate, P. Skehan, & M. Swain (Eds.), *Researching pedagogic tasks: Second language learning, teaching and testing*, 23-48.
- [6] Bygate, M. (2009). Teaching and testing speaking. *The handbook of language teaching*, 412-440.
- [7] Chen, B., Yang, T., Wang, Y., Xiao, L., Xu, C., Shen, Y., ... & Sun, Z. (2021). Nursing students' attitudes toward mobile learning: An integrative review. *International Journal of Nursing Sciences*, 8.4, 477-485.
- [8] Criollo-C, S., Guerrero-Arias, A., Vidal, J., Jaramillo-Alcazar, Á., & Luján-Mora, S. (2022). A Hybrid Methodology to Improve Speaking Skills in English Language Learning Using Mobile Applications. *Applied Sciences*, 12.18, 9311-9333.
- [9] Dányei, Z. (2007). *Research methods in applied linguistics*. Oxford university press.
- [10] Driscoll, M. (2002). Blended learning: Let's get beyond the hype. *E-learning*, 1.4, 1-4.
- [11] Gelişli, Y. (2007). Effects of teachers' attitudes and behavior on students' attitudes, behavior, and academic success in Turkey. *International Journal of Educational Reform*, 16.1, 96-106.
- [12] Ginaya, G., Rejeki, I. N. M., & Astuti, N. N. S. (2018). The effects of blended learning to students' speaking ability: A study of utilizing technology to strengthen the conventional instruction. *International journal of linguistics, literature and culture*, 4.3, 1-14.
- [13] Guo Peiwen. (2018). Social Network Analysis Perspective on Research on Learning Communities of University Teachers. *Invention & Innovation: Vocational Education*, 1, 52-54.
- [14] Gursoy, D., Chi, O. H., Lu, L., & Nunkoo, R. (2019). Consumers acceptance of artificially intelligent (AI) device use in service delivery. *International Journal of Information Management*, 49, 157-169.
- [15] He, K. (2004). The new development of educational technology theory from blending learning. *E-education Research*, 3, 5-6.
- [16] Hofmann, J., Bonk, C. J., & Graham, C. R. (2006). Why Blended learning hasn't (yet) fulfilled its promises. *Handbook of blended learning: Global perspectives, local designs*, 27-40.
- [17] Hu, X., Zhang, X., & McGeown, S. (2021). Foreign language anxiety and achievement: A study of primary school students learning English in China. *Language teaching research*, 23.4, 67-78.
- [18] Karagöl, İ., & Başbay, A. (2018). The relationship among attitude, anxiety and English speaking performance. *Journal of Theoretical Educational Science*, 11.4, 809-821.
- [19] Kumar, P. P., Parida, M., & Sekhar, C. R. (2020). Developing context sensitive planning criteria for transit oriented development (TOD): A fuzzy-group decision approach. *Transportation Research Procedia*, 48.3, 2421-2434.
- [20] Kumar, P. P., Parida, M., & Sekhar, C. R. (2020). Developing context sensitive planning criteria for transit oriented development (TOD): A fuzzy-group decision approach. *Transportation Research Procedia*, 48, 2421-2434. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.trpro.2020.08.278>
- [21] Lambert, V. A., & Lambert, C. E. (2012). Qualitative descriptive research: An acceptable design. *Pacific Rim international journal of nursing research*, 16.4, 255-256.
- [22] Limbong, E. (2017). Designing and Developing Supplemental Technology of PACI Model Materials through Blended Learning Methods. *Celt: A Journal of Culture, English Language Teaching & Literature*, 16.2, 271-304.
- [23] Lu Shan. (2022). A Study on the Application of the FIF Oral Training App in College English Oral Teaching. *Education Observation*, 3.2, 18-23.
- [24] Lü Shuang. (2017). An Empirical Study on the Expansion of College English Oral Learning through the "English Liulishuo" Mobile App. *Journal of Fujian Radio and Television University*, 4.1, 18-21.
- [25] Mohamed, O. I. (2021). The Effectiveness of Internet and Mobile Applications in English Language Learning for Health Sciences' Students in a University in the United Arab Emirates. *Arab World English Journal*, 12.1, 181-197.
- [26] Nguyen, TH. (2022). Non-English-major students' Attitudes toward English Learning and Teaching via Video Conferencing. *International Journal of TESOL & Education*, 2(1), 296-309. <https://doi.org/10.54855/ijte.222118>
- [27] Noursi, O. (2013). Attitude toward learning English: The case of the UAE technological high school. *Educational Research*, 4.1, 21-30.
- [28] Nunan, D. (2003). The impact of English as a global language on educational policies and practices in the Asia-Pacific Region. *TESOL quarterly*, 37.4, 589-613. <https://doi.org/10.2307/3588214>
- [29] Omokhua, P. O. (2022). *Students' attitudes toward teaching and learning of oral English in Nigerian tertiary institutions*. Mountain Top University. <http://localhost:8080/xmlui/handle/123456789/1007>
- [30] Patel, M. F., & Jain, P. M. (2008). *English language teaching*. Sunrise Publishers & Distributors.
- [31] Sahni, J. (2019). Does blended learning enhance student engagement? Evidence from higher education. *Journal of E-learning and Higher Education*, 1-14. <https://ibimapublishing.com/articles/JELHE/2019/121518/>
- [32] Sharma, P. (2010). Blended learning. *ELT journal*, 64.4, 456-458.

- [33] Shen, L., Huang, Z., Wong, S. W., Liao, S., & Lou, Y. (2018). A holistic evaluation of smart city performance in the context of China. *Journal of Cleaner Production*, 200.2, 667-679.
- [34] Singh, J., Steele, K., & Singh, L. (2021). Combining the best of online and face-to-face learning: Hybrid and blended learning approach for COVID-19, post vaccine, & post-pandemic world. *Journal of Educational Technology Systems*, 50.2, 140-171. <https://doi.org/10.1177/00472395211047865>
- [35] Sinniah, G. K., Li, X. Y., & Abdulkarim, S. (2021, May). The framework for assessing public transportation by using competitiveness index indicators. In *IOP Conference Series: Materials Science and Engineering* 1153.1, 012-024).
- [36] Stern, S. J. (Ed.). (1987). *Resistance, rebellion, and consciousness in the Andean peasant world, 18th to 20th centuries*. Univ of Wisconsin Press.
- [37] Tat, H. N. (2022). TOEIC Reading Test: EFL Non-Majors' Attitudes Toward and Perceptions of Reading Comprehension and Reading Test-Taking Strategies. *Eastern Journal of Languages, Linguistics and Literatures*, 3.1, 1-23. <https://doi.org/10.53906/ejll.v3i1.64>
- [38] Terenzini, P. T., & Wright, T. M. (1987). Influences on students' academic growth during four years of college. *Research in higher education*, 26, 161-179.
- [39] Üzüm, B. (2007). *Analysis of Turkish learners' attitudes toward English language and English speaking societies*. Middle East Technical University.
- [40] Zilka, G. C., Rahimi, I. D., & Cohen, R. (2019). Sense of challenge, threat, self-efficacy, and motivation of students learning in virtual and blended courses. *American Journal of Distance Education*, 33(1), 2-15.



Dongying Su, born in Changchun, Jilin, China, on July 11, 1983. Graduated from Northeast Normal University in 2002, obtaining a Bachelor's degree in Applied Linguistics. In 2028, she graduated from North Minzu University, earning a Master's degree. She began pursuing a Ph.D. in Applied Linguistics in Malaysia in 2021.

Since 2008, she has been working as a college English teacher at the Foreign Languages College of Yinchuan Energy Institute in China. During her tenure, she primarily focused on college English, academic English writing, and spoken English courses. She is diligent in her work and has received awards such as Outstanding Teacher.

Nurhasmiza Sazalli is a senior lecturer at the Faculty of Social Sciences and Humanities, Universiti Teknologi Malaysia, Kuala Lumpur. She is specialising in Teaching of English as a Second Language (TESL), mobile assisted language learning, social media, blended learning and innovation in education.

Portrayal of Kazakhstan: Sentiment and Topics in Online Media (2022-2023)

Batagoz Smagulova*

Department of Foreign Languages, L.N. Gumilyov Eurasian National University, Astana, Kazakhstan

Sholpan Zharkynbekova

Department of Theoretical and Applied Linguistics, L.N. Gumilyov Eurasian National University, Astana, Kazakhstan

Abstract—This paper sought to delineate how English media frame Kazakhstan. We employed co-occurrence network and sentiment analysis across 130 newspaper pieces published in 2022 and 2023. The results showed that the news in the UK and Qatar often associated Kazakhstan with Russia and China, and also referred to it as a Muslim country, which until the events of January 2022 was considered a peaceful and quiet country. Among the prevailing terms, there were “Kazakhstan,” “country,” “Tokayev,” “Russia,” and “protest”. Kazakhstan was represented as a country ruled by an influential leader (Tokayev), maintaining diplomatic relations with countries in Europe and Asia. Kazakhstan’s image suffered due to the violent crackdown on protests during the January events and accusations of supporting Russia to circumvent sanctions, which the government denies. However, the January events awakened a wave of foreign media interest in Kazakhstan, which gradually subsided over time. The sentiment analysis unearthed that the peak of positive sentiment coincided with events such as scientific achievements, cultural successes and progressive changes, while the decline was characterized by coverage of problems within the country facing serious challenges, including worker safety issues, political suppression, economic instability and questions about the legitimacy of elections. Resultantly, a rather ambivalent portrayal emerged.

Index Terms—corpus linguistics, media framing, news, world

I. INTRODUCTION

A country’s image as a multifaceted process wherein people shape intricate mental frameworks influenced by both indigenous factors like national branding and exogenous factors such as media (Xing & Jin, 2023). Consequently, the portrayal of a nation on the global stage holds immense significance. Particularly, the impressions framed by global news bring about manifold implications. E.g., they can confront unfavorable stereotypes, spark business prospects, and isolate or unite nations (Thumpakattu, 2021). The advent of digital technology has enabled faster and widespread circulation of news across the masses. This has been made possible through the use of digital communication platforms and social media, which enable news organizations to reach a global audience instantaneously (Jiang et al., 2022).

Over recent years, Kazakhstan, the largest country in Central Asia, has been garnering burgeoning media interest owing to its rather brisk development and its ascending role as a key player in Central Asia economy, politics and culture (Aguirre-Unceta, 2023). News outlets are instrumental in capturing how the globe views Kazakhstan, as media do not just mirror the journalist’s perspective, but also accommodate the reader in part. Furthermore, political, economic, and ideological interests of language users can be explored through the analysis of linguistic expression (Chernjavskaja & Molodychenko, 2017; Zharkynbekova & Smagulova, 2023). Hence, we seek to contribute to the body of research on the international media representation of countries via parsing news items in the Kazakhstan sections of The Guardian (United Kingdom) and Al-Jazeera (Qatar) tabloids spanning 23 months. This choice was motivated by the fact that these two news outlets employ subjective language when covering events in Kazakhstan, e.g., “the country is inching away from its longstanding Russian alliance” (Wintour, 2023).

The investigated timeframe commences in January 2022, when, following the upsurge in liquid gas prices on January 1, 2022 as Kazakhstan switched to the market pricing model, protests blazed up, later known as the January Events or Bloody January, “Qandy Qantar” (kaz. Қаңтар оқиғасы, Қанды Қаңтар, Қаңтар), spreading throughout the country and involving acts of terrorism and vandalism. Although similar case had already taken place in the city of Zhanaozen in 2010, when protesting workers of an oil plant were shot, Qandy Qantar triggered perhaps an unprecedented international media resonance for the entire period of the republic independence. This news hook closed the COVID agenda in the Russian-language media landscape, while halting the era of Kazakhstan as an overlooked spot on the globe to the English-language press.

To the best of our knowledge, this is the first effort to tackle how English media across continents frame Kazakhstan. The portrait of Kazakhstan has been scarcely covered in the reputable academic literature, and unfortunately, almost all of the writings on the Internet are of poor quality. For instance, in the studies by Bączkowska and Khokhlacheva (2019)

* Corresponding Author. Email: smagulova@email.com

and Bączkowska et al. (2020) the focus was narrowed to the capital of Kazakhstan and the authors approached only Russian-language sources from post-Soviet countries, moreover limiting their approach to a qualitative analysis. The study by Kozhakhmetova (2020) was based exclusively on Kazakhstani Russian-language media. The paper by Kuash and Kabylgazina (2023) addressed the image of Kazakhstan 2018-2022, but it relied solely upon a single Chinese newspaper. One exception is the thesis by Gazizov (2017), which, however, involved only US news periodicals for 2015-2017, and, in support of what we denoted earlier, the only prominent topic there was the boxer Gennady Golovkin.

The theoretical framework for this study rested on the active audience theory, suggesting that audiences tend to align with the messages from their preferred media, sidestepping unwanted content; therefore, the meaning of a text is not solely shaped by its creator's preferences but also by how the text is interpreted by its reader (Taylor, 2022).

II. RESEARCH METHOD

To assess Kazakhstan's portrayal in international media, we manually collected all news articles tagged with Kazakhstan, published between January 4, 2022, and November 20, 2023, from *aljazeera.com* and *theguardian.com* in early December 2023. We excluded non-textual content like videos, saving headlines and body text from 130 media outlets into an Excel spreadsheet. We created a list of stop words (primarily function words) and uploaded the dataset to KH Coder software to perform a co-occurrence analysis, combining word frequency and co-occurrence relations based on the Jaccard coefficient. This process helped identify prevalent topics in the corpus and their associations, visualized through co-occurrence networks. Understanding both positive and negative aspects of any country is crucial for forming a balanced and accurate impression. To analyze sentiment, we used the *tidytext* package, which classified the content into negative and positive sentiments.

III. RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

A. Word Frequency

A word frequency analysis with locutions frequently encountered in the Portrayal of Kazakhstan is presented in Figure 1. Among the prevailing terms, there were "Kazakhstan" (803 references) and "country" (538 references), then "Tokayev" (519 references), "Russia" (466 references) and "protest" (429 references).

This paper deals with the image of Kazakhstan, with the word "Kazakhstan" being the key word, hence the most frequent one. Kazakhstan is a country, in which case the word "country" acts as a synonym for the name of the republic, which also increases its chances of appearing in the news text.

The peak of news about Kazakhstan coincided with the January events, followed by a gradual fading of interest in the country. On average, after the gradual decline in interest, there were 1-2 articles about Kazakhstan per month, and there were months when there were no publications at all. In this regard, we believe it is correct to consider frequently occurring words in close connection with the news about the January events.

The frequent occurrence of the surname "Tokayev" may primarily indicate that the Kazakh president's governance, policies and international commitments have attracted media attention. Kassym-Jomart Tokayev's leadership style, decisions and diplomatic commitments have repeatedly become key topics of coverage, especially when they have affected international relations or regional dynamics. Overall, the frequency of the terms "Kazakhstan," "country," and "Tokayev" in the media may signify a global interest in Kazakhstan's political landscape, its role in international affairs and the guiding decisions made by President Tokayev that could potentially affect the country's development trajectory. There is news that Tokayev has never faced mass rallies in the country during his short reign (since 2019), but has done his best to resolve issues peacefully. For example, *"Tokayev tweeted that authorities had taken a decision to lower LPG prices in Mangistau in order to ensure stability in the country"*.

However, following the President's statement to *"act decisively"* against the protesters, the US, UK, Turkey, Belarus and France called on the Kazakh government to peacefully resolve the conflict.

The German government also called for de-escalation, and viewed the government's decision to use force very negatively. Representatives of the United Nations called for the release of all detainees solely for exercising their right to peaceful protest: *"...all those detained solely for exercising their right to peaceful protest"*.

China took a different view, *praising the Kazakhstan government's deadly crackdown on protesters as "highly responsible."* Russia also supported Kazakhstan's position, particularly in the decision to block Internet and mobile communications. This fragment highlights Putin's concern about the role of social media in the protests, suggesting that it can be used to spread misinformation and incite violence: *"Putin also said the events in Kazakhstan showed the dangers of social media and unrestricted internet use"*.

The word "protest" is one of the frequently used words due to the high volume of news about the January events. For example, the question *"What is behind the protests rocking Kazakhstan?"* was often raised. The connection of the word "protest" with the surname of the president is presented in the exemplar fragment: *"Tokayev has accused foreign-trained "terrorist gangs" of driving the unrest"*.

Foreign experts believe that *"the protests will hurt the reputation of the Kazakh government which has always been a fairly stable country"*. They argue that *"Tokayev's move during the protests to sack the country's cabinet did little to ease dissent"*.

There is a limited response of Western countries to the unrest in Kazakhstan, which may reflect their lack of influence in the region: “*The West has so far mainly limited its response to calls for calm*”.

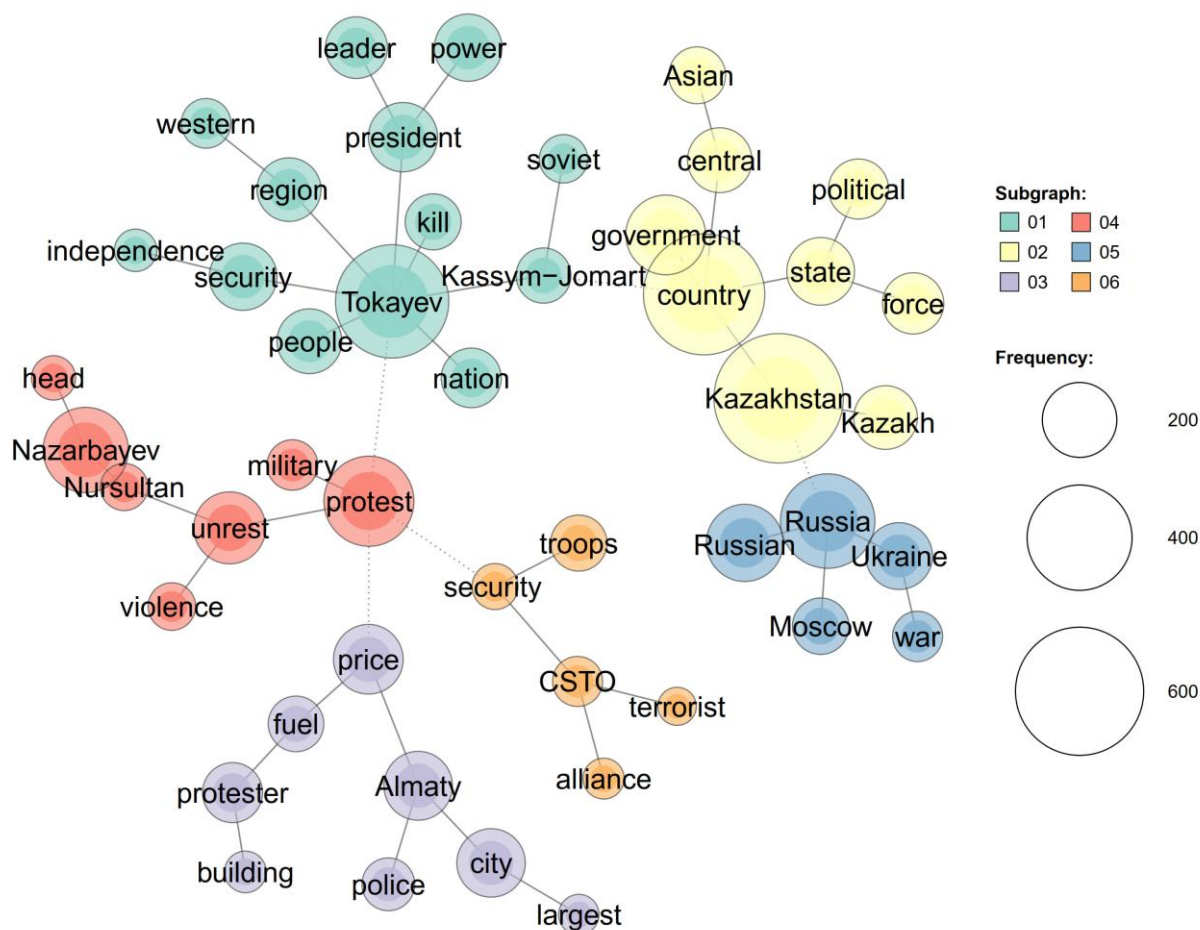


Figure 1. Co-Occurrence Network Analysis of Extracted Words in Portrayal of Kazakhstan

B. Co-Occurrence Network Analysis

According Figure 1, we consider 5 main clusters.

(a). The Word Cluster “Tokayev”

The word cluster “Tokayev” encompasses topics related to the “president” “leader” “power” “Western” “region” “Soviet” “independence” “kill” “people” “nation” and “security”. Here are relevant exemplar fragments from the corpus for each of the topics, along with an explanation of how the cluster is represented in the corpus from linguistic and framing standpoints:

1. President / Leader

The cluster “Tokayev” is linguistically represented as the president and leader of Kazakhstan. From a framing standpoint, the text portrays Tokayev as the central figure in the government’s response to the protests, emphasizing his actions and decisions as the country’s leader. Exemplar fragment: “*Kazakhstan’s President Kassym-Jomart Tokayev has sacked his cabinet and imposed states of emergency in the country’s largest city and an oil-rich western region following mass protests triggered by a rise in fuel price*”.

2. Power

The cluster “Tokayev” is linguistically represented in the context of wielding power and authority. From a framing standpoint, the text depicts Tokayev’s use of power in responding to the protests, highlighting the severity of his actions and the control he exerts over the situation. Exemplar fragment: “*Faced with a popular uprising Kazakhstan’s president Kassym-Jomart Tokayev has responded in hardline fashion. He has ordered a security crackdown called protesters “terrorists” and said those who take to the streets deserve to be wiped out*”.

3. Western / Region / Soviet / Independence

The cluster “Tokayev” is linguistically represented in the context of the western region, the Soviet era, and Kazakhstan’s independence. From a framing standpoint, the text contextualizes Tokayev’s actions and the protests within the specific geographic and historical framework of the western region, the Soviet past, and the country’s independence. Exemplar fragment: *“The protests started in the town of Zhanaozen in the oil-rich western Mangistau region before spreading to other areas”*.

4. Kill / People / Nation / Security:

The cluster “Tokayev” is linguistically represented in the context of security and the nation, with references to his response to the protests and the use of force. From a framing standpoint, the text emphasizes Tokayev’s role in addressing the security implications of the protests and the measures taken to maintain control and order in the country. Exemplar fragments: *“Kazakh President Kassym-Jomart Tokayev has promised to act ‘robustly’ in response to nationwide protests prompted by a sharp rise in fuel prices as he took over as head of the country’s Security Council.”* and *“Tokayev said in an ominous televised address that he had ordered troops to kill demonstrators without warning in the event of further disturbances”*.

It is impossible not to mention the tragedy that happened not so long ago on October 28, when 46 miners died as a result of a fire at the Kostenko coal mine in the Karaganda region. Exemplar fragment: *“Dozens of miners killed in fire inside Kazakhstan coal mine.”* The news about the killing of people affected Kazakhstan’s reputation in a negative way, highlighting domestic problems.

In summary, the word cluster “Tokayev” is represented in the corpus both linguistically, through direct references to the president and leader of Kazakhstan, and from a framing standpoint, by highlighting his use of power, the geographic and historical context of his actions, and the security implications of the protests.

(b). The Word Cluster “Country”

The linguistic representation of the cluster “country” in the corpus is primarily through the use of proper nouns, adjectives, and verbs that describe the political, economic, and social conditions in Kazakhstan. For instance, the corpus uses words such as “authoritarian government,” “free-market economy,” “violent crackdown,” “commercial capital,” “prosperity,” “unrest,” “oil reserves,” “vestiges of the command economy,” “high-handedness,” “tribal identities,” “rights watchdog,” “post-Soviet wealth,” “untapped hydrocarbons,” “economic stagnation,” and “corruption” to describe the country. These words are used to frame the discourse around the challenges faced by the government, the aspirations of the people, and the impact of external factors on the country’s development. The corpus also uses examples and anecdotes to illustrate the points being made, such as the description of Almaty as a mirage of prosperity, the impact of inequality on the protests, and the role of tribal identities in the country’s political life. Overall, the linguistic representation of the cluster “country” in the corpus is characterized by a critical and analytical tone that seeks to provide a nuanced understanding of the complex issues facing Kazakhstan.

The framing representation of the cluster “country” in the corpus is characterized by a critical and analytical perspective on the political, economic, and social dynamics in Kazakhstan. It highlights issues such as corruption, authoritarianism, economic inequality, and the impact of foreign involvement. The framing of the cluster ‘country’ in the corpus emphasizes the challenges faced by the government, the grievances of the people, and the geopolitical implications of the unrest in Kazakhstan.

(c). The Word Cluster “Price”

The word cluster “price” encompasses words such as “price,” “fuel,” “protester,” “building,” “Almaty,” “police,” “city,” and “largest”. The provided corpus contains a detailed account of protests in Kazakhstan triggered by a rise in fuel prices, particularly liquefied petroleum gas (LPG). Here are the relevant exemplar fragments from the corpus for each word in the cluster:

1. Price / Fuel

The protests were sparked by the lifting of price caps on LPG, with demonstrators demanding a reduction in the price of LPG, which is used by many to power their cars, especially in the western region of the country where most of Kazakhstan’s oil reserves are located.

2. Protester

The corpus contains numerous references to the protesters who took to the streets in various cities, including Almaty, demanding lower fuel prices and expressing broader discontent with the government.

3. Building

Government buildings were reportedly taken over by protesters, and the Almaty mayor’s office was set on fire during the protests.

4. Almaty / Largest

The largest city in Kazakhstan, Almaty, was a major center of the protests, with reports of violent clashes and the storming of the airport, unprecedented thousands-strong marches and violent clashes with the police.

5. Police

The police were involved in attempting to disperse the protesters, with reports of tear gas, stun grenades, and even gunfire as the protests escalated.

6. City

The protests took place in various towns and cities, including Almaty, and regional hubs like Aktau on the Caspian Sea coast.

From a linguistic and framing standpoint, the cluster “price” is represented in the corpus as the central issue that sparked widespread public dissent and protests. The rise in fuel prices, particularly LPG, served as a catalyst for the demonstrations, which quickly evolved into a broader expression of discontent with the government, including demands for lower fuel prices, better pay, and working conditions. The protests were characterized by a significant level of public anger and frustration, leading to unprecedented mass gatherings, violent clashes with the police, and the storming of government buildings and the airport. The framing of the cluster “price” in the corpus is one of social unrest, public dissatisfaction, and the government’s struggle to regain control in the face of widespread protests and escalating violence.

(d). The Word Cluster “Protest”

The word “protest” encompasses a cluster of words related to protests, including “military” “unrest” “violence” “Nursultan” “Nazarbayev” and “head”. In the given corpus, the word “protest” is used in various contexts, reflecting different aspects of the phenomenon. Here are some exemplar fragments and their explanations:

1. This fragment highlights the diversity of the protesters, suggesting that there was no unified mass movement: *“It is not that a single group or political party took to the streets”*.

2. This fragment emphasizes the non-violent nature of most protests in Kazakhstan, contrasting with the events that unfolded in 2021: *“Over all these years protests were never violent”*.

3. This fragment illustrates the gradual evolution of the protesters, as they were joined by discontented youth from rural areas: *“Gradually they were joined by groups of marginalized youngsters mainly from the countryside who are dissatisfied with their socioeconomic situation and ever-present corruption”*.

4. This fragment highlights the role of young unemployed people in the protests, who were expressing their frustration with injustice: *“In Almaty they slowly became the main group of protesters – young unemployed people from the regions expressing their frustrations against injustice”*.

5. This fragment questions the validity of the government’s claim that foreign-trained terrorist gangs were responsible for the unrest: *“The president’s statement that there were 2000 fighters sponsored from abroad does not seem true”*.

6. This fragment recounts a rare instance of violence in Kazakhstan’s protest history, which occurred in 2011: *“The only exception were the 2011 Zhanaozen protests where a peaceful demonstration of 1000 oil workers ended with a provocation that led to clashes with the police and the deaths of at least 15 people”*.

7. This fragment explains that the protests were initially triggered by a rise in fuel prices, which led to broader dissatisfaction with the political and economic situation in the country: *“The unrest was sparked when the cost of liquefied petroleum gas almost doubled after the authorities lifted price caps – and soon spiraled”*.

8. This fragment highlights the protesters’ anger towards both the current president and the former president, who has maintained significant influence in the country: *“Protesters are angry with Tokayev and benefactor Nursultan Nazarbayev who ruled Kazakhstan between independence in 1991 and 2019 and has remained powerful behind the scenes”*.

In summary, the word “protest” is used in various contexts in the corpus, reflecting the different aspects of the phenomenon, such as the diversity of protesters, the non-violent nature of most protests, the involvement of marginalized youngsters, and the protesters’ anger towards the current and former presidents.

(e). The Word Cluster “Russia”

The word cluster “Russia” encompasses words related to Russia, including “Russian,” “Ukraine,” “Moscow,” and “war”. Here are some exemplar fragments and their explanations:

1. Russia / Russian

Russia stood out as one of the frequently referenced nations due to its status as the world’s largest country in terms of area. Additionally, it holds significance as a global player and occupies a position as one of the five permanent members of the United Nations Security Council (Cansun & Arik, 2019).

This fragment emphasizes the geographical and demographic proximity between Kazakhstan and Russia, which has implications for their political and economic relations: *“Kazakhstan shares a long border with Russia and has a sizeable ethnic Russian population”*.

In addition, Russia was often in the news regarding the Bloody January events. Exemplar fragments: *“Kazakhstan asks Russian led alliance for help quelling protests”* and *“Russian paratroopers arrive in Kazakhstan as unrest continues.”* This fragment highlights Russia’s military involvement in Kazakhstan, which has been described as a

“peacekeeping” mission by the CSTO: *“Russia has sent troops to its ally Kazakhstan as part of peacekeeping forces deployed by the Moscow-headed Collective Security Treaty Organization (CSTO).”* Russia supported Kazakhstan, expressing the opinion that *“in a friendly country there was an externally inspired attempt to forcibly undermine the security and integrity of the state using trained and organized armed formations”* and sent peacekeeping forces to resolve the conflict.

However, Western media treat this support with some skepticism. This fragment suggests that Russia’s intervention in Kazakhstan is motivated by its economic interests in the country, particularly its natural resources: *“The Russian deployment was a gamble by the Kremlin that rapid military force could secure its interests in the oil and uranium-producing Central Asian nation by swiftly putting down the worst violence in Kazakhstan’s 30 years of independence.”*

This fragment suggests that Russia’s intervention in Kazakhstan may be related to its geopolitical interests in Ukraine and its desire to assert its influence in the region: *“The decision for the CSTO intervention came just as Russia has demanded security talks with the US over Ukraine and amid fears of a Russian intervention there.”*

The EU said Russia’s military intervention had triggered *“memories of situations that should be avoided”* and urged Russia to remember Kazakhstan’s sovereignty.

2. Moscow

This fragment explains that Moscow is the leading member of the Collective Security Treaty Organization (CSTO), a military alliance that includes Kazakhstan and other former Soviet states: *“Moscow leads the CSTO security alliance which includes five other former Soviet states”*.

3. Ukraine / War

Russia was often mentioned in the context of the war with Ukraine and Kazakhstan’s attitude to this event. Kazakhstani officials oppose Russia’s war with Ukraine. Exemplar fragments: *“Not the time to resolve differences through war.”* Amidst the Ukraine conflict, Kazakhstan has navigated quite an equilibrating path. Particularly, Kassym-Jomart Tokayev has notably kept communication lines open not just with Russian President Vladimir Putin but also with counterparts in Ukraine and the West. Offering refuge to Russians escaping mobilization, yet steadfastly declining to acknowledge Ukrainian territories under Russian occupation, Kazakhstan has balanced its approach.

Western media, citing interviews with Kazakh officials report that Kazakhstan is ready to mediate a diplomatic solution to the conflict. However, so far, its proposals have not been met, but *“we will shout to be heard”*. In turn, Kazakhstani politicians call for an understanding of the precariousness and sensitivity of Kazakhstan’s position, since Russia and Kazakhstan are neighbors. For example: *“...continue to be understanding of the precariousness and delicate nature of our position because we are indeed in this neighbourhood”*.

In summary, the word cluster “Russia” is used in various contexts in the corpus, reflecting the different aspects of Russia’s involvement in the political life of Kazakhstan. The fragments illustrate Russia’s geopolitical interests in the region, its military intervention in Kazakhstan, and its economic ties with the country. The media framing of the cluster may reflect different perspectives on Russia’s role in the unrest and war in Ukraine, ranging from concerns about foreign interference to accusations of Russian aggression.

C. Sentiment Analysis

Figure 2 presents the chronological dynamics of the sentiment captured in the pieces on Kazakhstan. Except the first quartile of 2022, when news from Kazakhstan centered almost entirely on the January uprisings, the average tone of the texts was above neutral, with peaks in August 2022 and April-May 2023, and a dip in November 2022. The upsurges in August 2022 and April-May 2023 are likely due to the fact that the news items published that time focused on positive stories, such as the Pope’s visit, the Russian satellite launch, the election of a new world chess champion and the abolition of the death penalty in Kazakhstan, while using words like “successful” and “peaceful resolution” to describe the reported events. The articles dated November 2022 framed Kazakhstan as a country facing major challenges, including worker safety concerns, political suppression, economic instability, and questions about electoral legitimacy, collectively explaining the drop in affect score. The average emotional connotations of this two-year span can be summarized as rather ambivalent.

regional integration within the framework of interstate associations such as the SCO, CICA, CSTO, EAEU and others are considered (kazpravda.kz, 2023). With reference to foreign media, Kazakhstani news reports that European and American business leaders believe that Kasym-Jomart Tokayev's reforms not only have a positive impact on the development of democracy in the country, but also make Kazakhstan even more attractive for investment (time.kz, 2022). However, in popular American newspapers, the image of Kazakhstan is more negative than positive, and it is often mentioned in connection with Russia and other post-Soviet countries (Gazizov, 2017). This contrast might stem from diverse geopolitical perspectives, historical contexts, and the specific angles or events these media outlets choose to cover.

Positive views in Central Asian sources could result from Kazakhstan's active role in regional stability and its efforts to engage on the international stage positively. Meanwhile, the negative slant in some American papers might be influenced by broader geopolitical narratives or specific incidents that link Kazakhstan to issues or concerns related to larger global powers like Russia. For example, Kazakhstan's reputation with European countries has been tarnished by accusations that it is helping Russia evade Western sanctions (Hedlund, 2023).

The discrepancy in portrayal might also reflect differing editorial priorities, audience preferences, or the way in which news is framed to align with the interests and perceptions prevalent in their respective regions.

Overall, the varying representations of Kazakhstan in different media sources could be attributed to a complex interplay of geopolitical interests, historical contexts, editorial choices, and the intended audience perspectives of those media outlets.

IV. LIMITATIONS

Media holds the power to craft and influence politics through the imagery it presents, the discourses it weaves, and its portrayal of individuals and occurrences. While an expectation of objectivity and equilibrium exists, the media actively chooses what to highlight or overlook, determining newsworthiness, prioritizing specific actors or events, and providing contextualization. Consequently, the media considerably influences widespread perceptions of individuals and nations (Cansun & Arik, 2019). The media can create and shape policy through the images they show, the stories they tell, and the way they present actors and events. While the media might be expected to be objective and balanced, they select or ignore news, decide what is newsworthy, prioritize certain actors or events, and contextualize them.

Often, news writers are not on the official staff of the newspaper; such news may be copied from another, less reputable source, with a link. In this case, there may be a spread of fake news. Thus, the image of Kazakhstan in the foreign media may not be objective enough, and information from the media should be treated critically.

V. CONCLUSION

Overall, the news articles published in the sampled sourced delineate quite a heterogeneous portrait of Kazakhstan, highlighting both the country's problems with safety, political freedom, and democracy, while concurrently illuminating positive shifts in a variety of areas, including peace and diplomacy, human rights, and sporting achievements.

The global perception of a nation holds immense significance. Shaping a favorable image can yield economic growth, trade advantages, heightened tourism, and foster political and defense alliances. How a nation is perceived internationally directly influences its cultural confidence, security, and its potential for global cooperation. Crafting a positive national image involves multiple facets and institutions, such as the presidency, legislative and executive branches, judiciary, political parties, and local governance. Moreover, a positive country image significantly impacts international trade, with even a small rise in positive perceptions correlating to increased trade flows. Hence, it's vital for countries to prioritize and actively manage their portrayal on the world stage.

REFERENCES

- [1] Aguirre-Unceta, R. (2023). Kazakhstan: Extractive resources, governance and inclusive development. *Journal of Social and Economic Development*. Advance online publication. <https://doi.org/10.1007/s40847-023-00252-1>
- [2] Bączkowska, A. & Khokhlacheva, Y. (2019). The world's coldest, newest and most remote capital – the perception of Astana by the British and American quality press: a corpus-assisted analysis. *Scripta Neophilologica Posnaniensia*, 19, 9-23. <https://doi.org/10.14746/snp.2019.19.01>
- [3] Bączkowska, A., Gabdrakhmanova, S., & Akhmetova, G. (2020). The representation of the capital of Kazakhstan in Central Asia online news coverage: A corpus-assisted analysis. *Annales Universitatis Paedagogicae Cracoviensis. Studia Linguistica*, (15), 16-31. <https://doi.org/10.24917/20831765.15.1>
- [4] Bakieva, M. (2023, November 1). "Povyshennoe vnimanie k Kazahstanu": pochemu Makron priletel v Astanu? ["Increased attention to Kazakhstan": why did Macron fly to Astana?]. *Liter*. Available at: <https://liter.kz/povyshennoe-vnimanie-k-kazakhstanu-pochemu-makron-priletel-v-astanu-1698834132/> (accessed 9 January 2024).
- [5] Cansun, Ş., & Arik, E. (2019). Uluslararası medyada ülkelerin temsilleri: BBC'de Türkiye örneği. *İnsan ve Toplum Bilimleri Araştırmaları Dergisi*, 8(1), 515-536. <https://doi.org/10.15869/itobiad.511706>
- [6] Chernjanskaja, V. E., & Molodychenko, E. N. (2017). *Rechivo vozdejstvie v politicheskom, reklamnom i internet-diskurse*. [Speech impact in political, advertising and Internet discourse]. Moscow, LLC "Lenand", 160 p. (In Russian). Available at: <https://www.elibrary.ru/item.asp?id=29040005> (accessed 9 January, 2024).

- [7] Gazizov, T. *The Image of the Republic of Kazakhstan in the United States*. Doct. Diss. Miami, 2017. Available at: <https://scholarship.miami.edu/esploro/outputs/graduate/The-Image-of-the-Republic-of/991031447958902976> (accessed 9 January, 2024).
- [8] Hedlund, S. (2023, July 18). Kazakhstan helps Russia evade Western sanctions. *GIS*. Available at: <https://www.gisreportsonline.com/r/kazakhstan-helps-russia-evade-western-sanctions/> (accessed 9 January, 2024).
- [9] ICP Zakon.kz. (2014, June 22). Kazakhstan na mirovoj arene: Glavnyj prioritet – doverie [Kazakhstan on the world stage: The main priority is trust]. *Zakon.kz*. Available at: <https://www.zakon.kz/redaktsiia-zakonkz/4634115-kazakhstan-na-mirovoj-arene-glavnyj.html> (accessed 9 January, 2024).
- [10] IP Kazpravda.kz (2023, December 27). Kazakhstan aktivno vovlechen v reshenie prakticheski vseh mirovyh problem [Kazakhstan is actively involved in solving almost all world problems]. *Kazhastanskaya Pravda*. (In Russian). Available at: <https://kazpravda.kz/n/kazakhstan-aktivno-vovlechen-v-reshenie-prakticheski-vseh-mirovyh-problem/> (accessed 9 January, 2024).
- [11] Jiang, X., Mao, T., & Tian, J. (2022). The application of digital technology in the complex situation of news dissemination from the perspective of new media art. *Computational Intelligence and Neuroscience*, 2022, 1-9. <https://doi.org/10.1155/2022/1685430>
- [12] Kozhakhmetova, A. (2020). Axiological component of text world view (on the samples of Kazakhstani press). *Przegląd Wschodnioeuropejski*, 11(2), 175-189. <https://doi.org/10.31648/PW.6501>
- [13] Kuash R. & Kabylgazina, K. (2023). The image of Kazakhstan in Chinese periodicals (based on the analysis of news content in the newspaper “Zhjen’min’ Zhibao” from 2018 to 2022). *Al-Farabi Kazakh national university. Herald of Journalism*, 68(2), 113-129. (In Russian). <https://doi.org/10.26577/hj.2023.v68.i2.10>
- [14] Nwambam, M., Ngene, A. H., & Gana, H. (2023). Rethinking the social relevance of mass communication in the era of digital communication. *BOHR International Journal of Social Science and Humanities Research*, 2(1), 53-61. <https://doi.org/10.54646/bijsshr.024>
- [15] SPN Time.kz (2022, November 16). Kazakhstan blagodarja Tokaevu stal bolee privlekatel’nym dlja investitsij [Thanks to Tokayev, Kazakhstan has become more attractive for investment]. *Vremja*. (In Russian). Available at: <https://time.kz/news/mirovye-novosti/2022/11/16/kazakhstan-blagodarya-tokaevu-stal-bolee-privlekatelnym-dlya-investitsij> (accessed 9 January 2024).
- [16] Taylor, A. (2022). Audience agency in social performance. *Cultural Sociology*, 16(1), 68-85. <https://doi.org/10.1177/17499755211029604>
- [17] Thumpakattu, J. *The BBC’s Portrayal of India: An Analysis of how the International News Coverage of India Changed in the Digital Era*. Unpublished Doct. thesis. London, 2021. Available at: <https://openaccess.city.ac.uk/id/eprint/27033/> (accessed 9 January, 2024).
- [18] Warjri, S., Pakray, P., Lyngdoh, S. A., & Maji, A. K. (2023, February). Fake news detection using social media data for Khasi language. In *2023 International Conference on Intelligent Systems, Advanced Computing and Communication (ISACC)* (pp. 1-6). IEEE. <https://doi.org/10.1109/ISACC56298.2023.10083518>
- [19] Wintour, P. (2023, January 20). UK MP and peer on Kazakhstan visit denied access to opposition leader. *The Guardian*. Available at: <https://www.theguardian.com/world/2023/jan/20/uk-mp-and-peer-on-kazakhstan-visit-denied-access-to-opposition-leader> (accessed 9 January, 2024).
- [20] Xing, Y., & Jin, C. H. (2023). The impact of cultural values on attitude formation toward cultural products: mediating effects of country image. *Sustainability*, 15(14), 11172. <https://doi.org/10.3390/su151411172>
- [21] Zharkynbekova, S. K., Smagulova, B. G. (2023). Obraz strany v persuzivnom prostranstve diskursa smi [Image of the country in the persuasive space of media discourse]. *Tiltany*, 2, 137-147. (In Russian). <https://doi.org/10.55491/2411-6076-2023-2-137-147>

Batagoz Smagulova holds Master’s degree in Education and is a Ph.D candidate. Her research interests encompass foreign languages and linguistics. ORCID: <https://orcid.org/0000-0002-2560-3583>

Sholpan Zharkynbekova is Professor at the Department of Theoretical and Applied Linguistics, L.N. Gumilyov Eurasian National University. She is a Doctor of Sciences in Philology. Her research areas include (but not limited to) sociolinguistics and comparative linguistics. Particularly, she lectured at the University of Cardinal Stefan Wyszyński (Warsaw, Poland) and the Hanukkah University of Foreign Languages (Seoul, South Korea). ORCID: <https://orcid.org/0000-0002-4160-6215>

A Linguistic Investigation Into False Friends in Arabic and English: The Students of Al-Balqa Applied University as a Model

Tamador Kh. Abu-Snoubar *

Department of English language and literature, Al-Balqa Applied University, Al-Salt, Jordan

Adnan M. Abumahfouz

Department of English language and literature, Al-Balqa Applied University, Al-Salt, Jordan

Yasser I. Shboul

Department of English language and literature, Al-Balqa Applied University, Al-Salt, Jordan

Issam M. Aldowkat

Department of English language and literature, Al-Balqa Applied University, Al-Salt, Jordan

Ahmad Z. Rahahleh

Department of Arabic language and literature, Al-Balqa Applied University, Al-Salt, Jordan

Abstract—The present study investigates the concept of false friends in two genetically unrelated languages: Arabic and English. It provides explanations for the source of possible confusion and misunderstanding caused by false friends in contemporary Arabic and English. It also highlights the nomenclature related to false friends where they can be classified into two categories: absolute false friends and partial false friends. The study explicates how false friendship, as a linguistic phenomenon, can be a real hurdle to communication among the learners and teachers of a certain language. The etymological development of some words is very important to explain how false friendship occurs. Morphologically, some special cases of intralingual morphological false friends are explored in so far as they are related to the concept of false friendship to put them into a certain linguistic framework.

Index Terms—false friends, true cognates, borrowing, semantics, intralingual

I. INTRODUCTION

The linguistic expression “false friends” refers to words that have the same sound or nearly the same sound as other words in another language, yet with utterly, or partially, different meanings. The interlingual behaviour of false friends resembles the intralingual behaviour of homonyms, i.e., homonyms have the same form and sound but different senses within the same language, whereas false friends have the same, or roughly the same, form and sound in two different languages whether they are genetically related or not.

The key difference between false friends in genetically related languages and genetically unrelated language is that false friends in the genetically unrelated languages are written in the target language alphabets. The former, however, do not have to be transliterated because genetically related languages, say, English and German usually have the same alphabets with minor peculiarities. Thus, the assumption that false friends have the same form is to be excluded. False friends in the case of genetically unrelated language share nearly the same sound only.

Understanding false friends, therefore, is of great importance to translators, learners and teachers of any language as it eliminates the chances of misunderstanding and enhances accurate communications and translations. The saying, “Better a clear friend, than a false friend” applies in this context because for a learner of a new language or a translator, being unaware of the meaning of false friends is more misleading than being ignorant of the meaning of unfamiliar words. In the case of false friends, learners and translators usually assume that they have the same meaning or used in the same way as the source language, whereas in the case of the latter, they infer the meaning of those unfamiliar words from the context or consult a dictionary.

Borrowing is core to the phenomenon of false friendship. English has been one of the major loanwords into Arabic. Not surprisingly, when a word is borrowed from a certain language, it is then very hard to anticipate how it develops or which senses it acquires. It is the need of the people of the target language that controls this process. Further, a word

* Corresponding Author

might be used in the same way as the source language or it might take on a sense that is unrelated to the original usage of the word in the source language. The latter is dubbed false friendship.

Etymological speaking, tracing false friends, however, is only very helpful to determine how the use of the word developed diachronically but no one can predict the behaviour of false friends. English and Arabic are in strong contact in many parts of the world, and therefore, false friendships across Arabic and English have been there and they will continue to exist.

Undoubtedly, the researchers did their best to help Arab and English learners of both Arabic and English get deep insight and a better understanding of false friendship to improve the cross-linguistic communication across the two languages simply by leading a scientific discussion of the potential problems that come up from dealing with false friends.

II. METHODS

In this section, the researchers discuss some representative false friends from their own collection of Arabic-English false friends, which are namely related to clothes and happen to occur in academic books adopted in the Jordanian context like “Interchange 1A -fifth edition-”, shop billboards, the Internet, and the daily usage of Jordanian Arabic. Attention is also heeded to the semantic characteristics and the nature of false friends. Besides, using digital photography is very easy and convenient to compile the electronic corpus of signs. The paper makes use of some digital photos of Jordanian shop signs. However, a few of them are to be investigated in this paper. To document the photos, which were collected via mobile cameras, the collected data were stored on a PC.

Due to the lack of research in Arabic on the corpus, classification, and categorization of false friends and true cognates, the researchers follow Beltran’s nomenclature (BELTRÁN, 2006, pp. 36-37). The researchers adopt this taxonomy as an appropriate and simple way of classification in the hope that it facilitates the understanding of false friends in a better way. The paper highlights the phenomenon of false friendship in the Jordanian context only.

III. LITERATURE REVIEW

The term false friends was first introduced by Koessler and Derocquigny in 1928 when they coined the terms “faux amis” /fəʊ ami/. False friends are named miscellaneous since then as false cognates, deceptive demons, deceptive words, false cognates, treacherous twins, belles infidèles (Reid, 1968, p. 280). The term cognates pop up each time false friends are scrutinized features that, “contrary to synonyms or paronyms, false friends are not innate in any language, but they are yielded in it. Thus, they should be considered first from an etymological perspective and second from a psychological one to envisage their formation” (Kiss, 2002, p. 54).

Generally, linguistic borrowers try to keep the same form of the borrowed word; however, “as any linguistic sign, the foreign form tries to meet the requirements of its new system. Consequently, it is unavoidable that the borrowed word undergoes many modifications, including the phonological and morphological changes (Boumali, 2010, p. 12). The existence of cognates, which are “words that have similar meaning and spelling in two or more languages (e.g. colour in English, color in Spanish and couleur in French), helps students’ reading comprehension and contributes to the expansion of their vocabularies” (Mitkov et al., 2007, p. 29). Cognates, unlike false friends, facilitate the learning of a new language and the mission of translators because they have the same meaning and usage in two different languages. Moreover, in a certain language pair, false friends may happen to play a minor role, whereas in another language pair the occurrence of false friends could be of such an extent that special dictionaries of false friends can be compiled (Rufus et al., 2004, p. 797).

Moreover, the students’ capability to differentiate between true cognates and false friends make a considerable contribution to the process of learning another language correctly. Only a few studies exist that attempt to compare the semantics of words in a pair in order to tell cognates from false friends (Rufus et al., 2004, p. 797).

Unlike true cognates which do not pose a communicative problem for learners and teachers of a foreign language as well as translators and linguists, false friends do cause a serious obstacle for these groups of people. Beltran (2006, p. 32) suggests that language learners are sometimes encouraged to make use and take advantage of true cognates, without being warned of the existence of false friends.

Further, false friends, as a linguistic phenomenon, can occur between genetically related languages like Arabic and Hebrew which belong to the Semitic family, German and English which belong to the Indo-European family, etc. For instance, the German word “gift” means “poison”, in English, on the other hand, it is “present”. The Hebrew word לחם /leihim/, which means bread, is pronounced in roughly the same way as the Arabic word لحم /lahim/ which means meat. As a result, it can be a potential source of miscommunication. The ubiquity of such cross-linguistic influence between false cognates necessitates that learners and users of any two languages, whether they are typologically related or not, be aware of the fact that not all words which sound the same in two languages must have the same meaning. A researcher, in this context, states that “false friends are often associated with historically or culturally related languages such as English, Spanish, French, and German” (Carrové, 1998, pp. 47- 48). False friends also abound among totally unrelated languages such as English, Japanese, and Russian. False friends are found in genetically unrelated languages

because some genetically unrelated languages such as Arabic and English have a strong cultural, political, economic, and academic contact.

Furthermore, Beltran (2006, p. 32) argues that concerning the degree of difficulty in learning false friends, this may be determined by two features, that is, if they are false friends or if they are only partially deceptive. The first group comprises those false friends which have an utterly different meaning in both languages, whereas the second group, partial false friends, refers to polysemous words, one of whose meaning is a false friend while the other makes a true cognate word. Table 1 below gives some more examples of false friends across languages:

TABLE 1
EXAMPLES OF FALSE FRIENDS ACROSS LANGUAGES

Word	Language	Meaning
Gift	English	Present
Gift	German	Poison
Gift	Norwegian	Married

IV. RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

In what follows, the researchers put to practice the theoretical framework of false friendship. Only two types of false friends are adopted to clarify this concept: absolute and partial false friends. Other types like occasional, accidental false friends and pseudo - false friends are not addressed here because of their irrelevance to the aim of the study.

A. Absolute False Friends

Veisbergs (1996, p. 628) defines the concept of absolute false friends as pairs of words in the respective languages which are mono-semantic in both or one language and this meaning differs from that of its counterpart. They refer to the case when the two words refer to different things in two languages. Take for instance the Arabic word بلوزة /blu:zeh/ and the English word “blouse” /blaʊz/. Notably, they are pronounced in nearly the same way. In English, “blouse” refers to a certain type of cloth, that is, a shirt worn by women on the upper part of the body, in Arabic to a certain type of cloth that is a knitted piece of clothes with long sleeves, typically made of wool, worn on the upper part of body by both men and women.

The two languages have seemingly made use of the sense potentials in dissimilar ways: whereas English sticks to the literal meaning, Arabic moves along another one. The reason behind this divergence from the original sense that is used in English might be attributed to the needs of the target language users. They happen to have a new form of garment which is a “sweater”; they need to just have a name for it and they chose بلوزة /blu:zeh/. Thus, false friends can be an arbitrary choice of the target language users; and there is no scientific justification for their occurrence.

Etymologically speaking, the term blouse is a French word used in English since 1822. It refers to “*workman's*” or “*peasant's smock*” which is an outer garment worn by shepherds throughout the 18th century. This means that blouse did not use to refer to a light piece of clothes as it is used in English today. On the contrary, it is used to refer to a heavy piece of clothes most likely made of wool. This can give us a clue why it is used in Arabic today to refer to what is present-day English sweater or pullover. Another possibility is that blouse is from Medieval Latin “*pelusia*”, from “*Pelusium*”, a city in Upper Egypt, supposedly a clothing manufacturing center in the Middle Ages. The latter case can also explain why it is used in Arabic in this sense.

The English term sweater itself is an example of false friendship in Arabic. The Arabic word سويتير /swi:tər/, at least in Jordanian Arabic, refers to a piece of outer clothes extending to the waist or hips with sleeves and fastening down the front. This description applies to the English term “jacket”. Unlike Arabic, the clothing word “sweater”, in English, refers a knitted piece of clothes with long sleeves, typically made of wool, worn on the upper part of the body by both men and women. This English word corresponds to the Arabic word بلوزة /blu:zeh/ which also makes a case of false friendship across Arabic and English. It is noteworthy mentioning that sweater is the same thing as the jumper which is more common in British English. To make the problem worse, a cardigan with buttons can also, especially in the US, refer to a sweater. A pullover is a piece of clothes worn over a shirt, usually pulled over the head. All these clothing words, among others, are called بلوزة /blu:zeh/ in Arabic. This is equally a thorny problem for native speakers of Arabic trying to learn English and native speakers of English trying to learn Arabic.

Further, another interesting example of false friends across Arabic and English is the term “sneakers”, British English trainers. It refers to a type of light, comfortable shoe that is suitable for playing sports (Cambridge Online Dictionary). The equivalent of “sneakers” in Arabic is بوت /bət/. Surprisingly, the Arabic term بوت /bət/ itself is a loan word in Arabic from the English term boots and it, “بوت” / bət /, refers to the English sneakers. The Arabic term بوت /bət/ refers to what is known in English as wellies or safety shoes. Etymologically, boots are not related to any kind of sports.

Apart from false friendship, some words with strong phonological resemblance across languages can be a source of interlingual humor. For example, a word with one meaning in a certain language is replaced with a word with the same sound and/or form in the target language but with a different meaning that does not suit the context in question. This accidental or intentional misuse of phonological false friends can trigger jocosity in the proper situation but it neither makes a problem for foreign language users and learners nor does it cause a problem for linguists and translators. For

example, the English word “mat” /ma:t/, which is a piece of cloth placed on a floor for people to wipe their feet on, has the same pronunciation as the Arabic word “مات” /ma:t/ which means “died”. Abumahfouz and Shboul (2018, p. 23) puts forward that this kind of punning is activated at the word level where one word replaces another because they phonologically resemble one another across languages. They believe that this phonological resemblance triggers humor because a word has the same sound as another word in Arabic.

Understandably, these accidental phonological false friends do not belong to the concept of false friendship as a problematic linguistic phenomenon; and they can be used by the users of the two languages to crack jokes. Intralingually, however, semantic phenomena the like of homonymy and polysemy play the same linguistic role when a word with two senses is used in a context with sense X where sense Y is called for.

B. Partial False Friends

Partial false friends are pairs of words in the respective languages where the Language One word is more polysemantic than Language Two word, i.e. in one or several meanings the words are identical but in some meaning different (Veisbergs, 1996, p. 628). Here the situation is more subtle, the possible “trap” - more hidden. Al-Wahy (2009, p. 113) puts forward that since homonymous words do not normally have the same form when translated into another language, a loan translation of such an idiom results in partial false friendship. When translated into another language homonymous words with at least two meanings can share one meaning with the target language and differ in another (or others).

Partial false friends refer to words which can refer to one related sense and another unrelated one. For instance, the word “saloon” in English, which is used interchangeably with “salon”, can mean several things; it can be a “bar” or a “barber’s shop”, among other things. This word is borrowed into Arabic. It is almost restrictedly used to mean “barber’s shop”.

The Arabic word صالون /sa:loun/, which originates from English, is used in Arabic in a different sense that is partially not related to the English usage of the word. The Arabic صالون /sa:loun/ is the present-day English living room. In the early 18th century the word was taken from French “salon”, which was taken from Italian “salone” which is a large hall, which justifies the Arabic use of the term. Furthermore, it would be very confusing to render the Arabic صالون /sa:loun/ into the English “saloon” because they are false friends and do not refer to the same thing in all situations although صالون /sa:loun/ is borrowed from English. The problem arises when a user of English uses the term to mean “bar”. How could a learner or teacher of English deal with it?

More to the point, scrutinizing the word “boutique” shows another type of false friendship which is not related to homonymy. The “boutique” is originally a French word borrowed into Arabic from English. It is used in Jordan, and in many other Arab countries, to denote a “clothing store”. In English, the word refers to a clothing store that sells selected trendy item. It has a very narrow meaning. Most of the people in Jordan are not aware of the fact that the Arabic word بوتيك /bu:ti:k/ has this peculiar meaning. Surprisingly, the researchers themselves are not aware of this meaning until they have started exploring false friendship as a semantic phenomenon. Further, the term بوتيك /bu:ti:k/ is used in Arabic as a superordinate. Originally, however, it is used in English as a hyponym of the term “clothing store”. In Jordan, it suffices to look at shop billboards to find out how the term boutique is used randomly to refer to any clothing store, whether it is for men or women.

Another term that is related to partial false friends is the term kameez. According to Cambridge Online Dictionary, kameez is a type of long shirt worn by people from South Asia, often with a salwar or churidars. Salwar and the Arabic word سروال /sirwa:l/ are true cognates. Confusingly, the term is potentially taught and translated as the Arabic قميص /qami:s/ which is inaccurate but inevitable as well. This type of clothes is very rare in the Arab world. Those who wear the Asian version kameez and salwar usually belong to a certain Islamic school of thought. Thus, the term is very idiosyncratic; it is originally Arabic but it is borrowed into the South Asian languages and took different forms and connotations.

Surprisingly, in English, there is a synonym of the word sweater which does not make a case of false friendship, as we discussed in the absolute false friends’ section, which is the term “jersey”. In Arabic, particularly Jordanian Arabic, the word جرزاية /jurzayyeh/, a kind of knitted cloth, wool or cotton, worn on the upper part of the body with no opening at the front, makes a case of true cognates with the English word jersey. Thus, a word can be a false friend to another word across languages but the synonyms of that word is not necessarily a false friend of it. Jersey and the Arabic word جرزاية are true cognates in one sense of the word jersey, however, in the other senses they are not. Unlike Arabic, the word jersey also means, according to the Cambridge Online Dictionary, a shirt that is worn by a member of a sports team. The Arabic equivalent of this sense is very confusing because in Jordanian Arabic the term كلر /kalər/ or زي /zei:/ is used to refer to the kind of clothes worn on the upper part of the body by a sports team. However, the other senses of this word cannot be addressed here because they are irrelevant and due to the limitation of space.

The American English term sheriff makes a good example of partial false friends. It refers to the official who makes sure that the law is obeyed. This term is usually rendered into Arabic as “شريف” /ʃeri:f/, especially in film subtitles. Sometimes they give as equivalence the term “مدير الشرطة”. The latter, serves the meaning to an extent, whereas the former spoils it and misleads the target language user. The term “sheriff” /ʃer.ɪf/ has nearly the same pronunciation as the Arabic term “شريف” /ʃeri:f/. In Arabic, “الشريف” /ʃeri:f/ is in no way related to police. “الشريف” /ʃeri:f/ is a title given to those who are descendants from the Prophet Muhammad (peace be upon him). By the rules of Islam, they have

the right to be the rulers of the Muslim nation. Al-Hussein Bin Ali, the great grandfather of King Abdullah II of Jordan, was called, “Sherif Mecca” /ʃeri:f meka:/. This title entails two things: the sense of personal honour and the governing position as well. This person is not the “sheriff” of Mecca in the strict sense of the term as it is used in America.

The term sheriff indeed has some senses related to honour titles or honorary positions. For instance, in England and Wales, the term is used to refer to a person who represents the king or queen in a certain county whose duties are restricted to official ceremonies. In Scotland, the term refers to the most important judge of a county. On the other hand, the term makes a case of partial false friendship as regards the sense which is related to police work. In the field of law-keeping and police work, the term sheriff has never been appropriate in Arabic.

Finally, another word which pops up each time partial false friends across English and Arabic are discussed is the term “balloon”. The word balloon is a borrowed word in Arabic. In Arabic, it has an unmarked meaning which is a very thin rubber bag that is filled with air or light gas until it is round, used for decoration or as children’s toys. However, it has another marked meaning which is a very large balloon that is filled with hot air or gas and can carry people in a basket. Usually, Arab learners of English understand that “balloon” with the marked sense as the balloon with the unmarked sense.

C. Interlingual Morphological False Friends

Relevant to the concept of false friendship across Arabic and English is the existence of some problematic lexical items in English. Those words do not have clear-cut boundaries between them within English and they pose a problem for learners of English as well. Such words the like of historic and historical are not usually addressed under any well-established linguistic phenomenon. On the contrary, they are mentioned randomly by teachers and linguists to beware their students of misusing them. Having said that, it is the time that such words are linguistically heeded the appropriate attention.

In English, there are words which have nearly the same morphological form but differ in part of their meaning. In the same way as interlingual false friends, intralingual morphological false friends confuse learners, teachers, translators and linguists. For instance, economic and economical do not belong to a particular linguistic category. In this section, those words are discussed from the false friendship perspective because they share much in common. Morphologically, electric and electrical have the same root but they differ concerning one derivational morpheme which is the “al” which does make a difference between the two words in some contexts.

Generally speaking, although derivational morphemes are always class changing, in those and similar intralingual morphological false friends the additional suffix does not change the class of the word. Both economic and economical are adjectives, both historic and historical are adjectives, and both electric and electrical are also adjectives.

Intralingual morphological false friends as a linguistic phenomenon are not easy to approach because the two false friends can be synonymous in one or more of their senses; in other cases, the two words can have two distinct meanings. It suffices to consult a dictionary for any of the intralingual morphological false friends to see how thorny the relationship between them is. For instance, according to Collins Dictionary, the word “economic” has the following meanings: 1. of or relating to an economy, economics, or finance e.g. economic development, economic theories; 2. (British) capable of being produced, operated, etc. for profit; profitable e.g. the firm is barely economic; 3. concerning or affecting material resources or welfare e.g. economic pests; 4. concerned with or relating to the necessities of life; utilitarian; 5. a variant of economical; 6. (informal) inexpensive; cheap. On the other hand, economical has the following meanings: 1. using the minimum required; not wasteful of time, effort, resources, etc. e.g. an economical car, an economical style; 2. frugal; thrifty e.g. she was economical by nature; 3. a variant of economic (sense 1), economic (sense 2), economic (sense 3), economic (sense 4); 4. (euphemistic) deliberately withholding information (esp. in the phrase, economical with the truth).

The problem surfaces when learners, teachers and translator of Arabic deal with such lexical items. When a learner wants to know the Arabic equivalent of “economic” or “economical”, there is no problem because in Arabic there is only one term referring to the two words and the difference between them remains a matter of context. The Arabic word is “اقتصادي” /ʔiqṭiṣa:di:/. This word refers to anything related to “economy, economics, “finance”, to something that saves energy, and to almost all the meanings jotted down in the dictionary entry of Collins Dictionary. However, idiomatic usages of such terms are usually excluded because the idiomatic use usually deviates from the regular rules. For instance, the idiomatic expression, “He is economical with the truth.” is a euphemistic use of “liar”. This and such examples of idiomatic usages are not natural. They are language-bound because they are metaphoric in the source language.

By and large, when the Arabic term “اقتصادي” /ʔiqṭiṣa:di:/ is used in a certain context and we would like to put it in English the confusion on the side of the language users is most likely to arise. In English, we have two dissimilar words. Does the Arabic word “اقتصادي” /ʔiqṭiṣa:di:/ mean “economic” or “economical” in a case where they are not synonyms? For instance, the Arabic expression “سيارة اقتصادية” /sayyarah ʔiqṭiṣa:di:ah/ cannot be the English expression “An economic car”; it must be “economical car” Thus, teachers and learners of Arabic and English must be careful of these fine differences between those intralinguistic morphological false friends. On the other hand, it would not be correct to render or understand the Arabic expression, “مصطلحات اقتصادية” /muṣṭalaḥat ʔiqṭiṣa:di:ah/ as the English expression “economical concepts”. It must be “economic concepts”. Ostensibly, the meaning of these intralingual false friends is to

a large extent collocational and contextual. An electric car, for instance, cannot be an electrical car, an electric guitar cannot be electrical. Arab learners and teachers of English must mind such collocational differences of false friendship.

V. CONCLUSION

To synopsise, false friends make a potential problem for learners, teachers, translators, and linguists in almost all cross-cultural and cross-linguistic communications. To pave the way for these types of people dealing with two different languages, true and false cognates must be surfaced and given a fairly close linguistic investigation. False friends range from absolute false friends to partial ones in the hope that this typology will help facilitate this semantic phenomenon. At the intralinguistic level of analysis, intralinguistic morphological false friends are not only problematic for native speakers of English but also for learners, teachers, linguists, and translators across Arabic and English. They are one-way false friends, i.e., when we convey their meaning from English to Arabic no problem surface. On the other hand, when we convey the meaning from Arabic into English learners, teachers, linguists, and translators must be careful to the proper collocations. This fairly close investigation of false friendship is expected to be a useful contribution to the field semantics. As regards the meagreness of research and corpus for this study, it is recommended that false friends in other Arabic dialects be explored to enrich this particular linguistically problematic issue.

The limitation of this study is that the number of false friends is very limited. Most of those false friends are related to clothes. Moreover, a very limited number of researches have been conducted on false friends especially across Arabic and English. Hence, it is a kind of data set for further research on this particular linguistic issue.

REFERENCES

- [1] Abumahfouz and Shboul. (2018). Some Aspects of Paronomasia in Arabic Humor: Linguistic Perspective. *Journal of Literature, Languages and Linguistics*, 44(4), 19-25.
- [2] Al-Wahy, A., S. (2009). Idiomatic false friends in English and modern standard Arabic. *Babel*, 55(2), 101-123.
- [3] BELTRÁN, R. C. (2006). Towards a typological classification of false friends: Spanish English. *Resla*, 19, 29-39.
- [4] Boumali, A. (2010). *False Friends: a Problem Encountered in Translation*. MA dissertation. Mentouri University.
- [5] "Cambridge Dictionary." Online at <<https://dictionary.cambridge.org/>> (December 28, 2018).
- [6] "Collins Dictionary." Online at <<http://www.collinsdictionary.com/english-thesaurus>> (January 2, 2019).
- [7] Kiss, M. (2002). Les pièges du vocabulaire bilingue: les faux amis (Traps of bilingual vocabulary: false friends). *Revue d'Études Françaises*, 34(7), 41-55.
- [8] Mitkov et al. (2007). Methods for Extracting and Classifying Pairs of Cognates and False Friends. *Machine Translation*, 21(1), 29-53.
- [9] 'Online Etymology Dictionary.' Online at <<https://www.etymonline.com>> (December 10, 2018).
- [10] Reid, J. T. (1968). 123 deceptive demons. *Hispania*, 31, 280-297.
- [11] Rufus et al. (2004). Friends will be friends – true or false. Lexicographic approaches to the treatment of false friends. In *Proceedings of the 11th EURALEX International Congress*, ed. G Williams and S, Vessier, 797-806. Bretagne, France: Faculté des Lettres et des Sciences Humaines.
- [12] Sabaté-Carrové and Carlos. (1998). False Friends in English-Spanish Translations in Computer Science Literature. *Perspectives*, 6(1), 47-59.
- [13] Veisbergs, A. (1996). False Friends Dictionaries: A Tool for Translators or Learners or Both?, *Euralex -Proceedings*, International congress; 7th, Lexicography: Euralex, 96(2), 627-634.

Tamador Kh. Abu-Snoubar (Corresponding Author) is an Assistant Professor at Al-Balqa Applied University/ Salt Faculty of Humanities/ Department of English Language and Literature. She holds a Ph. D in TEFL and an MA in Comparative Literature. Her major fields of interest are English Literature, Methods Teaching English Literature, Teaching English as a Foreign Language for adults and CALL. She has published several papers in different journals and has 72 citations.

Adnan M. Abumahfouz is an instructor (A) at Al-Balqa Applied University/ Salt Faculty of Humanities/ Department of English Language and Literature. He holds a Master Degree in translation. His major fields of interest are literary translation, translation of the Holy Quran and legal translation. He has published many papers in different journals.

Yasser I. Shboul is an Associate Professor at Al-Balqa Applied University/ Salt Faculty of Humanities/ Department of English Language and Literature. He holds a Ph. D degree in Linguistics. His major fields of interest are Sociolinguistics and Discourse Analysis. He has published a good number of papers in different journals.

Issam M. Aldowkat is an Assistant Professor at Al-Balqa Applied University/ Salt Faculty of Humanities/ Department of English Language and Literature. He holds a Ph. D. Degree in English Literature. His major fields of interest are Literary Criticism, Comparative literature and American Literature. He has published a good number of papers in different journals.

Ahmad Z. Rahahleh is a Full Professor at Al-Balqa Applied University/ Salt Faculty of Humanities/ Department of Arabic Language and Literature. He holds a Ph. D. Degree in Arabic Literature. His major fields of interest are Digital Literature, Literary Criticism, Comparative literature and Modern Arabic Literature. He has published a good number of papers in different journals. He received the Katara award in the field of literary studies in 2019.

The Alignment of Verb *Ada* and Its Existence to Understand the Existential Clause Structure of Balinese

I Wayan Swandana*

Linguistics Program, Faculty of Humanities, Udayana University, Denpasar, Bali, Indonesia

Ketut Artawa

Linguistics Program, Faculty of Humanities, Udayana University, Denpasar, Bali, Indonesia

I Nyoman Udayana

Linguistics Program, Faculty of Humanities, Udayana University, Denpasar, Bali, Indonesia

Ketut Widya Purnawati

Linguistics Program, Faculty of Humanities, Udayana University, Denpasar, Bali, Indonesia

Abstract—An existential clause is a clause that shows a proposition about the existence or an event. This paper aims to describe the structure of existential clauses, the types of existential clauses, and the constraints of noun phrases that fill the existence elements in Balinese. This study used the descriptive qualitative method. The data used are primary data taken from five Balinese language teachers. The Balinese language teachers elicited the data made by the first teacher. Written data from Balinese stories are also used to assist the oral data. The data analysis technique chosen is comparison, omission, and replacement. Some research results are found in this paper. The core structure of Balinese existential clauses is verb *ada* + existence, and the extended structure of Balinese existential clauses is verb *ada* + existence + extension. There are two types of existential clauses in Balinese: bare and extended existential clauses. The definiteness of a noun phrase filling the existence element determines the choice of existential or non-existential clauses. This paper is helpful as a reference for Balinese grammar, which concerns the existential clauses of Balinese.

Index Terms—clause, existential, existence, extension, definiteness

I. INTRODUCTION

A clause is a unit of language consisting of at least subject and predicate elements. Clauses can consist of the subject, predicate, object, complement, and adverbial components, but clauses can also have only subject and predicate elements (Afrianto et al., 2020). The subject as a grammatical function required in a clause can be an overt subject or a null subject. An overt subject is a subject that appears and is realized in a clause. The null subject is a subject that is omitted from the realization of an overt grammatical subject in a clause or sentence (Isurin, 2021). Changes between null and overt subjects are possible in clauses or sentences (Orozco & Hurtado, 2021). The predicate is the essence of a clause which can be filled with verbs or nonverbal (Satyawati et al., 2021). Traditionally semantically predicates demand arguments by applying grammatical functions (Mari & Portner, 2021).

Several types of clauses are categorized according to their parameters. Based on the hierarchy, the clause structure can be divided into a main and subordinate clause (Scholman et al., 2022). The main clause is also known as the matrix clause. The main verb in the matrix clause shows a tense (Kim, 2022). Each clause structure has different variations from other clauses, for example, the definiteness of a subject in a clause (Kalnača et al., 2019).

An existential clause is a clause that states a proposition about the existence or an event. An existential clause aims to express the existence of something (Kalnača et al., 2019). The existential sentence introduces or focuses on a new referent (Zhang, 2019). Existential clause markers can be expressed as lexicon or structure (combined lexicon). For example, the existential clause in Indonesian is marked by the lexicon *ada* 'exist'. Spanish has only one existential marker verb, *haber* (Perpiñán & Soto-Corominas, 2021). The preferred word order for existential constructions is VS, existential verbs most often introduce the existence of something or someone (McAnallen, 2009).

One of the existential clauses analyzed in depth is the English existential clause. Existential clauses in English have a structural construction there + be + indefinite noun phrase (+place/time adverbial) (Łyda, 2021). In English, the place and time adverbial are optional elements in constructing an existential clause. Predicates of existential clauses in English are interpreted as properties of the description of an entity (Bassaganyas-Bars & McNally, 2020).

* Corresponding Author

Universally every language has certain similarities with other languages. As an assumption, every language has an existential clause because every language needs to convey the meaning of existence or event. However, each language also has characteristics that distinguish one language's characteristics from another. As an assumption, the existential clause of each language has its uniqueness.

Existential clauses in several languages have indeed been studied in depth. However, as far as the author's observation goes, the existential clauses of the Balinese have never been examined. Existential clauses are essential in introducing new entities in a clause. As a topic that has not been researched, the issue of Balinese existential clauses provides several gaps for analysis both at the syntactic, semantic, and pragmatic levels. The gaps that need to be examined in Balinese existential clauses include the structure of existential clauses, types of existential clauses, and constraints of noun phrases that occupy existence elements.

Based on what is not known about existential clauses in Balinese, research on existential clauses in Balinese is vital to do. This research aims to understand Balinese existential clauses, which include structures, types, and constraints of noun phrases that occupy existence elements. This research is expected to produce Balinese existential clause grammar. The grammar that concerns existential clauses is helpful as a language guide for language observers, teachers, students, and the general public. In addition, this research is also beneficial for preserving Balinese as a local language in the territory of the Republic of Indonesia.

II. RESEARCH METHOD

A qualitative research design is used in this research (Farghal & Almann, 2022). Qualitative research focuses on sensitivity to research problems, and the methods and analysis can be adapted to suit the specific features of the phenomenon being investigated (O'Connor & Joffe, 2020). This research was conducted in Bali Province, Republic of Indonesia. The location of this research is the author's hometown. The type of data used in this paper is primary data obtained from five informants as Balinese language teachers. They are native Balinese speakers who were born, grew up, and educated on the island of Bali. The selection of the informants as the data source is because of their knowledge in comprehending Balinese grammar. To ensure the acceptability of the data, the first taken data was elicited by the next four Balinese language teachers. This data elicitation aims to optimize data (Alves et al., 2020).

The Balinese language is one of the local languages in Indonesia, which has a speech level. The level of language use can be divided into low and high levels of Balinese. The difference in the choice of the lexicon indicates the difference in these levels. This paper chooses a low level of Balinese, considering that a low level has a broader use than a high level of Balinese.

The data made by the first teacher, which elicited by the next four teachers, are categorized as oral data. In addition, written data sourced from stories in Balinese are also used to support the oral data. Existential clause data in this paper are in the form of main clause structure, extended clause structure, omitted existential clause elements, and canonical clauses compared to existential clauses. The data used in this paper are grouped according to the problem. Two to three pieces of data are presented for each issue discussed in this study.

The descriptive method is used in this study and is supported by deductive and inductive approaches (Kang et al., 2020). Data collected from oral and written data were analyzed using comparison, omission, and replacement techniques. Comparison techniques are used to analyze the structure of existential clauses. The omission technique is used to analyze the types of existential clauses. The replacement technique analyzes the constraints of definiteness between existential and non-existential clauses. Data analysis was conducted using descriptive linguistic theory guidelines by Huddleston and Pullum (2005). The choice of this theory is based on a reasonably comprehensive description of existential clauses that have been implemented in English.

III. RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

The results and discussion in this paper include the structure of existential clauses, the types of existential clauses, and the constraints on the definiteness of noun phrases that function as existence in Balinese existential clauses.

A. The Existential Clause Structure of Balinese

Before entering the structure of existential clauses in Balinese, the following describes a little about the form of existential clauses in English as an initial thought about this writing and, simultaneously, a comparison. In English, the minimum clause construction consists of a subject and predicative element. The subject is one of the grammatical relations required by the core of a predicate (Mhute & Kadenge, 2014). The subject feature usually refers to an entity that does something or is subject to an event. If no entity fills the subject function semantically, the subject element is supplied by a dummy subject as a mandatory element required by English syntax. One type of clause that requires a dummy subject in English is an existential clause. The following is an example of an existential clause in English.

	Subject	be	an indefinite noun phrase
(1)	a. There	is	a god (Huddleston & Pullum, 2005).
	b. There	are	many species of spider (Huddleston & Pullum, 2005).

Existential clauses in English consist of subject + be + indefinite noun phrases (Łyda, 2021). Based on the example clauses in (1) a and b, the subject element filled in by the dummy subject is realized by the lexicon *there*. The

component of be or copula is realized by *is* in clause (1) a and *are* in clause (1) b. The copula which fills the predicative function can be filled with complement elements in the form of noun phrases (Bybee & Thompson, 2021). The copula element indicates the present tense, filled in *is*, *am*, *are*, the past tense, which is filled in *were* and *was*, and the perfect aspect, which is filled in *been*. Like English, copula in another language, Latvian, also shows tense (Kalnača & Lokmane, 2020). A god realizes indefinite noun phrases in clause (1) a and many species of spider in clause (1) b. An indefinite noun phrase after copular is considered an existential construction (Kim, 2022). Clauses (1) a and b are declarative existential clauses with structural components: subject + be + indefinite noun phrase. However, in an interrogative existential clause, the structural arrangement is be + subject + indefinite noun phrase. This means that in the interrogative existential clause, the subject's position is changed as in clauses (2) a and b. The following is an example of an English interrogative existential clause.

- Be Subject indefinite noun phrase
(2) a. Is there a god?
 b. Are there many species of a spider?

When compared to English, the Balinese have a different existential clause structure. If in English an existential clause consists of three components, namely subject + be + indefinite noun phrase, Balinese existential clauses comprised of two components, namely verb *ada* + indefinite noun phrase. I call the entity filled with an indefinite noun phrase as existence. This is because existence is an entity that exists, indicated by the verb *ada* in Balinese. The following is an example of an existential clause in Balinese.

	Verb	Existence	
(3) a.	<i>Ada</i>	<i>anak buduh.</i>	
	Exist	person crazy	
		'There is a crazy person.'	
b.	<i>Ada</i>	<i>maling.</i>	
	Exist	thief	
		'There is a thief.'	
c.	<i>Ada</i>	<i>bulan kepangan.</i>	
	Exist	lunar eclipse	
		'There is a lunar eclipse.'	

The verb *ada* shows Balinese existential clause markers 'exist'. The verb is then followed by an existence filled by the noun phrase category. The numeral conformity bond between verb *ada* and existence is not found in Balinese existential clauses, like in English. This means that the existence of both singular and plural noun phrases always needs verb *ada* in Balinese existential clauses. This paper does not discuss the grammatical function between the verb *ada* and the noun phrase that fills the existence. This is due to a lack of data analysis; whether existence functions as a grammatical subject or a complement to the verb *ada* is a gap that needs to be examined in future research.

Based on the examples of clauses (3) a, b, and c, the core structure of Balinese existential clauses consists of two components: verb *ada* + existence. However, another element, namely an additional element (extension), can provide additional information on the structure of the core existential clause. The following is an example of an existential clause in which the verb *ada* and the existence are complemented by an extension.

	Verb	Existence	Extension	
(4) a.	<i>Ada</i>	<i>anak buduh</i>	<i>di rurung-e.</i>	
	Exist	person crazy	PREP street-DEF	
		'There is a crazy person on the street.'		
b.	<i>Ada</i>	<i>maling di</i>	<i>kelas-e ento.</i>	
	Exist	thief PREP	class-DEF ART	
		'There is a thief in the class.'		
c.	<i>Ada</i>	<i>bulan kepangan</i>	<i>ibi.</i>	
	exist	lunar eclipse	yesterday	
		'There was a lunar eclipse yesterday.'		

A declarative existential clause has the structure verb *ada* + existence + extension. The structure pattern verb *ada* + existence + extension is a declarative existential clause structure. However, in interrogative existential clauses, especially those that require a yes-no answer, the marking occurs on the verb by attaching the suffix {-ke} to the verb *ada*. Here is an example of an interrogative existential clause.

(5) a.	<i>Ada-ke</i>	<i>anak buduh</i>	<i>di rurung-e?</i>	
	exist-suffix	person crazy	PREP street-DEF	
		'Is there any crazy person on the street?'		
b.	<i>Ada-ke</i>	<i>maling di</i>	<i>kelas-e ento?</i>	
	exist-suffix	thief PREP	class-DEF ART	
		'Is there any thief in the class?'		
c.	<i>Ada-ke</i>	<i>bulan kepangan</i>	<i>ibi?</i>	
	exist-suffix	lunar eclipse	yesterday	

‘Was there any lunar eclipse yesterday?’

B. The Types of Balinese Existential Clauses

Based on its structure, Balinese language existential clauses can be divided into two, namely: bare existential clauses and extended existential clauses. This classification is based on whether an existential clause has additional elements or not outside of the core structure, namely verb *ada* + existence.

(a). Bare Existential Clauses

An empty existential clause is an existential clause that does not have an equivalent canonical structure in the form of a non-existential clause. Any other form of construction cannot replace this type of existential clause. The following is an example of the bare existential clause in Balinese.

- (6) a. *Ada linuh.*
Exist earthquake
‘There is an earthquake.’
b. *Ada banjir.*
Exist flood
‘There is flood.’
c. *Ada tatit.*
Exist thunder
‘There is thunder.’

Existential clauses in clauses (6) a, b, and c do not have structural equivalents in non-existential clauses. This is because this existential clause only consists of core elements in the form of verb *ada* and existence. If the existential marker is omitted, the clause is only an existence filled with noun phrases, and the construction becomes ungrammatical. A comparison of existential clauses and omitted existential markers can be seen in clauses (7) a, b, and c. The structure of an existential clause consists of verb *ada* + existent, while a non-existential clause only consists of existence in clauses (7) a, b, and c. The structure of the clause in non-existential cannot be accepted as a clause because the predicate elements are not fulfilled.

- Existential
(7) a. *Ada linuh.*
Exist earthquake
‘There is an earthquake.’
b. *Ada banjir.*
Exist flood
‘There is flood.’
c. *Ada tatit.*
Exist thunder
‘There is thunder.’
Non-existential
d. **linuh.*
earthquake
‘*gempa.’
e. **banjir.*
Flood
‘*flood.’
f. **tatit.*
thunder
‘*thunder.’

(b). Extended Existential Clauses

Extended existential clauses have the verb structure verb *ada* + existence + extension. With the additional element, namely extension, this type of existential clause has an equivalent canonical structure in the form of a non-existential clause. Extension elements in this type of existential clause are locative, temporal, adjective, numeral, verb, and relative clause.

1. Locative

Locative is a type of adjunct (Heidinger & Onea, 2021). Locative is a function that shows a place adverbial in a clause. Prepositional phrases or adverb phrases can realize the locative function in Balinese. This extended existential sentence states the existence of existence in a particular space (Kumamoto, 2015). An example of an extended existential clause can be seen in the following.

- (8) a. *Ada bom di gumi Bali-ne.*
exist bomb PREP earth Bali-DEF

- ‘There is a bomb on the earth of Bali.’
 b. *Ada taluh di sebun-e.*
 exist egg PREP nest-DEF
 ‘There is an egg in the nest.’
 c. *Ada maling ditu.*
 exist thief there
 ‘There is a thief there.’

One of the prepositions in Balinese is *di* ‘at/in/on’. The locative function is realized by prepositional phrases *di gumi Bali-ne* in (8) a and *di sebun-e* in (8) b. The locative is also realized by the adverb phrase that is *ditu* in (8) c. The noun phrase that occupies the existence is referential (Kumamoto, 2015). This noun phrase can be linked into a complete clause with a non-existential meaning. These existential clauses have the following non-existential equivalents.

- (9) a. *Bom-e di gumi Bali-ne.*
 bomb-DEF PREP earth Bali.DEF
 ‘The bomb is on the earth of Bali.’
 b. *Taluh-e di sebun-e.*
 egg-DEF PREP nest.DEF
 ‘The egg is in the nest.’
 c. *Maling-e ditu.*
 thief-DEF there
 ‘The thief is there.’

2. Temporal

Temporal is a function that shows about time. A noun phrase or adverb phrase can realize the temporal function.

- (10) a. *Ada ilen-ilen calonarang bin mani.*
 Exist entertainment calonarang next tomorrow
 ‘There will be an entertainment tomorrow.’
 b. *Ada odalan ibi.*
 Exist ceremony yesterday
 ‘There was a ceremony yesterday.’
 c. *Ada tajen bin petang dina.*
 exist cock fighting next four day
 ‘There will be a cock fighting the next four days.’

The temporal realized by the adverb phrase unit is *bin mani* in (10) a and *ibi* in (10) b. The noun phrase unit indicating temporal is *bin petang dina* in (10) c. The existential clause equivalent of clauses (10) a, b, and c can be seen in clauses (11) a, b, and c.

- (11) a. *Ilen-ilen calonarang-e bin mani.*
 Entertainment calonarang-DEF next tomorrow
 ‘The Calonarang entertainment will be held tomorrow.’
 b. *Odalane ibi.*
 ceremony-DEF yesterday
 ‘The ceremony was held yesterday.’
 c. *Tajene buin petang dina.*
 Cock fighting-DEF next four day
 ‘The cockfighting will be held the next four days.’

3. Adjective

The extension filled with adjective phrases can be predicative in non-existential clauses. The following is an example of an existential clause with a non-existential equivalent where the predicate is filled with an adjective category.

- (12) a. *Ada anak nakal.*
 exist person.INDEF crazy
 ‘There is a crazy person.’
 b. *Ada guru baru.*
 Exist teacher new
 ‘There is a new teacher.’
 c. *Ada tiuk puntul.*
 exist knife dull
 ‘There is a dull knife.’

The extension filled by the adjective in clause (12) is *nakal* in clause (12) a, *baru* in clause (12) b, and *puntul* in clause (12) c. Meanwhile, the head of the extension, an adjective, gives an additional element of the existence. These adjectives occupy the predicative element in the non-existential clause. The adjective predicate is always associated

with the referential argument of the nominal core (Maienborn, 2020). This existential clause has an equivalent in the non-existential clause as follows.

- (13) a. *Anak-e nakal.*
 person-DEF crazy
 ‘The person is crazy.’
 b. *Guru-ne baru.*
 teacher-DEF new
 ‘The teacher is new.’
 c. *Tiuk-e puntul.*
 knife-DEF dull
 ‘The knife is dull.’

4. Numeral Phrase

The numeral phrase can also be an extension of existence in an existential clause. Here is an example of an extension in the form of a numeral phrase.

- (14) a. *Suba ada pangayah liu.*
 PERF exist assistant many
 ‘There have been many assistants.’
 b. *Suba ada pianak lelima.*
 PERF exist child five
 ‘There has been five children.’
 c. *Ada tamiu aukud.*
 Exist guest one
 ‘There is one guest.’

Liu realizes numeral phrases in clause (14) a, *lelima* in clause (14) b, and *aukud*. This existential clause has the equivalent non-existential clause as follows.

- (15) a. *Pangayah-e liu.*
 assistant-DEF many
 ‘The assistants are many.’
 b. *Pianak-e lelima.*
 child-DEF five
 ‘The children are five.’
 c. *Tamiu-ne aukud.*
 guest-DEF one
 ‘The guest is one.’

5. Verb

Intransitive and transitive verbs can fill the extension. Transitive verbs are verbs that require an object, and intransitive verbs are verbs that cannot require an object (Pahor, 2021). The following is an example of the extension of the existential clause in the form of a verb.

- (16) a. *Ada anak ngantiang tiang di sisi.*
 exist person.INDEF wait 1 PREP outside
 ‘There is a person waiting for me outside.’
 b. *Ada timpal teka mai.*
 Exist friend.INDEF come here
 ‘There is a friend coming here.’
 c. *Ada guru ngajahin tiang.*
 exist teacher teach 1
 ‘There is a teacher teaching me.’

The extension of the verb filled with transitive verbs is *ngantiang* in clause (16) a, and *ngajahin* in clause (16) c. The intransitive verb, an extension of the existential clause, is the *teka* in clause (16) b. The following is the equivalent of the existential clause.

- (17) a. *Anak-e ngantiang tiang di sisi.*
 person.DEF wait 1 PREP outside
 ‘The person waits for me outside.’
 b. *Timpal-e teka mai.*
 Friend-DEF come here
 ‘My friend is coming here.’
 c. *Guru-ne ngajahin tiang.*
 teacher teach 1

‘The teacher teaches me.’

In specific contexts, the existence may experience omission. Existence omission can occur in existential clauses that have extensions filled with verbs. Here is an example of an existential omission.

- (18) a. *Ada* Ø *kedek*.
 exist Ø laugh
 ‘There is Ø laughing.’
 b. *Ada* Ø *ngayahin* *I* *Buda*.
 exist Ø help ART person name
 ‘There is Ø helping Buda.’

The complete existential clauses structure consists of verb *ada* + existence + extension. However, in clauses (18) a and b, the verb *ada* is not followed by an existence. It is immediately followed by a verb *kedek* in (18) a and *ngayahin* in (18) b. This means that there has been an existence omission. Existence that are omitted in the context of existential clauses (18) a, and b are existential in the form of humans, which in Balinese can be realized in lexicon *anak*. However, existence can also be filled by non-humans. So clause (18) has the following existential construction:

- (19) a. *Ada* (*anak*) *kedek*.
 exist (person) laugh
 ‘There is (a person) laughing.’
 b. *Ada* (*anak*) *ngayahin* *I* *Buda*.
 exist (person) help ART person name
 ‘There is (a person) helping Buda.’

6. Relative Clause

The extension of existential clauses in Balinese can also be filled with relative clauses. In other languages, such as Aklanon, existential clauses can also choose relative clauses as complements (Wellstood, 2022). This means that the relative clause conveys a topic interpretation, namely old information (Park, 2022). The following is an example of an existential clause with an extension filled by a relative clause unit.

- (20) a. *Ada* *dogen* *unduk* *ane* *rasayang-a* *kirangan*.
 Exist just thing which feel-PASS lack
 ‘There is just thing that is felt lacking.’
 b. *Ada* *baju* *ane* *demenin-a*.
 Exist dress which like-PASS
 ‘There is a dress liked.’
 c. *Suba* *ada* *sopir* *ane* *lakar* *ngatehin* *meme* *ideh-ideh*.
 PERF exist driver who will take mother everywhere
 ‘There is already a driver who will take mother everywhere.’

The lexicon *ane* marks relative clauses in Balinese. Relative clauses can also extend the existence of existential clauses. When reconstructed, the existential clause has a non-existential equivalent structure as in clauses (18) a, b, and c.

- (21) a. *Unduk-e* *rasayang-a* *kirangan*.
 thing-DEF feel-PASS lack
 ‘The thing is felt lacking.’
 b. *Baju-ne* *demenin-a*.
 dress-DEF like-PASS
 ‘The dress is liked.’
 c. *Sopir-e* *lakar* *ngatehin* *meme* *ideh-ideh*.
 driver-DEF will take ibu everywhere
 ‘The driver will take mother everywhere.’

Existence omission does not only occur in verb extension but can also occur in relative clause extension. The following is an example of an existential clause whose existence is experiencing omission.

- (22) a. *Ada* *masih* Ø *ane* *madalem* *Pekak* *Veteran*.
 Exist also Ø who pity grandfather person’s name
 ‘There is who pity Grandfather Veteran.’
 b. *Ada* Ø *ane* *ngae* *banten*.
 Exist Ø who make offering
 ‘There is Ø make an offering.’

Based on the context of the existential clause above, omission or ellipsis occurs in noun phrases that fill existence elements. The nominal ellipsis has two sources, namely the nominal constituent (true ellipsis), or the nominal proform (anaphora model-theoretic) (Merchant, 2014). The nominal ellipsis is in the position of the verb argument (Sudo & Spathas, 2020). In principle, existents are entities in the form of nouns or noun phrases. This means that human or non-human categories can fill existence elements. To determine whether humans or non-humans fill the omitted existent, the semantic context is constructive for reconstructing the omitted existence. Based on the semantic context, the existence

of the existential clause is a person (human) in clauses (22) a and b. This can be proven by entities carrying out *medalem Pekak Veteran* and *ngae banten*. The following is a reconstruction of the existential clause omission.

- (23) a. *Ada masih (anak) ane madalem Pekak Veteran.*
 exist also (person) who pity grandfather person's name
 'There is (a person) who pity grandfather Veteran.'
 b. *Ada (anak) ane ngae banten.*
 exist (person) who make offering
 'There is (a person) who makes an offering.'

C. The Constraints of Definiteness Filling the Existence

The primary communicative purpose of existential clauses is to state the existence of something (Kalnača et al., 2019). To express the presence of something, existential clauses have constraints between verb *ada* as an existential marker and its existence elements. The definiteness involves definite and indefinite noun phrases (Giannakou & Sitaridou, 2020). The definiteness of a noun phrase determines whether a clause is existential or non-existential. Definiteness relates to whether the existence is an indefinite or definite entity.

(a). The Marker of Definiteness

Balinese is a language with an agglutinative system. Therefore, affixation is decisive in forming a new word from a root word. Definite nouns are morphologically marked with the suffix {-e}. However, indefinite nouns are not marked morphologically. The following is a comparison of indefinite and definite nouns in Balinese.

Indefinite	Definite	Meaning
<i>baju</i>	<i>baju-ne</i>	dress
<i>tali</i>	<i>tali-ne</i>	rope
<i>lima</i>	<i>lima-ne</i>	hand
<i>foto</i>	<i>foto-ne</i>	photo
<i>raab</i>	<i>raab-e</i>	roof
<i>bungkun</i>	<i>bungkun-e</i>	ring
<i>biuk</i>	<i>tiuk-e</i>	knife
<i>capil</i>	<i>capil-e</i>	cap
<i>umah</i>	<i>umah-e</i>	house
<i>sabuk</i>	<i>sabuk-e</i>	belt
<i>anak</i>	<i>anak-e</i>	person
<i>layangan</i>	<i>layangan-e</i>	kite

In Basketo, for example, indefinite nouns are marked with *-i* (Inui, 2020). In Spanish, Brazilian Portuguese, Catalan, French, and Italian, indefiniteness is denoted by the element *de*, and is considered an operator that reduces certainty (Pinzin & Poletto, 2022). The suffix {-e} as a morpheme in Balinese conveys the meaning of definiteness. The morpheme {-e} has two allomorphs, namely {-e} and {-ne}. The morpheme {-e} is a morpheme that expresses definiteness because {-e} can occur in a wider phonological environment than the allomorph {-ne}. Definite markers in Balinese can be realized by affixation, namely the suffix {-e}, and can also be realized by combining the suffix {-e} and articles. The articles marking definite noun phrases are *ento* 'that' and *ene* 'this'.

Definite (suffix)	Definite (suffix + article)
<i>baju-ne</i>	<i>baju-ne ento</i>
<i>baju-ne</i>	<i>baju-ne ene</i>
<i>tali-ne</i>	<i>tali-ne ento</i>
<i>tali-ne</i>	<i>tali-ne ene</i>

(b). Definiteness

In a bare existential clause, existence can only be filled with an indefinite noun phrase. An existential clause will become awkward if one tries to connect definite noun phrases. This is because the definiteness of a noun phrase is very firm in an existence filled by a noun phrase. Like Balinese, the definiteness of a noun phrase is very applicable in Spanish (Perpiñán & Soto-Corominas, 2021). Definiteness is also used to mark pre-Islamic idols' names through the *l-* in Arabic (Grande, 2021). The definition of a noun phrase can be seen in the following example.

- (24) a. *Ada lelipi.*
 Exist snake.INDEF
 'There is a snake.'
 b. *Ada surat.*
 exist letter.INDEF
 'There is a letter.'
 c. *Ada musuh.*
 Exist enemy.INDEF
 'There is an enemy.'

In bare existential clause, only indefinite noun phrases are accepted, such as the noun *lelipi* in clause (24) a, *surat* in clause (24) b, and *musuh* in clause (24) c. This suggests that the existential clause in Balinese introduces a new existence in a discourse in clause units. Here is verb *ada* which is tried to fill with definite nouns. The result is the combination of verb *ada* and definite noun phrases is unacceptable in Balinese, such as in clauses (25) a, b, and c.

- (25) a. **Ada lelipi-ne.*
 exist snake-DEF
 ‘*There is the snake.’
 b. **Ada surat-e.*
 exist letter-DEF
 ‘*There is the letter.’
 c. **Ada musuh-e.*
 exist enemy-DEF
 ‘There is the enemy.’

Definite noun phrases are not acceptable in the bare existential clauses in clauses (25) a, b, and c. Furthermore, noun phrases that fill existence in the extended existential clause can be observed in clauses (26) a, d, and c.

- (26) a. *Ada anak ngantiang di sisi.*
 exist person.INDEF wait PREP outside
 ‘There is a person waiting outside.’
 b. *Ada pipis di kantong-e.*
 exist money.INDEF PREP pocket.DEF
 ‘There is money in the pocket.’
 c. *Ada lelipi di carik-e.*
 exist snake.INDEF PREP rice terrace.DEF
 ‘There is a snake in the rice terrace.’

Indefinite nouns or noun phrases are also selected in the extended existential clauses in clauses (26) a, b, and c. As mentioned earlier, extended existential clauses have non-existential structural equivalents. However, to reconstruct the equivalent of an extended existential clause, one must change the indefinite noun phrase to be definite in the non-existential clause. An indefinite noun phrase can also fill in their non-existential clause equivalents strictly subject function in clauses (27) a, b, and c.

- (27) a. *Anak-e ngantiang di sisi.*
 person-DEF wait PREP outside
 ‘The person is waiting outside.’
 b. *Pipis-e di kantong-e.*
 money.DEF PREP pocket.DEF
 ‘The money is in the pocket.’
 c. *Lelipi-ne di carik-e.*
 snake.DEF PREP rice terrace.DEF
 ‘The snake is in the rice terrace.’
 (28) a. **Anak ngantiang di sisi.*
 person-INDEF wait PREP outside
 ‘A person is waiting outside.’
 b. **Pipis di kantong-e.*
 money.INDEF PREP pocket.DEF
 ‘Money is in the pocket.’
 c. **Lelipi di carik-e.*
 snake.INDEF PREP rice terrace.DEF
 ‘A snake is in the rice terrace.’

Indefinite noun phrases tend to fill existence elements in existential clauses, and definite nouns tend to fill in the subject of non-existential constructions. What if a definite noun serves the existential function can be seen in clauses (29) a, b, and c.

- (29) a. **Ada sopir-e mapagin tiang.*
 exist driver-DEF pick up 1
 ‘There was that driver picking me up.’
 b. **Ada anak-e nakonin tiang.*
 exist person-DEF greet 1
 ‘That person is greeting me.’
 c. **Ada murid-e meli buku di toko.*
 exist student-DEF buy book PREP shop
 ‘The student is buying a book in the shop.’

It is also unacceptable for a definite noun phrase to fill existence elements in extended existential clauses as in the examples of clauses (29) a, b, and c. Definite noun phrases will be acceptable to fill in non-existential clauses such as clauses (30) a, b, and c. If the existential clause in clause (29) must be conveyed in an existential construction, then the noun phrase filling the existence must be reversed into an indefinite noun phrase as in clause (31) a, b, and c.

- (30) a. *Sopir-e mapagin tiang.*
 driver-DEF pick up 1
 'The driver picks me up.'
- b. *Anak-e nakonin tiang.*
 person.DEF greet 1
 'The person greets me.'
- c. *Murid-e meli buku di toko.*
 student-DEF buy book PREP shop
 'The student buys a book in the shop.'
- (31) a. *Ada sopir mapagin tiang.*
 Exist driver-DEF pick up 1
 'The driver is picking me up.'
- b. *Ada anak nakonin tiang.*
 exist person.DEF greet 1
 'There is a person greeting me.'
- c. *Ada murid meli buku di toko.*
 exist student-DEF buy book PREP shop
 'A student is buying a book in the shop.'

A definite noun phrase tends to fill the subject in non-existential clauses compared to filling in existence elements in existential clauses. An existential clause can introduce new discourse references and reintroduce or focus on references that have already been mentioned.

IV. CONCLUSION

An existential clause in Balinese is a clause that indicates the existence of a situation or event where the marking is realized with the verb *ada*. The core structure of an existential clause in Balinese is the verb *ada* + existence. Balinese existential clauses have an extension structure, namely the verb *ada* + existence + extension. Regarding syntactic structure, existential clauses in Balinese are clauses without a subject (subjectless clause). This construction shows the structure of the clause, which is preceded by a verb (Vihman & Walkden, 2021). Based on the type of structure, existential clauses in Balinese have two types: bare existential clauses and extended existential clauses. A bare existential clause is an existential clause that does not have a non-existential structural equivalent. An extended existential clause is an existential clause that has a non-existential structural match. The choice of existential or non-existential clauses is determined by the entity filling the existence elements. The existence in a bare existential clause can only be filled with an indefinite noun phrase. In extended existential clauses, indefinite noun phrases tend to fill existence elements rather than fill in the subject of non-existential clauses. Definite nouns tend to fill in the subject of non-existential clauses rather than existence elements in existential clauses.

ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

We thank the anonymous reviewers of *Journal of Language Teaching and Research*. Special thanks to the government of the Republic of Indonesia through the Education Fund Management Institute (LPDP) for their financial support for publishing this article at *Journal of Language Teaching and Research*.

REFERENCES

- [1] Afrianto, Sujatna, E. T. S., Darmayanti, N., Ariyani, F., & Cooke-Plagwitz, J. (2020). Clause and predicative constituents in an Austronesian language: Lampung language. *Topics in Linguistics*, 21(2), 62–79. <https://doi.org/10.2478/topling-2020-0010>
- [2] Alves, M. Ö. C., Ode, C., & Strömbergsson, S. (2020). Dealing with the unknown – addressing challenges in evaluating unintelligible speech. *Clinical Linguistics & Phonetics*, 34(1–2), 169–184. <https://doi.org/10.1080/02699206.2019.1622787>
- [3] Bassaganyas-Bars, T., & McNally, L. (2020). There be- and have-sentences: different semantics, different definiteness effects. *The Linguistic Review*, 37(2), 179–208. <https://doi.org/10.1515/tlr-2019-2041>
- [4] Bybee, J., & Thompson, S. A. (2021). Interaction and grammar: predicative adjective constructions in English conversation. *Languages*, 7(2), 1–17. <https://doi.org/10.3390/languages7010002>
- [5] Farghal, M., & Almanna, A. (2022). Phonological and morphological asymmetries in Arabic/English translation. *Journal of Southwest Jiaotong University*, 57(6), 620–628. <https://doi.org/10.35741/issn.0258-2724.57.6.58>
- [6] Giannakou, A., & Sitaridou, I. (2020). Microparametric variation in the syntax of Spanish and Greek pronominal subjects. *Glossa: A Journal of General Linguistics*, 5(1), 1–42. <https://doi.org/10.5334/gjgl.960>
- [7] Grande, F. (2021). Definiteness marking in earlier stages of Arabic areal evidence from classical Arabic idols' names. *Annali Di Ca' Foscari. Serie Orientale*, 57(1), 19–52. <https://doi.org/10.30687/AnnOr/2385-3042/2021/01/002>

- [8] Heidinger, S., & Onea, E. (2021). Focus affinity in Spanish. an experimental study. *Journal of Pragmatics*, 186, 100–116. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.pragma.2021.09.015>
- [9] Huddleston, R., & Pullum, G. K. (2005). *A student's introduction to English grammar*. Cambridge University Press. <https://doi.org/10.1353/lan.0.0036>
- [10] Inui, H. (2020). Nominal suffixes as markers of information structure in Basketo. *Studies in African Languages and Cultures*, 54, 97–120. <https://doi.org/10.32690/SALC54.4>
- [11] Isurin, L. (2021). Does language transfer explain it all? the case of first language change in Russian-English bilinguals. *Russian Journal of Linguistics*, 25(4), 908–930. <https://doi.org/10.22363/2687-0088-2021-25-4-908-930>
- [12] Kalnača, A., & Lokmane, I. (2020). Pragmatic aspects of Latvian predicative infinitive constructions. *Studies About Languages*, 1(37), 74–91. <https://doi.org/10.5755/j01.sal.1.37.25881>
- [13] Kalnača, A., Lokmane, I., & Metslang, H. (2019). Subject case alternation in Latvian and Estonian existential clauses. *Eesti Rakenduslingvistika Ühingu Aastaraamat. Estonian Papers in Applied Linguistics*, 15, 53–82. <https://doi.org/10.5128/ERYa15.04>
- [14] Kang, Y., Lee, J., & Kang, Y. (2020). User's needs for voice agents in a smart home context. *Archives of Design Research*, 33(4), 175–189. <https://doi.org/10.15187/adr.2020.11.33.4.175>
- [15] Kim, J. B. (2022). English there-clefts: a construction-based extraposition analysis. *Linguistic Research*, 39(2), 389–404. <https://doi.org/10.17250/khisli.39.2.202206.006>
- [16] Kumamoto, C. (2015). Referentiality in noun phrases and relative pronouns. *Discourse and Interaction*, 8(2), 49–63. <https://doi.org/10.5817/DI2015-2-49>
- [17] Lyda, A. (2021). Gendered existence? existential-there construction in English-Polish translation. *East European Journal of Psycholinguistics*, 8(2), 124–137. <https://doi.org/10.29038/eejpl.2021.8.2.lyd>
- [18] Maienborn, C. (2020). Wider die Klammerparadoxie: kombinatorische illusionen beim adjektivbezug auf NN-komposita. *Zeitschrift Für Sprachwissenschaft*, 39(2), 149–200. <https://doi.org/10.1515/zfs-2020-2009>
- [19] Mari, A., & Portner, P. (2021). Mood variation with belief predicates: modal comparison and the raisability of questions. *Glossa: A Journal of General Linguistics*, 6(1), 1–51. <https://doi.org/10.16995/glossa.5726>
- [20] McAnallen, J. (2009). The competing roles of SV(O) and VS(O) word orders in Xoždenie igumena Daniila. *Russian Linguistics*, 33(2), 211–228. <https://doi.org/10.1007/s11185-009-9039-6>
- [21] Merchant, J. (2014). Gender mismatches under nominal ellipsis. *Lingua*, 151, 9–32. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.lingua.2014.01.008>
- [22] Mhute, I., & Kadenge, M. (2014). The Shona subject relation: some selectional principles. *Mediterranean Journal of Social Sciences*, 5(27), 1592–1600. <https://doi.org/10.5901/mjss.2014.v5n27p1592>
- [23] O'Connor, C., & Joffe, H. (2020). Intercode reliability in qualitative research: debates and practical guidelines. *International Journal of Qualitative Methods*, 19, 1–13. <https://doi.org/10.1177/1609406919899220>
- [24] Orozco, R., & Hurtado, L. M. (2021). A variationist study of subject pronoun expression in Medellín, Colombia. *Languages*, 6(5), 1–29. <https://doi.org/10.3390/languages6010005>
- [25] Pahor, N. (2021). Corpus analysis of the collocations of the transitive verbs owaru and oeru. *Acta Linguistica Asiatica*, 11(1), 37–74. <https://doi.org/10.4312/ala.11.1.37-74>
- [26] Park, D. (2022). The existence of a bundled CT head in Bahasa Indonesian. *Linguistic Research*, 39(2), 297–326. <https://doi.org/10.17250/khisli.39.2.202206.003>
- [27] Perpiñán, S., & Soto-Corominas, A. (2021). Indirect structural crosslinguistic influence in early Catalan–Spanish bilinguals in adulthood: predicate selection in Catalan existential constructions. *Applied Psycholinguistics*, 42(6), 1463–1502. <https://doi.org/10.1017/S0142716421000308>
- [28] Pinzin, F., & Poletto, C. (2022). Partitive articles and indefinites, micro and macrovariation. *Studia Linguistica*, 76(1), 1–12. <https://doi.org/10.1111/stul.12182>
- [29] Satyawati, M. S., Kardana, I. N., & Claria, D. A. K. (2021). Morpho-semantic of predicate in Indonesian. *Journal of Language Teaching and Research*, 12(6), 1082–1088. <https://doi.org/10.17507/jltr.1204.24>
- [30] Scholman, M. C. J., Blything, L., Cain, K., Hoek, J., & Evers-Vermeul, J. (2022). Discourse rules: the effects of clause order principles on the reading process. *Language, Cognition and Neuroscience*, 37(10), 1277–1291. <https://doi.org/10.1080/23273798.2022.2077971>
- [31] Sudo, Y., & Spathas, G. (2020). Gender and interpretation in Greek: comments on Merchant (2014). *Glossa: A Journal of General Linguistics*, 5(1), 1–42. <https://doi.org/10.5334/gjgl.1173>
- [32] Vihman, V.-A., & Walkden, G. (2021). Verb-second in spoken and written Estonian. *Glossa: A Journal of General Linguistics*, 6(1), 1–23. <https://doi.org/10.5334/gjgl.1404>
- [33] Wellstood, Z. (2022). A relative clause analysis of event existential constructions in Aklanon. *Glossa: A Journal of General Linguistics*, 7(1), 1–41. <https://doi.org/10.16995/glossa.5866>
- [34] Zhang, N. N. (2019). Appearance and existence in Mandarin Chinese. *Studies in Chinese Linguistics*, 40(2), 101–140. <https://doi.org/10.2478/scl-2019-0004>

I Wayan Swandana is a student of Linguistic Doctoral Program at Faculty of Humanities, Udayana University, Denpasar, Bali, Indonesia. He is a lecturer too in Ganesha University of Education (Undiksha). He completed his bachelor degree in linguistics from Udayana University in 2007, and his master degree in Linguistics from Udayana in 2011. His research interests are phonology, morphology, semantics, syntax, and typology. He has published his articles on national and international journals.

Ketut Artawa is a Professor of linguistics at the Faculty of Humanities Udayana University, Bali Indonesia. He obtained his MA in Linguistics in 1992 and PhD in Linguistics in 1995 from La Trobe University, Melbourne. He was a visiting Professor at the Research School of Pacific Studies, the Australian National University (October 2009-January 2010) and a Visiting Professor at the Research Institute for Languages and Cultures of Asia and Africa (ILCAA/ AA-ken), Tokyo University of Foreign Studies (TUFS), Japan (2011-2012). His research interests are in the fields of syntax, semantics, language typology, and linguistic landscape. He has published a number of articles in International journals with his research group including in *Studies in language* 1977, 21(3), pp. 483-508 and *Cognitive science* 2021, 45(4), e1294. He has supervised 25 PhD graduates in Linguistics and he has participated in a number of international conferences on linguistics.

Nyoman Udayana is a professor in linguistics at Faculty of Humanities Udayana University. He earned his Ph.D. from the University of Texas at Austin. His research interests are syntax, lexical semantics, and discourse grammar. He primarily focuses his research on verbs and argument realization and more specifically on the close relationship between verb-predicate's meaning and their argument(s) that lead to constructions related to reflexivization, logophoricity, and other similar constructions about valency-preserving or valency-changing phenomena. He is also interested in projects concentrating on the interface between syntax and discourse grammar in Indonesian and Balinese.

Ketut Widya Purnawati is an associate professor of linguistics at the Faculty of Humanities, Udayana University in Bali, Indonesia. She completed her bachelor's degree in 2000 from Padjadjaran University. She got her master's degree in 2009 and her doctorate in 2018 from Udayana University. In 2018, she completed his Ph.D. in Linguistics from Udayana University. Her research interests are syntax, semantics, language typology, and linguistic landscape. She has published several articles with her research group in international journals.

An Exploration of EFL Teachers' Perceptions of Using Game-Based Learning Tools in Virtual Classes in a Saudi Primary School Context

Ghidaa Mohammad Al-Harbi*

English Language Institute, King Abdulaziz University, Jeddah, Saudi Arabia

Abeer Ahmed Madini

English Language Institute, King Abdulaziz University, Jeddah, Saudi Arabia

Abstract—The recent trend towards digitization in education sectors, driven by the growing demand for more personalized learning, the health pandemic crisis, and the need to improve accessibility to diverse pedagogies, has transformed approaches to teaching. Specifically, the creation of digital game-based learning (DGBL) in recent years has led to an increased appreciation of the potential offered by digitization and the new trends toward gamified and virtual learning. This study explores the benefits of and challenges associated with learning gamification, as well as EFL teachers' perceptions of using gamification tools in five primary schools in Al-Qunfudhah school district, Saudi Arabia. The study employed a qualitative design to obtain comprehensive data. Non-probabilistic purposive sampling was used to recruit a representative sample comprising five EFL teachers (N=5) from different primary schools. Furthermore, the study performed semi-structured interviews (SSIs) with participants to acquire in-depth insights based on their perceptions and experiences with DGBL. A thematic analysis (TA) was chosen as the primary strategy for analyzing qualitative data and coding participants' insights into key themes and sub-themes. Overall, statistical measures indicated that many EFL primary school teachers in Al-Qunfudhah had effective technological awareness. Given the positive perception of DGBL, the study suggests that EFL teachers are able to integrate DGBL strategies to facilitate virtual learning, improve student-teacher engagement, increase time efficiency, and support language development.

Index Terms—DGBL, educational technology, EFL teachers, Saudi teachers' perceptions

I. INTRODUCTION

Social networking and digital gaming have become widespread in the modern era. Many individuals, regardless of gender, age, and culture, actively use digital gaming and social media networks. Digital Game-Based Learning (DGBL) refers to the use of computer games as an educational tool. Hwa (2018) defines DGBL as a smart instructional learning approach that uses computerized games to engage learners, enabling them to easily gain competencies, knowledge, and skills. This definition is consistent with Chang and Hwang's (2019) description of DGBL as an advanced or improved learning system that offers activities that enable students to engage in problem-solving tasks by incorporating educational subjects or learning models into digital games.

Recently, teachers have given more attention to innovative technologies, specifically DGBL tools, examining the potential offered by these innovations in promoting contextualized learning. Tokarieva et al. (2019) note that the adoption of digital games and their acceptance as part of formal curricula are largely based on their perceived educational value and success in countering assertions that video games are more suitable for leisure purposes than instruction.

Prominent cases of successful DGBL implementation may be drawn from Saudi Arabia's education system, where different schools have embraced interactive learning tools such as the Madrasati platform to improve student engagement and transform the teaching and learning experience for teachers and learners on various levels. The enforcement of widespread lockdowns, leading to the temporary closure of schools during the COVID-19 pandemic, increased pressure on policymakers, teachers, and other stakeholders in the Saudi Ministry of Education to develop a distance-learning platform to protect students from health risks and avoid the unprecedented adverse effects of disrupted learning (Almaiah et al., 2022). In response to these needs, the Saudi Ministry of Education designed a learning management system, namely the Madrasati platform, enabling schools to continue teaching through a virtual learning model to prevent academic loss (Almaiah et al., 2022).

Recent studies have explored technological development, digitization trends, and their implications for education. However, despite the increase in research on digitization, academic studies on DGBL and its impact on virtual learning

* Corresponding Author. Email: gnashialharbi@stu.kau.edu.sa

at primary school levels in Al-Qunfudhah are lacking. Alsuhaymi and Alzebidi (2019) investigated Saudi computer teachers' perceptions and attitudes toward video game teaching and anticipated barriers toward its successful deployment. The study found that computer teachers in Saudi Arabia had a positive attitude toward video game integration and anticipated the benefits of applying gaming beyond leisure to transform teaching processes. In terms of adoption barriers, the study highlighted the absence of facilitating conditions, technology biases, and low awareness of the positive aspects of gamified learning and the application of DGBL tools in formal Saudi curricula (Alsuhaymi & Alzebidi, 2019). While the study obtained valuable data on teachers' perceptions of learning gamification in general, it focused exclusively on Saudi computer teachers and limited data collection to the Eastern Province of Saudi Arabia. There is thus a compelling need to extend this research to other areas of Saudi Arabia and cover insights from other teachers, including EFL teachers in primary school environments.

Using DGBL in virtual classes at primary school levels in Saudi Arabia, particularly in Al-Qunfudhah, has not been widely explored in the literature. Therefore, the present study offers a comprehensive exploration of how virtual learning has enhanced classroom experiences for teachers and learners. Specifically, the study focuses on EFL teachers' perceptions of DGBL and its deployment in virtual classes, identifying key benefits, significant opportunities, perceived barriers to successful implementation, and existing educational technology development and usage gaps. By undertaking qualitative research, this study intends to achieve the following objectives:

1. To investigate the benefits of DGBL by examining its impacts on virtual learning in primary school classrooms in Al-Qunfudhah, Saudi Arabia.
2. To identify the challenges associated with DGBL adoption based on EFL teachers' perceptions.
3. To identify gaps in the placement and integration of educational technology to facilitate game-based learning for primary school students in Al-Qunfudhah.

Research Questions

The study seeks to respond to the following research questions:

1. What are the benefits and challenges associated with incorporating game-based learning tools in virtual classes for Saudi EFL learners at primary levels in Al-Qunfudhah to support virtual teaching?
2. How do EFL teachers perceive game-based tools and their significance for virtual learning in Al-Qunfudhah's primary schools?

II. LITERATURE REVIEW

Game-based learning is not a new concept, and its genesis may be traced back to puzzles used by teachers to stimulate creative thinking in conventional classroom pedagogy. However, this framework has gained traction in non-recreational environments, with many educational scholars and instructional designers expressing appreciation of the potential attributed to digital games for commercial classroom teaching (Alam, 2022). The impact of commercial gaming has drawn teachers' attention to how they are able to use the enormous potential of digital games to increase the efficiency of student learning in modern classroom environments. Aprea and Ifenthaler (2021) link game-based learning tools to improved educational experiences, including providing immersive learning, enabling student-object interactions, stimulating creativity, and enhancing academic outcomes by allowing students to connect and interact with recognizable structures and previously studied materials. Over recent years, the extension of digital gaming concepts and their application in education has led to controversy, increasing the pressure on scholars to explore the consequences of gamified learning and its potential impact on classroom instruction at all school levels (Charlier & De Fraine, 2012). Charlier and De Fraine's study stresses the need to consider the environment in which game-based tools are used and the expected value of such technological innovations. Fletcher (1971) conveys the idea that gaming may considerably affect an individual's sense of control of the specific environment in which they are situated, highlighting a need to consider environmental characteristics while designing education games to make them more effective and convenient for teachers looking to solve various teaching problems.

Exposure to interactive learning through DGBL tools promotes efficacy and results in significant pedagogical achievement, as these tools allow teachers to achieve high engagement with digital native students and focus on specific educational goals. Researchers have mentioned the application of advanced game-based learning tools such as virtual reality (VR) and augmented reality (AR) as innovations that will unlock new possibilities and radically change how schools integrate full-scale commercial games to adjust to the changing requirements of contemporary learners (Liu et al., 2022). According to Hartt et al. (2020), active learning methodologies such as digital gaming provide access to pedagogical processes and engaging content, stimulating learners' cognitive abilities and presenting opportunities for deep learning. The authors describe DGBL as an active learning approach that employs innovative strategies such as gamefulness, aesthetics, gameful interaction, and specially designed digital content to foster student engagement with the curriculum, induce internal learning motivation, and enhance educational outcomes (Hartt et al., 2020). Overall, these empirical studies highlight the prominence of DGBL strategies in enhancing students' academic performance, increasing learning motivation, furthering engagement, and inducing competence during instructional processes.

Compared to less interactive traditional pedagogies, DGBL has proven more effective in promoting foreign language development in EFL contexts. The method has been employed in China to help students develop their English language skills. Wang and Han (2021) examined the effectiveness of Liulishuo, a mobile phone-based DGBL application, on

English monologic oral production in a sample population comprising Chinese English learners. The research linked game-based learning to improved oral production, indicating the effectiveness of these tools in linguistic knowledge development, as evidenced by improvements in English language fluency, diversity of vocabulary, lexical density, and accuracy among Chinese students. An analysis of the use of digital games in EFL learning among young Indonesian students by Mahayanti et al. (2020) also highlighted the value of these technologies in facilitating self-regulated language learning. Interacting with language learning games allows young students to automatically and unconsciously acquire important elements such as emotional motivation, metacognition, engagement, and strategic actions (Mahayanti et al., 2020). These elements make learning interactive and engaging, positively affecting the language learning process. Furthermore, other studies have examined the effectiveness and scope of the application of DGBL tools in transforming teaching, enhancing students' learning experiences, and promoting second language acquisition in school environments (Azman & Dollsai, 2018; Yacob & Yunus, 2019). Azman and Dollsai (2018) investigated the extent to which digital gaming has been incorporated in educational contexts. On the other hand, Vogt (2018) concentrated on the motivational factors affecting the acceptance and usage of game-based tools to enhance learning engagement and drive positive outcomes. Overall, the findings of these studies support the value of DGBL and its positive effects on second language acquisition.

The pedagogic benefits of digital games in educational environments have been extensively studied and widely documented. Given increased interactions with instructional content in a simulated learning environment, many students are likely to develop and maintain a strong interest in and involvement in instructional processes, increasing the odds for better academic outcomes (Aldossry, 2021; Anastasiadis et al., 2018; Chiang, 2020). However, some students' and teachers' accounts of the impacts of learning gamification reveal that certain aspects of DGBL could cause distraction, reducing its effectiveness in interactive classrooms (Admiraal et al., 2011; Khan et al., 2017). Despite the significant risk of student distraction in simulated learning environments, DGBL incorporates unique elements that make learning an enjoyable, highly interactive, stimulating, and immersive experience (Admiraal et al., 2011; Foster & Shah, 2020). A qualitative review analyzing second language (L2) teachers' perceptions of the application and benefits of educational games revealed that this technology establishes an instructional support tool that has transformed how teachers and students interact (Demirbilek et al., 2010). Furthermore, Ebrahimzadeh and Alavi (2016) contend that the interactive and gameful features of DGBL eliminate boredom, motivate learning engagement, and facilitate students' access to key pedagogical elements.

Beyond the discussions of the benefits of learning gamification, the shift to this educational paradigm could pose significant risks, which may affect the adoption of DGBL and its approval as a part of mainstream school curricula. As noted by Khan et al. (2017), exposure to learning distraction and excessive indulgence in frivolous details of educational games may affect the quality of learning, particularly in primary schools, where students are still developing behaviors such as self-control and individual motivation.

As such, the impact of simulated learning environments may be to produce problem behaviors and antisocial tendencies, such as gaming addiction, reduced socialization, and declining academic outcomes, rather than to deliver the intended educational objectives (Sabourin & Lester, 2013). Attard (2013) suggests that students are more likely to spend their time playing with the enjoyable aspects of digital games rather than interacting with the educational content, impeding the true purpose of these technologies.

III. METHODOLOGY

A qualitative design coupled with a descriptive phenomenological approach was identified as the most appropriate methodology for conducting a comprehensive analysis and developing a theory around EFL teachers' perspectives regarding DGBL use in five different primary schools across five villages in Al-Qunfudhah. A qualitative design enables flexibility in deciding which study methods to use to ensure the credibility, reliability, and dependability of results (Johnson et al., 2020). Consistent with the qualitative design, the study employed semi-structured interviews (SSIs) as the primary research instrument to facilitate a qualitative inquiry and provide extensive insights into the observed phenomenon. The interview provided a demanding, flexible, and powerful method for obtaining EFL teachers' perceptions by exploring the behavior, experiences, attitudes, and opinions presented by the participants in the selected sample.

A. Participants

This study employed non-probabilistic purposive sampling and selected five female EFL teachers from various primary schools in Al-Qunfudhah. The teachers shared Arabic as their native language and held certifications qualifying them to teach primary school students in Saudi Arabia. Furthermore, these teachers had experience in digital game-based English teaching for primary school students.

Using a purposive sampling strategy, the study sought to recruit participants who were aligned with the main aims and purpose of the study. A purposive strategy provides a means to identify and enrol participants who are familiar with the study requirements and more likely to share meaningful experiences and offer research-relevant information without constraining available research resources (Campbell et al., 2020).

Before embarking on data collection, participants were provided with a consent form, which conveyed details about the study, its purpose, significance, and potential consequences. The study maintained high sensitivity to research ethics, such as guaranteeing confidentiality and strengthening participants' anonymity. Given these considerations, the study used unique pseudonyms (P1, P2, P3, P4, and P5) to identify the participants without revealing any identifying information, which effectively protected participants from unforeseen circumstances and vulnerability related to their voluntary involvement in the study.

B. Instruments

The study used a semi-structured interview (SSI) that adapted subject-relevant questions from a research instrument proposed by Vogt (2018) in *Middle school teachers' use and perceptions of digital game-based learning*. The interview was comprised of four parts, which combined 16 questions investigating participants' lived experiences and perceptions of using DGBL in their online classes. The first part focused on teachers' demographic information, while the second part examined DGBL uses and experiences in Al-Qunfudhah primary schools to support virtual teaching. In the third part, the interview questions investigated the positive and negative aspects of gamified teaching. The final part required the respondents to share ideas and convey their perceptions of DGBL tools.

C. Procedures

Before commencing data collection, participants were asked to schedule a day and time that would be convenient for both parties to avoid creating unwelcome issues, such as unexpected delays or finding the interviewee unprepared. The study relied on two approaches to data collection: engaging the respondents through in-person meetings in selected venues and making telephone calls to those who preferred virtual interviews. The interviews were conducted in a quiet venue, free from external interference and disruptions. After completing the interviews, the next step was transcribing interview data and inspecting different responses to establish validity and determine completeness.

D. Data Analysis

For the qualitative analysis, the study relied on a thematic analysis (TA) as the primary analytical strategy to generate data codes, develop categories, uncover emergent themes, and establish important relationships among multiple variables. When using this method, the effectiveness of a TA depends on the extent to which the transcribed data may be analyzed descriptively and inductively to generate codes or theories from participant responses (Finlay, 2021). Therefore, the analysis focused on obtaining codes from EFL teachers' perceptions and experiences of digital gaming and its relevance to in primary school curricula in Al-Qunfudhah.

When performing a TA, the study should maintain an objective stance while describing or reporting participants' subjective perceptions, experiences, and positions on DGBL. Objectivity provides a means of eliminating unconscious bias, which may result in distorted results, erode the validity of empirical evidence, and delay the emergence of perceptions of educational games in EFL learning contexts (Finlay, 2021). The coding process generally involves uncovering patterns from transcribed information and developing codes or preliminary conclusions. Subsequently, the TA focuses on establishing themes by linking different codes depending on how adequately they align with the study aims and stated research questions. Finally, the study employed NVivo software to develop a codebook and produce project maps to connect the identified themes with the primary research questions.

IV. RESULTS

Following a data-driven TA, the qualitative evaluation uncovered key themes based on common data codes developed from EFL teachers' perceptions of and experiences with digital gaming in virtual primary school classrooms across Al-Qunfudhah. Emergent themes from an inductive TA of the five transcriptions revealed the following aspects and concepts relating to how the participants perceived and experienced digital gaming in primary school virtual EFL classrooms:

1. Differences in EFL teachers' demographics;
2. Experiences using digital games in virtual classrooms;
3. Perceptions of the benefits of using digital games in the virtual classroom;
4. Perceptions of the challenges associated with using digital games in the virtual classroom; and
5. Perceived impacts of incorporating digital games in the virtual classroom.

A. Demographics

An evaluation of the participants' demographic profiles presents variations in their teaching experience, knowledge about digital gaming, and the number of years they have been using digital game-based teaching. The digital game-based teaching experience reported by the five participants ranged between five and 18 years. However, the majority confirmed not having real experience with DGBL until the Ministry of Education implemented the Madrasati platform during the COVID-19 pandemic. According to a statement made by P2,

We did not really give virtual classes before the pandemic, and I tried virtual class games for the first time following the lockdown in 2020.

Similarly, another EFL teacher (P1) reported having six years of digital game-based teaching experience but started delivering virtual classes during the pandemic:

I've been using games in my classes for about six years, but online games, since I started giving virtual classes.

On the other hand, two other EFL teachers reported using digital game-based teaching for less than one year, with one stating that they were still familiarizing themselves with the technology. Four participants reported learning about digital gaming after seeing a colleague train learner in a model lesson. However, P3 maintained that they knew about digital gaming before the introduction of the Madrasati platform but used it for the first-time during lockdown. When asked about how they first learned about digital gaming, P3 stated the following:

I've been using it for a long time, but I tried it first around the time of the lockdown when the classes were online in the Teams application provided by Madrasati.

In terms of frequency of teaching through digital game-based classes, the responses varied from weekly (P2) to not very often (P4). One EFL teacher reported that they used digital gaming for icebreaking purposes (P1), whereas others employed these instructional strategies depending on lesson type (P1) or a need basis (P3).

TABLE 1
PARTICIPANT DEMOGRAPHICS

Demographics	Particulars	Frequency	Quotes from the Interviews
Experience as primary school teacher	12 years	1	12 years (P2)
	18 years	1	18 years (P1)
	Five years	1	Five years (P1)
	Six years	1	This is my sixth year (P3)
	Nine years	1	Nine years (P4)

B. Experiences Using Digital Games in Virtual Classrooms

Based on participants' accounts, many EFL teachers maintained a positive perspective on their experiences of teaching in virtual classroom environments using digital game-based applications. Discussing the type of games provided to students in the virtual learning environment, one participant (P1) made the following comment:

The technology made it easier for teachers to draw on a virtual whiteboard, eliminating challenges encountered in conventional classrooms, including the wastage of educational resources (P1).

The same participant stated that, compared to traditional pedagogy,

Digital gaming has proven more effective in producing the required student engagement, making it more effective and superior in contemporary EFL learning contexts (P1).

Another teacher (P5) noted that,

With learning gamification, students devised novel ways to navigate learning challenges, for example, in situations where they do not know what drawings to make to match different texts.

Digital game-based tools such as puzzle games, PowerPoint games, and tic-tac-toe have embedded features that allow students to solve complex problems, enhancing their problem-solving capabilities. Some participants recommended engaging students in solving difficult puzzles as part of icebreaker activities to harness problem-solving skills. As P1 stated,

A puzzle or finding a hidden object game at the beginning of the lesson can be used as an icebreaker to incorporate digital games in the virtual classroom.

The SSIs revealed different ways in which EFL teachers from various primary schools in Al-Qunfudhah integrate digital games to support blended or virtual learning in modern classrooms. According to a response by P1,

I mainly use digital games at the beginning of lessons to introduce students to relevant concepts, as they can have a significant effect on learning motivation and participation.

Another participant (P3) underscored the value of digital gaming in the following ways:

Reducing boredom and increasing students' attention and concentration by providing opportunities for interactive and joyful learning.

In ice-breaking activities, digital games result in greater student engagement and positive experiences, leading to improved learning outcomes.

In terms of content areas preferred for delivery through digital game-based instructional approaches, the participants provided different responses, with PowerPoint games, speaking activities, and grammar exercises representing the most widely mentioned areas. As stated by one participant:

Digital games remain an indispensable component of the second language learning process, providing a way to introduce Arabic students to grammar exercises, linguistic content, and diverse English vocabulary (P2).

When deciding whether a game is able to provide the required fit and respond to specific learning needs, teachers focus on diverse aspects of their target EFL students, learning environments, and existing pedagogical standards. P1 and P3 described important sub-themes, such as the requirements for an engaging learning experience, lesson objectives, intended educational value, anticipated student skills, existing lesson plans, learning engagement, and the need to keep students on the right track, as critical factors that affect the choice of digital game for instructional purposes. On the

other hand, P4 stressed the following:

There is a need to adopt educational games that offer the required access to virtual learning features, incorporate enjoyment, fairness, and safety aspects, and have proven effectiveness in EFL classroom contexts.

Another construct examined through semi-structured interviews with the EFL teachers was the class attitude when delivering instruction through DGBL approaches. One participant (P3) stated that,

Despite my limited experience with educational digital games, I have observed improvements in classroom outlook since [using] the Teams application and Madrasati platform, with young learners showing greater excitement and increased learning motivation.

Technology has led to remarkable improvements in classroom participation, learning enjoyment, excitement, and student engagement with instructional processes.

C. Perceptions of the Benefits of Using Digital Games in the Virtual Classroom

(a). Increased Learning Engagement and Motivation

Based on a qualitative analysis of EFL teachers' perspectives and lived experiences, central themes emerged regarding the benefits of DGBL implementation in virtual classrooms. Different participants discussed the value of digital gaming in promoting students' engagement and motivation, leading to augmented learning outcomes and higher educational achievement. One teacher stated the following:

Newer generations see technology as an integral part of their lives, and using digital games may enable teachers to engage students who struggle to focus on lessons, especially since it is an online class and there is no eye contact with the students, which is a very important part of teaching (P5).

Digital gaming presents important opportunities for EFL teachers to design and deliver personalized pedagogies, increasing students' engagement and motivation toward learning. Another participant, P3, stated the following:

Digital games are more real and, therefore, more enjoyable and relevant to learners. These games provide a virtually enhanced world that encourages learners to use their imagination and discover new possibilities in a fun, interactive way.

Generally, digital games are more appropriate for addressing the instructional needs of primary school students.

(b). Enhanced Learning Experience

The majority of the EFL teachers associated DGBL approaches with enriched learning experiences, primarily by exposing students to tailored digital instruction and materials. One teacher (P1) stated that educational games help primary school students build relevant skills and knowledge needed for successful second language acquisition. Furthermore, P3 stated the following:

Digital games encourage the development of new digital strategies essential for students' learning experience.

Furthermore, game-based learning techniques stimulate students' imaginations by facilitating interactions with simulated content, promoting contextualized learning. Interacting with EFL students in virtual environments may present other benefits, such as improving a teacher's ability to maintain effective communication with students, leading to superior learning experiences. Aside from these benefits, P2 emphasized the importance of DGBL for developing knowledge, stimulating innovation, supporting language development, and encouraging students' cognitive involvement.

(c). Collaboration and Communication

Following a qualitative analysis of the central themes relating to learning gamification, the participants described different dimensions, suggesting the value of digital game-based learning applications for teacher-teacher and teacher-student collaboration and communication effectiveness. As noted by one participant,

Educational games allow students to learn how to build respect (P1).

In addition, digital gaming was described as doing the following:

It promotes inclusiveness by engaging all students at the same time and giving everyone a chance to participate, which may not always be possible through the conventional methods (P5).

The interview findings highlight other positive aspects of DGBL, including promoting effective communication, fostering positive learning collaborations, encouraging active listening, promoting teamwork by encouraging peer group exchanges, increasing student networking, and building respect in virtual classrooms. Self-reported accounts by P1 and P2 suggest that DGBL effectively increases classroom cooperation, which may considerably impact academic outcomes.

(d). Flexibility and Convenience

In addition to the benefits of digital gaming as deployed in virtual classrooms, EFL teachers pointed out how the technology has contributed to learning flexibility and increased convenience in instructional processes. One of the participants affirmed the following:

As a teacher, I love the spatial and temporal flexibility offered by digital games, as these aspects often result in better work experiences, significant time savings, greater accessibility to pedagogical materials, and unparalleled convenience (P1).

The identified advantages of digital pedagogy for time management, educational access, and spatial flexibility imply that Al-Qunfudhah's primary schools that use this pedagogy are likely to benefit from increased productivity and better academic outcomes.

D. Perceived Challenges of Using Digital Games in the Virtual Classroom

(a). Unintended Effects on Students' Learning

Aside from the benefits of gamified instructional processes, the thematic analysis uncovered the potential adverse consequences of digital gaming on student learning. The analysis revealed potential negative effects, such as the low memorability of pedagogical content administered through gamified methods (P3) and the time constraints associated with technology setup and deployment in classroom environments.

(b). Technical and Practical Challenges

In parallel with the challenges associated with digital gaming, interview findings link this pedagogy to an increased frequency of technical problems and exposure to practical challenges.

(c). Behavioral and Social Concerns

Prolonged exposure to and interaction with gamified pedagogy may exacerbate behavioral problems and promote antisocial dispositions among learners. Participant 2 (P2) stated that digital game-based instructional methods are addictive, which increases students' propensity to develop behavioral gaming addictions, obstructing learning effectiveness. Given the students' young age, the risk of distraction during virtual instruction remains high since not all learners can exercise self-control and maintain their focus on learning. Another of the EFL teachers stated the following:

Devices such as laptops and tablets are bound to become sources of distraction to students (P3).

The challenge of digital gaming extends to ordinary issues and difficulties encountered by teachers and students in simulated environments. As indicated by one EFL teacher,

Students often find it hard to revert to non-gamified instruction after experiencing digital game-based instruction (P4).

E. Perceived Impacts of Using Digital Games in the Virtual Classroom

(a). Flexibility and Environmental Impact

Based on empirical evidence, the study identified the potential impacts of virtual teaching through educational games on students' and teachers' flexibility and on the physical environment. One of the EFL teachers highlighted the following:

The results that I have observed when using digital games as part of instruction are that this paradigm is much more effective than conventional teaching methods in that teachers can easily switch between games, which generally has a smaller environmental impact (P3).

(b). Improved Student Performance

Students' access to EFL instruction through virtual classrooms may boost their performance, as DGBL provides increased opportunities for students to become actively engaged and experience faster learning, as indicated by one of the EFL teacher's statements:

Students' performance showed greater improvement using the flipped education strategy as part of a blended learning approach compared to using other educational approaches (P1).

(c). Technology and Resources

Interacting with gaming technologies allows teachers and students to become familiar with these educational resources and capitalize on their positive aspects to realize the desired academic outcomes. While discussing the underlying benefits of digital innovation and its relevance in Saudi Arabian primary schools, P5 underlined the following:

Digital games offer a valuable tool that EFL trainers may exploit to enhance their knowledge of technology and deploy innovations to address resource access issues in classroom environments.

V. DISCUSSION AND IMPLICATIONS

This study highlights the significant benefits and challenges of developing and including DGBL tools as a component of mainstream curricula to support virtual learning for EFL students in Saudi Arabian primary schools. Empirical evidence suggests that educational games lead to greater student engagement as young students use the motivational and enjoyment aspects of digital games to stimulate interactions and involvement with the pedagogical content. Five primary school teachers in Al-Qunfudhah who participated in semi-structured interviews reported having gaming experience of between five and 18 years, suggesting a strong background in and rich understanding of the educational field, particularly in terms of DGBL. As primary agents for successful DGBL implementation, teachers must explore methods to attain the required knowledge, competencies, and technology-relevant skills (Kaimara et al., 2021). In this

context, participants relied on online resources and recommendations from fellow teachers to expand their knowledge of DGBL use to facilitate effective teaching when these tools emerged as the only available option for learning continuation during the COVID-19 pandemic. However, the scope of application for educational games in Al-Qunfudhah primary schools during the pandemic was limited to icebreaking sessions to reduce boredom and increase engagement. Furthermore, many teachers adopted DGBL on a need basis, such as to increase students' attention and motivate learning engagement.

From this perspective, the qualitative inquiry explored participants' experiences by obtaining and using descriptive data thematically and inductively to determine their perceptions of and positions on digital gaming in virtual EFL learning environments. EFL teachers were selected using non-randomized purposive sampling from different primary schools in Al-Qunfudhah, Saudi Arabia. Furthermore, different game types and the ways in which they affected students' engagement, experience, and overall academic outcomes were itemized. Teachers provided digital games, including icebreakers, complex puzzles, PowerPoint-based games, word-picture matching exercises, and other virtual tasks, to elicit positive responses and enhance learning involvement. Through using educational games, EFL teachers experienced few challenges in capturing and sustaining students' attention and concentration, encouraging active participation, and addressing such issues as boredom (Lampropoulos et al., 2019). This evidence is consistent with previous literature and conceptual frameworks that have established a link between interactive learning tools such as digital gaming and positive outcomes such as students' engagement and improved educational outcomes (Anastasiadis et al., 2018; Duncan, 2020). Educational games such as icebreakers expose learners to prior learning activation, increasing their engagement with subsequent learning tasks (Premo & Cavagnetto, 2018). However, the qualitative study identified some significant challenges and potential drawbacks of digital game-based learning, particularly in primary school contexts, as discussed by Anastasiadis et al. (2018). Notably, digital gaming may sometimes be ineffective due to unaddressed challenges related to its technical aspects, deficiencies at the teachers' level, and undesirable behavior on the students' side.

In terms of the different types of educational games, the study indicated a greater preference for DGBL tools and instructional practices aligned with specific learning objectives, students' needs, and lesson goals. Developing educational games while considering these requirements may be useful in producing the required learning engagement, increasing students' focus and involvement, optimizing educational value, and adapting instructional processes to conform with established pedagogical standards (All et al., 2016). In this context, constructive alignment guarantees that a digital game will provide the correct design, maintain consistency with the learning objectives, and produce the intended experiences and outcomes for EFL teachers and students.

Evidence supports the importance of constructive alignment in enhancing learning outcomes in schools that use digital games to complement traditional instruction. According to Anastasiadis et al. (2018), focusing on constructive aspects when designing digital games inspires teachers to maintain positive attitudes and focus on the educational value and relevance of these tools in fostering student engagement and knowledge development. Wang and Han (2021) conclude that gamifying EFL teaching offers students an immersive and gameful experience, increasing their involvement with language production processes. A study by Ostovar-Namaghi et al. (2023) analyzed empirical findings from a qualitative investigation and linked interactive pedagogies to benefits such as improved grammar comprehension and the production of a diverse English vocabulary among non-native speakers. Learning contextualization results in authentic learning interactions, improved English language usage, and superior learning experiences (Yadav & Oyelere, 2021). Therefore, teachers should seek to minimize students' lack of focus and attention to non-constructive features in game-based learning environments.

The study elaborates on other significant outcomes of introducing DGBL in virtual classrooms at Al-Qunfudhah schools. A key finding is that digital gaming provides opportunities to drive flexibility, reduce environmental demand by facilitating the shift from paper-based learning, support multiple access, and deliver cost advantages, given that teachers and students do not have to make tedious, costly trips to and from physical classrooms as is the case with traditional instruction (Velaora et al., 2022). Digital gaming makes a significant positive impact on students' learning performance. Delivering instruction through gamified methods contributes to dynamic classroom settings in which students maintain constant interactions and are engaged with learning, leading to high motivation, collaboration, and cognitive involvement. Moeller et al. (2020) investigated the potential consequences of digital gaming on instructional effectiveness, emphasizing that these technologies result in greater engagement and more positive experiences. Furthermore, the qualitative study explores the prominence of flipped education strategies, identifying the positive consequences of e-learning, education digitization, and urban education on academic outcomes. The transition towards flipped education strategies produces high content engagement, enabling students and teachers to exploit digital resources to supplement learning (Ristanto et al., 2022). In light of these findings, teachers should explore methods to use digital gaming to support collaboration and increase engagement in virtual instructional environments.

Furthermore, participants expressed their understanding of the challenges that have slowed digital gaming development and the integration of these innovations in virtual classrooms. Given the susceptibility to technical failures, student distraction, time constraints, low memorability, and the risk of technology misuse, many EFL teachers have challenged the effectiveness and relevance of digital gaming compared to conventional classroom practices. Lampropoulos et al. (2019) contend that, unlike DGBL approaches, in-person instruction allows interactive physical

engagement, suggesting that traditional classrooms are more likely to satisfy interpersonal learning needs, which is difficult to achieve with DGBL. As a pedagogical approach, DGBL supports interactive learning in virtual spaces but does not incorporate learning aspects such as continuous feedback and interpersonal exchanges, which are more accessible with in-person instruction (Lampropoulos et al., 2019).

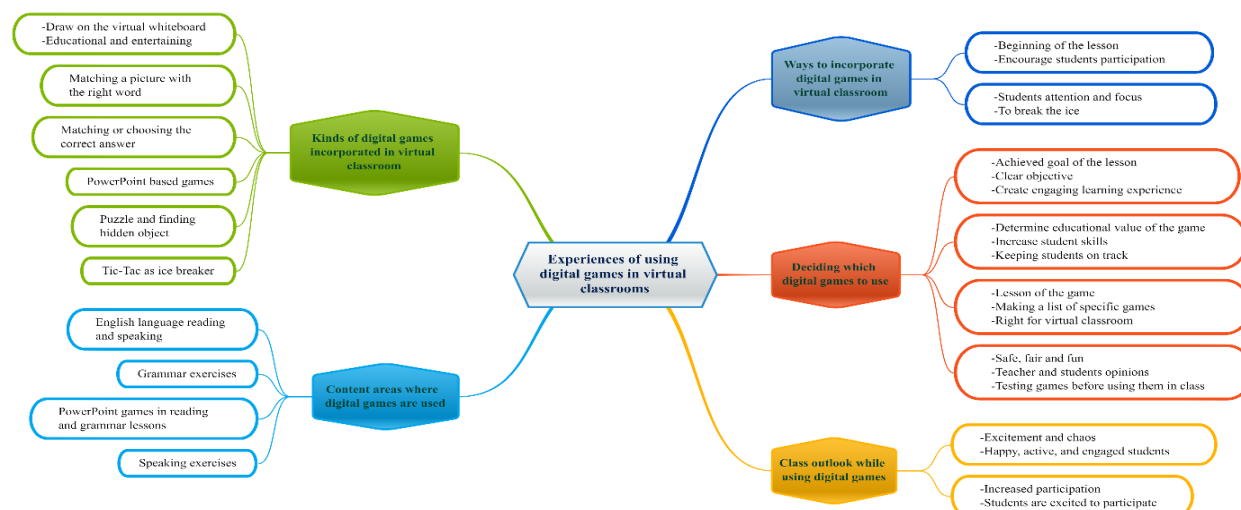
VI. CONCLUSION

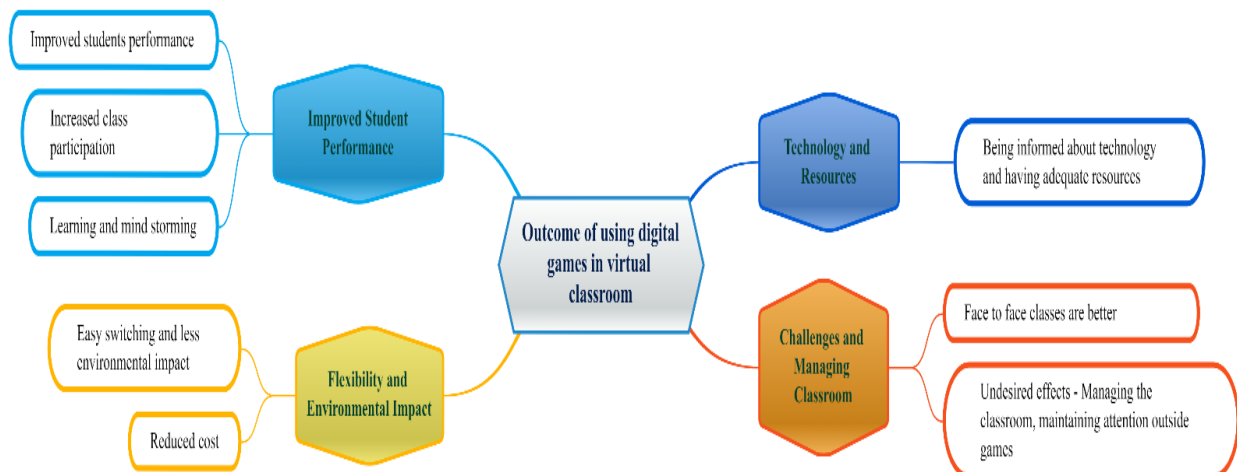
Empirical findings from the investigation reveal that educational games employed in Al-Qunfudhah primary schools by EFL teachers are positively correlated with students' engagement, enjoyable instruction, and enhanced academic outcomes. EFL teachers use educational games to deliver information and meet learning objectives for English students across areas such as English language teaching, PowerPoint games, speaking activities, and grammar exercises. Qualitative evidence links digital game-based EFL instructional approaches to the enhancement of English skills, the constructive alignment and attainment of learning objectives, and the delivery of the intended educational value. These factors influence decisions to integrate DGBL tools in formal school environments and shape perceptions among EFL teachers regarding effectiveness. The study associated DGBL with positive outcomes, such as enhanced cognitive and emotional engagement with digital pedagogy, increased motivation, and quicker language development. However, this pedagogy is more susceptible to problematic student behavior, adverse learning effects, and technical issues. Therefore, educational administrators and EFL teachers in Al-Qunfudhah should explore ways of reducing the unintended effects of digital gaming, in order to drive flexibility, support collaboration, and transform the instructional experience for primary school students.

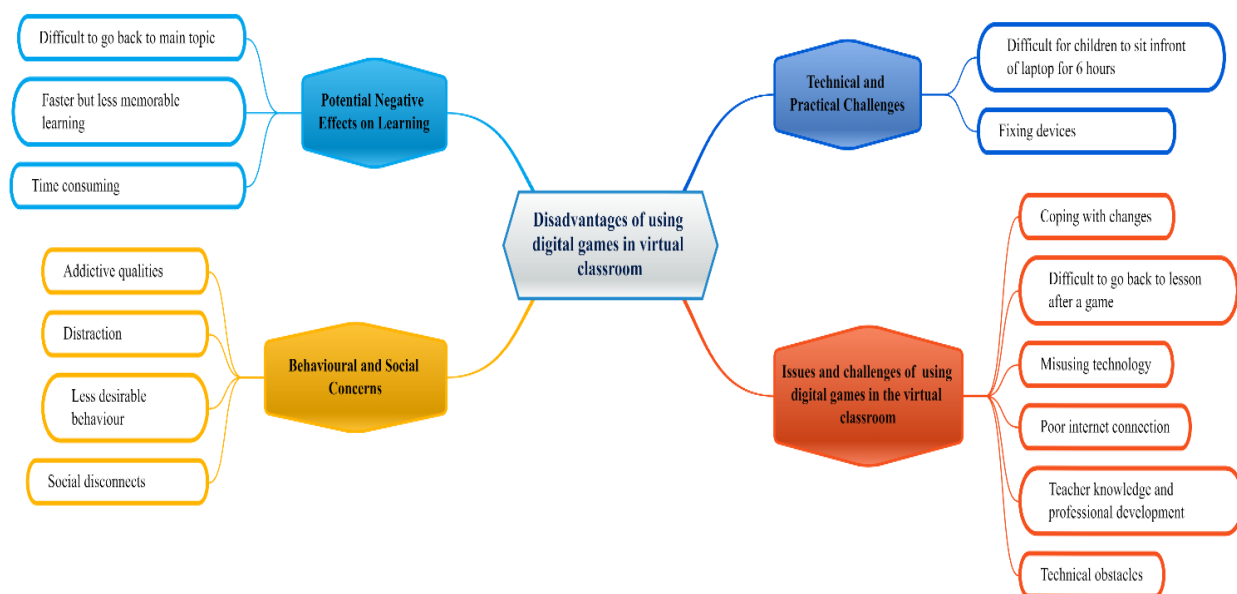
Research evidence outlines the path for future researchers to extend research on digitization and recent concepts such as digital gaming and related outcomes for diverse students and teachers. Moreover, future studies should consider different methodological approaches, such as using a quantitative and longitudinal stance to quantify the impact of educational games. Researchers could investigate the technological effects and compare the outcomes of digital pedagogies such as DGBL on students within a specified period of intervention exposure.

Finally, additional research should use randomized methods of data collection to address research limitations such as under-coverage bias and low generalization, which are associated with non-probabilistic purposive sampling.

APPENDICES







Interview Questions:

Background information (Questions 1-3)

- 1) How many years have you been a primary school teacher?
- 2) How did you first learn about digital gaming?
- 3) How long have you used digital games in your virtual classroom?

How DGBL is Used in the Classroom (Questions 4-8)

- 4) How often do you incorporate digital games into your virtual classroom?
- 5) What kinds of digital games do you incorporate in your virtual classroom?
- 6) In what ways do you incorporate digital games in your virtual classroom?
- 7) What can you tell me about the content areas where you use digital games more often?
- 8) Overall, describe what your class looks like when using digital games.

Positive and Negative Influencers (Questions 9 - 15)

- 9) What aspects do you like about using digital games in the virtual classroom?
 - A) What aspects do you dislike about using digital games in the classroom?
- 10) What are the benefits you perceive in using digital games in the virtual classroom?
 - A) What drawbacks do you perceive in using digital games in the virtual classroom?
- 11) (a) What benefits do you see in using digital games compared to other approaches?
(b) What challenges do you confront in using digital games compared to other approaches?
- 12) How do you decide which digital games to use? Or not to use it?
- 13) In what ways do you find educational digital games easy to use in the virtual classroom? Or is it not easy to use in the virtual classroom?
- 14) Describe how you experimented with games before using them in the virtual classroom.
- 15) What results have you observed when using digital games as part of instruction?

Concluding Question

- 16) Is there anything else you feel is important for me to know about digital games in your virtual classroom?

REFERENCES

- [1] Admiraal, W., Huizenga, J., Akkerman, S., & Ten Dam, G. (2011). The concept of flow in collaborative game-based learning. *Computers in Human Behavior*, 27(3), 1185–1194. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.chb.2010.12.013>
- [2] Alam, A. (2022, April). A digital game-based learning approach for effective curriculum transaction for teaching-learning of artificial intelligence and machine learning. In *2022 International Conference on Sustainable Computing and Data Communication Systems (ICSCDS)* (pp. 69–74). IEEE. <https://doi.org/10.1109/ICSCDS53736.2022.9760932>
- [3] Aldossry, B. (2021). Evaluating the Madrasati platform for the virtual classroom in Saudi Arabian education during the time of the COVID-19 pandemic. *European Journal of Open Education and E-learning Studies*, 6(1), 89–99. <https://doi.org/10.46827/ejoe.v6i1.3620>
- [4] All, A., Castellar, E. P. N., & Van Looy, J. (2016). Assessing the effectiveness of digital game-based learning: Best practices. *Computers & Education*, 92, 90–103. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.compedu.2015.10.007>

- [5] Almaiah, M. A., Hajje, F., Lutfi, A., Al-Khasawneh, A., Shehab, R., Al-Otaibi, S., & Alrawad, M. (2022). Explaining the factors affecting students' attitudes to using online learning (Madrasati Platform) during COVID-19. *Electronics*, 11(7), 973. <https://doi.org/10.3390/electronics11070973>
- [6] Aprea, C., & Ifenthaler, D. (2021). Looking Back and Moving Forward with Game-Based Learning Across the Disciplines. In C. Aprea & D. Ifenthaler (Eds.), *Game-based Learning Across the Disciplines* (pp. 395-407). Cham: Springer International Publishing. https://doi.org/10.1007/978-3-030-75142-5_18
- [7] Alsuhaymi, D., & Alzebidi, A. (2019). Saudi teachers' perceptions regarding adopting digital games in teaching practice. *Turkish Online Journal of Educational Technology-TOJET*, 18(4), 62-69. Retrieved January 31, 2024, from <http://www.tojet.net/articles/v18i4/1846.pdf>
- [8] Anastasiadis, T., Lampropoulos, G., & Siakas, K. (2018). Digital game-based learning and serious games in education. *International Journal of Advances in Scientific Research and Engineering*, 4(12), 139-144. <https://doi.org/10.31695/ijasre.2018.33016>
- [9] Attard, C. (2013). "If I had to pick any subject, it wouldn't be maths": Foundations for engagement with mathematics during the middle years. *Mathematics Education Research Journal*, 25(4), 569-587. <https://doi.org/10.1007/s13394-013-0081-8>
- [10] Azman, H., & Farhana Dollsaid, N. (2018). Applying Massively Multiplayer Online Games (MMOGs) in EFL Teaching. *Arab World English Journal*, 9(4), 3-18. <https://dx.doi.org/10.24093/awej/vol9no4.1>
- [11] Campbell, S., Greenwood, M., Prior, S., Shearer, T., Walkem, K., Young, S., Bywaters, D., & Walker, K. (2020). Purposive sampling: Complex or simple? Research case examples. *Journal of Research in Nursing*, 25(8), 652-661. <https://doi.org/10.1177/1744987120927206>
- [12] Chang, C. Y., & Hwang, G. J. (2019). Trends in digital game-based learning in the mobile era: A systematic review of journal publications from 2007 to 2016. *International Journal of Mobile Learning and Organisation*, 13(1), 68-90. <https://doi.org/10.1504/IJMLLO.2019.10016603>
- [13] Charlier, N., & De Fraine, B. (2012). Game-based learning in teacher education: A strategy to integrate digital games into secondary schools. *International Journal of Game-Based Learning*, 2(2), 1-12. <http://doi.org/10.4018/ijgbl.2012040101>
- [14] Chiang, H. (2020). Kahoot! In an EFL reading class. *Journal of Language Teaching and Research*, 11(1), 33-44. DOI: <http://dx.doi.org/10.17507/jltr.1101.05>
- [15] Demirbilek, M., Yilmaz, E., & Tamer, S. (2010). Second language teachers' perspectives about the use of educational games. *Procedia-Social and Behavioral Sciences*, 9, 717-721. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.sbspro.2010.12.223>
- [16] Duncan, K. J. (2020). Examining the effects of immersive game-based learning on student engagement and the development of collaboration, communication, creativity, and critical thinking. *TechTrends: For Leaders in Education & Training*, 64(3), 514-524. <https://doi.org/10.1007/s11528-020-00500-9>
- [17] Ebrahimzadeh, M., & Alavi, S. (2016). Motivating EFL students: E-learning enjoyment as a predictor of vocabulary learning through digital video games. *Cogent Education*, 3(1), 1255400. <https://doi.org/10.1080/2331186x.2016.1255400>
- [18] Finlay, L. (2021). Thematic analysis: The 'good,' the 'bad,' and the 'ugly'. *European Journal for Qualitative Research in Psychotherapy*, 11, 103-116. Retrieved January 31, 2024, from <https://ejqrp.org/index.php/ejqr/article/download/136/93/393>
- [19] Fletcher, J. L. (1971). The effectiveness of simulation games as learning environments. *Simulation & Games*, 2, 425-454. <https://doi.org/10.1177/003755007100200403>
- [20] Foster, A., & Shah, M. (2020). Principles for advancing game-based learning in teacher education. *Journal of Digital Learning in Teacher Education*, 36(2), 84-95. <https://doi.org/10.1080/21532974.2019.1695553>
- [21] Hartt, M., Hosseini, H., & Mostafapour, M. (2020). Game on: Exploring the effectiveness of game-based learning. *Planning Practice & Research*, 35(5), 589-604. <https://doi.org/10.1080/02697459.2020.1778859>
- [22] Hwa, S. P. (2018). Pedagogical change in mathematics learning: Harnessing the power of digital game-based learning. *Journal of Educational Technology & Society*, 21(4), 259-276. <http://www.jstor.org/stable/26511553>
- [23] Johnson, J. L., Adkins, D., & Chauvin, S. (2020). A review of the quality indicators of rigor in qualitative research. *American Journal of Pharmaceutical Education*, 84(1), 7120. <https://doi.org/10.5688/ajpe7120>
- [24] Kaimara, P., Fokides, E., Oikonomou, A., & Deliyannis, I. (2021). Potential barriers to implementing digital game-based learning in the classroom: Pre-service teachers' views. *Technology, Knowledge and Learning*, 26(4), 825-844. <https://doi.org/10.1007/s10758-021-09512-7>
- [25] Khan, A., Ahmad, F. H., & Malik, M. M. (2017). Use of digital game-based learning and gamification in secondary school science: The effect on student engagement, learning and gender difference. *Education and Information Technologies*, 22, 2767-2804. <https://doi.org/10.1007/s10639-017-9622-1>
- [26] Lampropoulos, G., Anastasiadis, T., & Siakas, K. (2019, April). Digital game-based learning in education: Significance of motivating, engaging and interactive learning environments. In *24th International Conference on Software Process Improvement: Research into Education and Training (INSPIRE 2019)* (pp. 117-127). <https://www.bcs.org/media/5862/inspire-2019-proceedings.pdf#page=117>
- [27] Liu, Z. Y., Shaikh, Z. A., & Gazizova, F. (2020). Using the concept of game-based learning in education. *International Journal of Emerging Technologies in Learning (IJET)*, 15(14), 53-64. <https://doi.org/10.3991/ijet.v15i14.14675>
- [28] Mahayanti, N. W. S., Kusuma, I. P. I., & Wibawa, S. (2020). Digital Game-Based Learning in EFL: Its effect on young learners' self-regulated learning. *The Asian ESP Journal*, 16(2), 5-30. Retrieved January 31, 2024, from <https://www.elejournals.com/asian-esp-journal/volume-16-issue-2-1-april-2020/>
- [29] Moeller, K., Ninaus, M., & Greipl, S. (2020). Potential and limits of game-based learning. *International Journal of Technology Enhanced Learning*, 12(4), 363. <https://doi.org/10.1504/ijtel.2020.10028417>
- [30] Ostovar-Namaghi, S. A., Morady Moghaddam, M., & Rad, E. (2023). The effect of interactive games on English language learners' reading comprehension and attitudes. *Asia Pacific Education Review*. <https://doi.org/10.1007/s12564-023-09883-9>
- [31] Premo, J., & Cavagnetto, A. (2018). Priming students for whole-class interaction: Using interdependence to support behavioral engagement. *Social Psychology of Education: An International Journal*, 21(4), 915-935. <https://doi.org/10.1007/s11218-018-9445-y>

- [32] Ristanto, R. H. (2022). *Flipped Classroom--Digital Game-Based Learning (FC-DGBL): Enhancing Genetics Conceptual Understanding of Students in Bilingual Programme*. ERIC. *Journal of Turkish Science Education*, 19(1), 332–352. Retrieved February 1, 2024, from <https://eric.ed.gov/?id=EJ1343783>
- [33] Sabourin, J. L., & Lester, J. C. (2013). Affect and engagement in game-based learning environments. *IEEE Transactions on Affective Computing*, 5(1), 45–56. <https://doi.org/10.1109/T-AFFC.2013.27>
- [34] Tokarieva, A. V., Volkova, N. P., Harkusha, I. V., & Soloviev, V. N. (2019). Educational digital games: Models and implementation. *Educational Dimension*, 53(1), 5–26. Retrieved January 31, 2024, from <https://elibrary.kdpu.edu.ua/bitstream/123456789/3838/1/005-026.pdf>
- [35] Velaora, C., Dimos, I., Tsagiopoulou, S., & Kakarountas, A. (2022). A game-based learning approach in digital design course to enhance students' competency. *Information*, 13(4), 177. <https://doi.org/10.3390/info13040177>
- [36] Vogt, S. (2018). *Middle school teachers' use and perceptions of digital game-based learning* (Publication No. 6290) [Doctoral dissertation, Walden University]. ScholarWorks. <https://scholarworks.waldenu.edu/dissertations/6290>
- [37] Wang, Z. & Han, F. (2021). Developing English language learners' oral production with a digital game-based mobile application. *PLoS ONE*, 16(1), e0232671. <https://doi.org/10.1371/journal.pone.0232671>
- [38] Yaccob, N. S., & Yunus, M. M. (2019). Language games in teaching and learning English grammar: A literature review. *Arab World English Journal*, 10(1), 209–217. <https://dx.doi.org/10.24093/awej/vol10no1.18>
- [39] Yadav, A. K., & Oyelere, S. S. (2021). Contextualized mobile game-based learning application for computing education. *Education and Information Technologies*, 26, 2539–2562. <https://doi.org/10.1007/s10639-020-10373-3>

Ghidaa Mohammad Al-Harbi holds a Bachelor's degree in English Language from Umm Al-Qura University, and a primary level English language teacher in Al-Qunfudhah City. Currently, certified English language Teacher, and an MA student in TESOL at the English language institute, King Abdulaziz University, Jeddah, Saudi Arabia.

Abeer Ahmed Madini is an Associate professor at the English Language Institute in King Abdulaziz University. She was granted her PhD in Applied Linguistics from the University of Queensland, Brisbane, Australia in 2012, and she was also granted her Master degree in Applied Linguistics from the Same University (UQ) in 2007.

The Representation of Nature in Ibn-Khafaja's and Wordsworth's Poetry: A Comparative Stylistic Study of Selected Poems

Abdullah M. Ibrahim

Department of Arabic Language, The University of Jordan, Jordan

María de las Mercedes Delgado Pérez

Faculty of Philology, The University of Seville, Spain

Emad A. Abuhammam

The University of Seville, Spain

Abstract—This study analyzes the depiction of nature in poetry, especially in Ibn-Khafaja's and Wordsworth's selected poems. This study is based on New Criticism's conceptual, analytical, and theoretical approaches. New Criticism studies the achievement of the works' meanings by studying their "interrelationships of sound, texture, structure, rhetoric, and a host of other literary devices" (Bressler, 2011, p. 57). The significance of the study is to provide a parallel comparative study between these two poets whose religions, traditions, languages, and eras are dissimilar. Ibn-Khafaja recognizes his surrounding nature as the ideal and beautiful place where people feel relaxed, hopeful, and pleased. He states that humankind and nature are originally adapted to each other, and people are always fascinated by the beauty of nature. He sees nature as the typical shelter to stay happy and peaceful. He is fascinated by the images of the mountains, horses, birds, and trees. On the other hand, Wordsworth shows nature as a place of happiness, perfectness, and peace. He accentuates the deep relationship between human beings and nature, and how people admire nature in its beautiful images. Wordsworth presents how the fascinating images of nature can affect man's mood and mind.

Index Terms—comparative stylistic study, Ibn-Khafaja, nature, poetry, Wordsworth

I. INTRODUCTION

This study shows a parallel comparative study between Ibrahim Ibn-Khafaja, a Spanish Andalusian poet, and William Wordsworth, an English poet. Ibn-Khafaja is an Andalusian poet; he is Ibrahim Bin-Abu Al-Fatih Bin Abdulah Ibn-Khafaja. He was called Abu-Is-Haq. He was born in (1058 CE) in Alzira near Valencia, Spain during the reign of the Almoravids. He died in (1139 CE). His poetry was influenced by other classical poets of Arabic literature, such as Abu-Tammam and Al-Mutanabi. Ibn-Khafaja was fascinated by the beauty of nature in Al-Andalus, Spain, this is depicted in one of his poems as in the following stanza, he says:

For the paradise in Al-Andalus,
There is a fantastic beauty and beautiful breath
That lit its morning by perspicuity
And dimmed its night by the perfectness
Whenever the wind is blown
I scream for Al-Andalus longingly. [Our Translation]
(Al-Taba', 2013, p. 6)

Metaphorically depicted, he admires Al-Andalus's beauty of nature as it is the beauty of paradise, where the paradise takes its blessing and beauty from Al-Andalus. He treats it as the spiritual relief of his soul. He presents different images of spring, mountains, birds, trees and other natural objects. His poems are simple, clear, rhymed, and metaphorically depicted.

The English Poet William Wordsworth lived in the Lake District of England and he was born in 1770. Wordsworth admires nature and its views too. He is considered the first romanticist and modern poet of Europe and England.

Wordsworth expresses his love and passion for nature through poetry. While poetry for him is "a spontaneous overflow of powerful feelings" (Wordsworth, 1802, p. 4), nature is his place of peace and pleasure. Abuhammam and Al-Matarnah (2021) state that nature for Wordsworth is "his shelter of tranquility and love where every human being has the right to stay in peaceful coexistence" (p. 1394). It is indeed that Wordsworth celebrates nature and interacts with it happily. This study compares the poetical images and lines depicting the nature of Ibn-Khafaja in the Andalusian Muslim tradition and that of the English poet William Wordsworth. This comparison includes analyzing the poetic styles, metaphors, similes, and paradoxes based on New Criticism's approaches.

New Criticism is a critical theory that focuses on studying literary texts as “a concrete object that can, like any other concrete objects, be analyzed to discover its meaning independent of its author’s intentions or the emotional state or values” (Bressler, 2011, p. 318). New Criticism studies texts away from the ethical, emotional, and mental motifs. It studies texts through language and style. It provides the meaning of the texts based on “close reading” that concentrates on analyzing the texts aesthetically. New Criticism deals with the texts as being objective, impersonal, and realistic. John Ransom is considered the first critic to use this term in his analyses. He states that he also called the critics of New Criticism “ontological critics” while referring to discovering the meanings of the poems through reading the text independently from the author’s feelings and attitudes.

Eliot states in his essay “Tradition and The Individual Talent” that the poet should not treat the poem with his personal and emotional perspectives. Regarding Eliot’s concept, poetry “is not freeing of the poet’s emotions, but an escape from them. He sees it as an impersonal formulation of common feelings and emotions” (Bressler, 2011, p. 55).

Ultimately, New Criticism focuses basically on reading texts by analyzing various literary devices used in the poems. It shows the poem’s metaphors, personifications, styles of composition, rhyme schemes and paradoxes...etc. It considers the poem’s unity, which is called “organic unity” that treats texts interrelated to explain the poems’ essential themes and ideas. This is what this essay attempts to analyze according to Ibn-Khafaja’s and Wordsworth’s selected poems.

II. RESEARCH QUESTIONS

- 1- How do Ibn-Khafaja and Wordsworth depict nature in these selected poems?
- 2- To what extent do Ibn-Khafaja and Wordsworth believe that nature influences the human’s mood and pleasure?
- 3- How do they symbolize nature?
- 4- What main parallel, similar, thematic, and linguistic contexts are depicted in the selected poems?
- 5- How does each poet deal with each natural object separately?

III. RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

This comparative study relies on the theoretical and analytical approaches of comparative methods. Ibn-Khafaja’s and Wordsworth’s selected poems will be analyzed stylistically to explain the themes and thoughts to show the significance of these two poets’ poetries. Moreover, the study presents how each poet treats and shows nature, and how he portrayed it similarly in each poem.

Comparative methods will be used to analyze different images of nature by studying them against one another and presenting the significance that each poem contains. This study adopts some practical and theoretical aspects of the New Criticism theory that involves analyzing the personifications, rhyme schemes, paradoxes, images...etc. The two poets present all related aspects of nature through poems while they provide the ideal space for convenient approaches to nature. In this case, poetry has more than poetical intentions and clues. The samples of the study are Ibn-Khafaja’s “The Mountain”, “The Bird”, “The Ark Tree”, and “The Horse” poems. The study also examines the representation of nature in Wordsworth’s “Morning in the Mountains”, “To the Cuckoo”, “The Fountain”, “The Haunted Tree”, and the “The Horse” poems.

IV. DISCUSSION AND ANALYSES

Ibn-Khafaja, an Andalusian poet from Spain, and Wordsworth, an English poet, are compared in this study. The investigation contrasts William Wordsworth’s and Ibn-Khafaja’s descriptions of nature in the English literary tradition and the Andalusian-Muslim heritage. This comparison includes examining the compositional style, poetic symbols, metaphors, similes, and allusions and pictures. The parallelism in the key parallel positions and the seeming changes each of them has experienced to its ethnic sources, however, are what are most noteworthy.

The investigation of this parallel study will start with the thematic and depicted images. For example, Wordsworth in “Morning in the Mountains” poem presents the speaker as personifying the mountain as a human being who has a soul. This soul is on the tops of the mountains. This mountain is the highest top among the other mountains in which it notices and sees how the sun rises. This mountain is also personified by a person who sees how the sun shines and laves the world with its sunshine:

O THEN what soul was his, when, on the tops
Of the high mountains, he beheld the sun
Rise up, and bathe the world in light! He looked—
Ocean and earth, the solid frame of earth
And ocean’s liquid mass, beneath him lay
(Emerson, 1880, p. 20)

The persona concludes with an exclamation about how this mountain looks like the only top that notices the sun rise in the morning “Rise up and bath the world in light! He looked”. The speaker depicts another personification as the mountain looks like people who can see things.

Metaphorically said, the mountain looked like the “Ocean and earth, the solid frame of the earth” in a happy mood. It is assumed that this mountain is depicted in a comparison with the lowest point of the universe “Ocean and earth” which refers to the happiness in the highs among other mountains, while the gladness is also in the lowest points because of the mountain’s roots in the land and its tops in the highs. The paradox is clear in the next lines:

And ocean’s liquid mass, beneath him lay
In gladness and deep joy. The clouds were touched,
And in their silent faces did he read
Unutterable love. Sound needed none,
(Emerson, 1880, p. 20)

This paradox shows how the speaker shifts in using the lowest points of the universe with the highest “clouds” in the sky. It presents how this mountain feels this pleasure from the ocean and lands up to the clouds and the sky. In another metaphor presented, the mountain is shown high as it touches the clouds where they have “silent faces”, “And in their silent faces did he read”, through personification, it is explained that these clouds have silence and the mountain can read and notice it. It is “unutterable love” that the speaker attempts to reach. The alliteration of the words “spectacle, sensation, and soul” is used to show that the mountain feels, sees, and needs to melt them into him. These terms make him alive when the speaker says: “And by them did he live, they were his life”.

Spiritually depicted, the speaker asks for more pleasure from the God in which he feels that it has finished. He says:

Of visitation from the living God,
Thought was not; in enjoyment it expired.
No thanks he breathed, he proffered no request;
Rapt into still communion that transcends
The imperfect offices of prayer and praise,
His mind was a thanksgiving to the power
That made him; it was blessedness and love
(Emerson, 1880, p. 20)

Metaphorically said at the end of the poem, there is a spiritual invitation to live, pray and praise God recognizing his ability to create the human mind and power. This mind and power are presented with “blessedness and love”.

Ibn-Khafaja presents parallel images of the mountain in his famous poem “The Mountain”. He says:

It is tall, aspirant, and lofty
Reaching the sky’s parties in their highs
Blocking the wind’s directions
And competes on a night when its meteors are high
[Our Translation]. (Al-Taba’, 2013, p. 48)

The speaker personifies the mountain as “tall, aspirant, and lofty”. Furthermore, it can reach the high sky in which it looks proud and bright. This mountain blocks the wind, and it stands the longest and the greatest among other mountains. The persona shows its image as an “Immobile” object that can be strong and confident. This confidence is caused by its personification as a thinking creature as shown in the next lines:

The longest highs thinking of the consequences
While the black clouds spread on it
They look red for the flashing lightening
I listened to it, while it is silent and dumb
[Our Translation]. (Al-Taba’, 2013, p. 48)

The speaker moves on to conclude a new personification as the mountain tells about secretive actions at night when all people are sleeping and away. This mountain is shown as telling speeches. This speech is between the speaker and the mountain. It is metaphorically portrayed as another talking person. The mountain’s dialogue with the speaker concludes that it was the place of sinners and repentants. The speaker mentions:

I listened to it, while it is silent and dumb
And the night told me secretive wonders
It said: how you were a shelter of killers?
And a habitat of the nagging who returned repentant
And how many repentant and penitent crossed me?
And how the rider and the ridden talked under my shadow
[Our Translation]. (Al-Taba’, 2013, p. 48)

Indeed, at night there are a lot of people who cross the mountains complaining about their distress and dilemmas. That is what the mountain tells us. It is shown as the shelter of the killer who feels sinner for killing people. The whole stanza is a paradox due to the speaker’s declaration that the mountain tells him these secrets. While at the beginning of the stanza, it is presented as “silent and dumb”. The mountain continues by explaining that during the night, it becomes “a habitat of the nagging who returns repentant”. As Wordsworth, the mountain at the end of the poem is spiritually depicted as the place where all people go and get rid of their sins. The speaker attributes the image of death to the image of the mountain and the sea for the feeling of comfort that he feels whenever he listens to the mountain.

Metaphorically, the image of the mountain is indulged with death to show the stability of this proud and strong mountain during its lifetime, and people can live and die while it is constant and alive. At the end of the poem, Ibn-Khafaja portrays the image of God as merciful. The persona asks his God to guide him with wisdom in his lifetime, while he also prays to him to live with peace.

Oh, my Lord's mercy, it is a weakling's pray
Who asks for your mercy willingly
Let me listen to your wisdom and lesson
That can be used in those experiences
Then, it enjoyed me for what it got me sad
It was the best friend of the gladness
Then I said definitely
Peace, I am a dweller and a leaver [Our Translation]
(Al-Taba', 2013, p. 48)

The persona depicts the image of gladness with the image of the mountain. It can be peacefully shown as a living matter too. Eventually, Wordsworth and Ibn-Khafaja portray the images of the mountain as proud, strong, lofty, gigantic, and high. They personify them as living matters that can see, speak, notice, and recite speeches. These mountains are paired with human pleasure and self-peace. They are also coupled spiritually with God. Wordsworth's God is portrayed as praised and thankful for making the poet's blessings and mind, while Ibn-Khafaja's God is depicted as the praised, merciful, and the source of gladness.

Wordsworth delivers a new, and different natural object in his poems. He depicts the images of the bird creatively in his "To the Cuckoo" and "The Fountain" poems. In "To the Cuckoo", he portrays the cuckoo in a regular rhyme scheme as not only a bird, it is the source of happiness. The speaker calls it and wonders if it is only a bird or not. The speaker begins his poem by describing his situation as being in a garden while he listens to this bird. He says:

O blithe New-comer! I have heard,
I hear thee and rejoice.
O Cuckoo! shall I call thee Bird,
Or but a wandering Voice?
(Doren, 1951, p. 640)

Based on the first line, the poem begins with an exclamation and calls the bird "O blithe New-comer! I have heard," it presents how the speaker wonders about the beauty of this twittering bird. It lets him remember something in the past by saying at the end of the same stanza "Or but a wandering Voice?". This question may show how the bird moves on with its pleasure from one place to another. The speaker keeps showing his mood as being on the grass while he was amazed and attracted by its "twofold shout", this lets him be focused to listen to its rapture:

While I am lying on the grass
Thy twofold shout I hear;
From hill to hill it seems to pass,
At once far off, and near
(Doren, 1951, p. 640)

The speaker declares that the beauty of the bird's voice is accompanied by the beauty of spring in its beautiful images of "sunshine and of flowers". These beautiful images bring to the speaker a past visionary that can be shown during the speaker's boyhood.

The same whom in my school-boy days
I listened to; that Cry
Which made me look a thousand ways
In bush, and tree, and sky.
(Doren, 1951, p. 640)

The speaker explains his reaction to the bird's cry as being in unfamiliar settings of the "In bush, and tree, and sky". The persona recognizes that he misses this bird's cry since his boyhood. He enjoys the way the bird twittering, he says:

To seek thee did I often rove
Through woods and on the green;
And thou wert still a hope, a love;
Still longed for, never seen
(Doren, 1951, p. 640)

At the end of the stanza, the persona describes the bird as "blessed" because it makes people pleased with its voice. The persona explains that the place where the Cuckoo comes is the best place to live. Indeed, it is the home of two beauties, the beauty of spring and the beauty of the bird's "voice" twittering in the garden. That is what the last exclamation in the last line shows.

O bless'd Bird! the earth we pace
Again appears to be
An unsubstantial, faery place;

That is fit home for Thee!
(Doren, 1951, p. 640)

This is what Ibn-Khafaja presents in parallel content. At the beginning of his “The Bird” poem, the persona admires the way that the bird twitters. He uses a metaphor of showing the bird as eloquent. This bird sings in the orchards, while the speaker listens to its sound. He says:

The bird was eloquent until it delivered a speech
And the branch lightens it until it got flickers!
And spread rapture among a beating shadow, which is
Wet, while there was flowing water [Our Translation]
(Al-Taba’, 2013, p. 53)

The speaker presents his mood as happy and attractive. The poem begins with a personification of the bird. This bird is “eloquent”, it can compose very distinctive rhymes, songs, and speeches through its twittering “The bird was eloquent until it delivered a speech”. The persona continues his image by waving the branch. This branch could move and dance to the beauty of the bird’s twittering. This bird causes happiness by spreading and filling the gardens with its rapture. The speaker delivers a metaphor in the next lines by saying “Afraid in the garden which is the sister of death”. This refers to the bird’s welter and sadness. These mutable feelings of the bird could represent its beautiful rapture and twittering:

Afraid in the garden which is the sister of death
And fills by the wine which is the mother of rapture
Holding from the cann’s daughters
Green branches that hold fresh greenness
[Our Translation]. (Al-Taba’, 2013, p. 53)

The persona shares his pleased mood for his hearing of the bird’s sound, while he was listening to it. He uses the metaphor “And fills by the wine which is the mother of rapture”. This indicates the bird’s beautiful twittering. The speaker mentions spring and refers to its greenness as “Green branches that hold fresh greenness”, it is used to attribute this pleased mood to the beauty of the spring. The speaker personifies the branches as happy for the beauty of the bird’s twittering, and the beauty of spring with its greenness:

They look leafy and smiling
Wetting it by the blown wind
Decorated and uberous with gold
Spreading its breaths one time
And flirting it so much
Then it smiled looking satisfied [Our Translation]
(Al-Taba’, 2013, p. 53)

The speaker mentions the word “gold” which refers to a beautiful color indulged by the greenness of spring to draw a very fantastic image of nature that gets glad for the bird’s existence in it. This green home keeps the bird pleased while all people and hearers stay in a happy mood. This is what Wordsworth presents in “The Fountain” poem in a regular rhyme scheme. He depicts the image of the blackbird and the lark as singing their corals in nature. These two birds can get quiet when they will:

The blackbird amid leafy trees,
The lark above the hill,
Let loose their carols when they please,
Are quiet when they will.
(Doren, 1951, p. 210)

The whole tone of this poem’s stanzas looks pleased with the deep image of nature that makes all people happy. After the portrayal of these two birds and their sounds, he moves on to represent the “happy youth” and the “old age” as being “beautiful and free”. This old age can lead the people to be more pleased due to the beauty of the bird and nature:

With Nature never do they wage
A foolish strife; they see
A happy youth, and their old age
Is beautiful and free
(Doren, 1951, p. 210)

In the following stanza, the persona shows the gloomy part of being indulged by the beauty of the birds and nature. It is an invitation to join the beauty of nature to stay glad and free:

But we are pressed by heavy laws;
And often, glad no more,
We wear a face of joy, because
We have been glad of yore
(Doren, 1951, p. 210)

It is indeed that nature is on the cusp of Wordsworth's and Ibn-Khafaja's poetic depiction. Furthermore, the images of the trees are also depicted aesthetically in their poems. Wordsworth presents the image of the Oak tree in "The Haunted Tree" in a clear metaphor as a lady who is very beautiful and charming. Wordsworth starts the whole poem by describing the mood and tone of the poem as pleased and hopeful with nature. This tree is paired with the wonderful images of nature. The speaker says:

Those silver clouds collected round the sun
His mid-day warmth abate not, seeming less
To overshadow than multiply his beams
By soft reflection, grateful to the sky,
To rocks, fields, woods. Nor doth our human sense
Ask, for its pleasure, screen or canopy
(Khan, 2002, p. 1)

In these initial lines, the speaker refers to the sky and the clouds before depicting the images of the tree. He recognizes a relationship between nature and the human senses as being glad about the beautiful images of "rocks, fields, and woods). The persona describes clearly the Oak tree that spreads its blossom beautifully as an artistic action:

More ample than the time-dismantled Oak
Spreads o'er this tuft of heath, which now, attired
In the whole fulness of its bloom, affords
Couch beautiful as e'er for earthly use
Was fashioned; whether, by the hand of Art,
(Khan, 2002, p. 1)

In the next lines, the speaker presents through an irregular rhyme scheme a unique metaphor by showing this Oak tree as an eastern Sultan who is among the flowers. He moves on to express more about how this tree can be chased:

That eastern Sultan, amid flowers enwrought
On silken tissue, might diffuse his limbs
In languor; or, by Nature, for repose
Of panting Wood-nymph, wearied with the chase.
O Lady! fairer in thy Poet's sight
(Khan, 2002, p. 1)

The speaker concludes with a new personification depicting the tree as a lady. This lady attracted the poets to compose. The Oak tree is depicted as the "spiritual creature" in the groves among other visible creatures. This tree is coupled with the word "rest" so all people can feel relaxed to feel and see it. The speaker says:

O Lady! fairer in thy Poet's sight
Than fairest spiritual creature of the groves,
Approach; and, thus invited, crown with rest
The noon-tide hour: though truly some there are
(Khan, 2002, p. 1)

In the exclamation above "O lady!", the persona introduces it to show that this tree is spiritually compared with other creatures in the groves. The speaker moves to depict the tree as a constant object and not changeable, especially at the time of "noon tide". The speaker uses the tide as a factor in changing things while the wind and water make things unstable. It is factual that this tree does not move for its "creaking sound". The persona shows a line written between two branches in the following line "above the general roar of woods and crags", this line presents the sound of this tree's roar as the highest and the scariest sound of nature:

(Above the general roar of woods and crags)
Distinctly heard from far, a doleful note!
As if (so Grecian shepherds would have deemed)
The Hamadryad, pent within, bewailed
(Khan, 2002, p. 1)

The speaker continues explaining the tree's different roars in a new metaphor as it is higher than the "Grecian shepherd" who is repressed. The speaker presents his metaphor between brackets to emphasize his profound sense of this shepherd's distress. The tree's sound is louder than this shepherd's dilemma. The speaker concludes the representation of this Oak by showing how it can be in danger. This danger is caused by the haunting ghost, while it can kill the tree's old trunk and beauty. He says:

By ruder fancy, that a troubled ghost
Haunts the old trunk; lamenting deeds of which
The flowery ground is conscious. But no wind
Sweeps now along this elevated ridge;
(Khan, 2002, p. 1)

The speaker finishes the poem with a beautiful image of nature and how its objects make people delighted, and affect their moods and mind. He says:

Than his coevals in the sheltered vale
 Seem to participate, the while they view
 Their own far-stretching arms and leafy heads
 Vividly pictured in some glassy pool,
 That, for a brief space, checks the hurrying stream!
 (Khan, 2002, p. 1)

Similarly, Ibn-Khafaja treats the Ark tree in the same way. In “An Ark Tree”, he presents it in a defamiliarized setting. The speaker shows it spreading a “dewy sky” over the people. He describes it as a huge and beautiful tree that covers the scope. This tree touches the galaxy for its length. This galaxy spreads roses with its stars on it. The speaker portrays it as:

An Ark tree spread a dewy sky over us
 While the scopes of gladness are given
 Swishing by its frame a galaxy
 That spread roses by its stars on it
 [Our Translation]. (Ibn-Khafaja, 2021, p. 1)

The speaker moves to describe this tree’s water channel by portraying a simile of this channel as being a “belle” who holds a “girdle on her waist”. The persona presents the beauty of this belle while she wears a girdle as the charm of this tree standing in the garden. The speaker follows this simile with a new simile in which the tree is like a bride at a wedding. The word “glass” is used for the personification of it as bringing it as a bride. The image of this bride the (tree) is personified by the image of the blossom which is spread:

It is with its water channel like
 A belle that holds a girdle on her waist
 The glass brought her in a bridal
 That was presented while the blossom was spread too
 In a meadow that its darkness is a shadow
 And it was bright lights [Our Translation]
 (Ibn-Khafaja, 2021, p. 1)

The speaker presents a new metaphor for this tree. It stands in the meadow while its darkness is a shadow, and it is very beautiful and bright. This tree has a “smelled perfume” in which it shows its smell and fragrance:

In a meadow that its darkness is a shadow
 And it was bright lights
 A singer who decorates his beautiful ornament for me
 From it, it was herniated by his smiled perfume
 [Our Translation]. (Ibn-Khafaja, 2021, p. 1)

It is indeed that this singer composes and sings for this tree’s beauty and perfectness. The speaker follows this stanza with a metaphor of the dew as being ripe. It is shown with the image of the blossom while the water is metaphorically presented as wearing costumes of shyness. The tree is depicted as shy as the girl. The speaker finally concludes the poem by the significance of water to let this Oak tree keeps alive and yielding:

He sang to it while the dew got ripe
 And directed the soil, then the blossom got up
 And water is worn from the shyness’s costumes
 [Our Translation]. (Ibn-Khafaja, 2021, p. 1)

Similarly, Ibn-Khafaja and Wordsworth depict different images of nature of other natural objects like the horse and the foal. They present masterpieces portraying the images of horses. For instance, in Ibn-khafaja’s “The Horse” poem, he presents the horse metaphorically as perfect, beautiful, strong, and patient at the beginning of the poem. The speaker says:

A tamer of the horse’s perfectness affair
 It is standing and for the patience, it is thirsty
 You see for the boyhood, a fire in his cheeks
 He does not have a smoke in his facial hair
 He watered it while the crescent moon appears
 [Our Translation]. (Ibn-Khafaja, 2021, p. 1)

The speaker metaphorically shows the horse as thirsty for patience. He also refers to boyhood as a mark of kindness, freshness, power, and youngness. He uses the metaphor “fire in his cheeks” to enhance the readers’ attention to how this horse looks young and beautiful. The speaker follows it with another metaphor “that does not have a smoke in his facial hair”, which refers to the beauty and power of this horse. The speaker relates the beauty of the horse with the beauty of the “crescent moon” as:

As it got serpentine and sharp in the fighter’s hand
 It is distinctive and generous
 And it did not fornicate in the belle’s girl while it’s a horse

And the Blackhorse was wandering for the black bridle
 The lightening is its bullwhip and the North is its bridle
 [Our Translation]. (Ibn-Khafaja, 2021, p. 1)

The persona presents a different personification by saying that the horse is generous and distinctive. The horse can be also used in social gatherings and celebrations. Moreover, the black horse is faster than lightning and the North is presented as the place where all horses go and people love to visit.

The speaker finishes the poem with a metaphor in the last line showing the light as the only mark, this image of the light makes the horse's coming bright and exciting. While it can be a source of beauty and happiness, in the same line, the speaker depicts the image of the breeze with the image of the horse. It is metaphorically portrayed as the horse's tongue while it breathes and runs:

The sunshine appeared on it as a garden
 While it fell on it a pearl
 It grew many trees in the meadows
 While the light is its mark, and the breeze is its tongue
 [Our Translation]. (Ibn-Khafaja, 2021, p. 1)

Similarly, Wordsworth depicts the images of the foal as Ibn-Khafaja's depiction. Wordsworth presents in his "The Horse" poem many obvious images of the little horse, the foal. Wordsworth begins his poem with a personification, in which the foal is presented as "generous" as human beings. This generosity comes in the planes while it runs. He says:

The foal of generous breed along the plains
 Walks stately, balanced on his easy joints,
 Round are his hips, his belly short, his neck
 Lofty, and sharp his head with muscles swoln;
 His breast exults luxuriant, all on fire,
 No idle sound appals him of the herd,
 (Doren, 1951, p. 488)

Through an irregular rhyme scheme, the speaker continues his description of the foal as confident, strong, beautiful, and balanced. As Ibn-Khafaja, Wordsworth portrays the image of the foal with the word "fire", which refers to stability, generosity, and power "His breast exults luxuriant, all on fire". The speaker describes the foal's image whenever it walks attempting everything powerfully and confidently.

First he devours the road, the stranger bridge
 Attempts, and throws himself upon the threatening flood;
 He hears the din of distant arms, his feet
 Chafe, shudder his erected ears, his limbs
 (Doren, 1951, p. 488)

The speaker mentions metaphorically the word "fire" again in the next line to show the readers how this foal is strong and beautiful "Tremble; beneath his nostrils clouds of fire". The speaker moves on to present the horse's speed as the fastest animal. Metaphorically said, the horse is like the wind in its speed, it flies away for its speed. While it produces its "neighings shrill", in which this fly is coupled with the foal's beautiful whicker. Eventually, the speaker presents the image of this horse with its beautiful whicker while it looks exciting, strong, and walking stately.

V. CONCLUSION

This investigation tackles the depiction of nature in the selected poems through a profound study. It investigates and studies the depiction of nature aesthetically and emotionally. Nature in Ibn-Khafaja's selected poems is shown as the perfect place for beauty and perfectness. He tackles nature as a metaphor to recreate his pleasure and comfort, therefore, he shows his treatment of nature through the surrounding images of the natural objects around him. He was influenced by nature and its metaphorical and emotional allusions. For Ibn-Khafaja, nature is the place where he feels relaxed, happy, and excited. The poet presents his emotions and reactions to nature through very regular rhyme schemes and rhythms to render feelings because of noticing nature's beauty, therefore, he shows the deep connection between humankind and nature. Ibn-Khafaja's admiration and love of nature were based on his feelings and senses. The poet feels happiness and comfort while he depicts the images of the mountains, trees, horses, and birds. He tastes the flavor of the natural objects and smells the scent of nature.

Similarly, Wordsworth was indulged by the gigantic nature and its images around him. He depicts the images of nature as his place of peace, love, and tranquility. He portrays nature as the perfect place for happiness and comfort. Al-Matarneh and Abuhammam (2021) state that Wordsworth sees nature "as the source for man's pleasure and perfectness. This pleasure comes from the human's interaction with nature in its beautiful images of spring, flowers, clouds, and animals" (p. 1394). Metaphorically, Wordsworth sees nature as the source of pleasure. This pleasure is the source of man's relaxation and peace. Wordsworth says: "the pleasure which I have proposed to myself to impart is of a kind very different from that which is supposed by many persons to be the proper object of poetry" (Wordsworth, 1802, p. 3).

Furthermore, Wordsworth treats the images of the mountains, horses, birds, and trees as natural objects that lead to human pleasure and comfort. Their images are the reasons for tasting nature and feeling its beauty. Eventually, these

two poets admired nature and its beauty. Their linguistic style of presenting their poetic images could get into the readers' feelings and reactions. Their nature used in the poems is deeply depicted as the conscious process of making people pleased and excited. These two poets bestow a perfect image of nature's beauty through their own style of language.

REFERENCES

- [1] Al-Matarneh, Mohamad., Abuhammam, Emad. (2021). The Images of Nature in Wordsworth's and Al-Bohtory's Poetry: A Comparative Study of Selected Poems: *Theory and Practice in Languages Studies*, 11(11), 1384-1395.
- [2] Al-Taba', Omar. (2013). *[diwan Ibn-Khafaja]*. Lebanon: Dar Al-Andalus.
- [3] Bressler, C. (Ed). (2015). *an introduction to theory and practice*. (5th ed.). Library of Congress.
- [4] Doren, M. (1951). *The works of William Wordsworth*. New York: Random House.
- [5] Emerson, Ralph. (1880). *An anthology of poetry*. Boston: Osgood and Company.
- [6] Khan, J. (2002). Wordsworth's "The Haunted Tree" *A Political and Dialogical Reading*. Retrieved July 10 from <https://doi.org/10.1093/fmls/38.3.241>
- [7] Ibn-Khafaja, Ibrahim. (2021). *Ibn-Khafaja's Diwan*. Retrieved Jul 12 from <https://ar.m.wikisource.org>
- [8] Ibn-Khafaja, Ibrahim. (2010). *Ibn-Khafaja's Poems*. Retrieved Sep 8 from <https://alsh3r.com/poems/view/30789>
- [9] Wordsworth, William. (2021). *Preface to Lyrical Ballads*. Retrieved Apr 17 from <https://web.english.upenn.edu/jenglish>

Abdullah M. Ibrahim is an Associate Professor at the Department of Arabic Language at the University of Jordan. He obtained his Ph.D from the University of Jordan in 2011. He is currently the head of the Arabic Language Department at the University of Jordan. Abdullah has published many papers in Arabic Abbasid poetry and literature.



María de las Mercedes Delgado Pérez is a lecturer at the University of Seville, Spain. She teaches at the Philological Studies Faculty-Department of Integrated Studies. She obtained three master's degrees, Information and Documentation, Translation in Arabic and Spanish Languages, and Contemporary Arabic World. She teaches Arabic and Islamic courses, and she is the head of the History, Civilization, and Arabic Islamic Studies Research Group established at the University of Seville. Maria is interested in publishing research related to culture, literature, translation, and civilization, especially Arabic and Islamic culture, and civilization.



Emad Abdallah. Abuhammam is currently a Ph. D student at the University of Seville, Spain majoring in Philological Studies and Comparative Literature studies in poetry. He is a part-time instructor of the English Language at the University of Jordan in the Languages Center/ English Language Section. He completed his MA in English Literature from Mutah University - Karak-Jordan/2021, and a bachelor's degree in English Language and Literature from Tafila Technical University - Tafila-Jordan/2016. Emad has published many articles in reputable journals in poetry. He is interested in comparative studies in poetry.

Back-Translation as a Tool for Identifying Language Change

Made Susini*

Faculty of Letters, Warmadewa University, Denpasar, Indonesia

I Wayan Ana

Faculty of Letters, Warmadewa University, Denpasar, Indonesia

Abstract—This study concerns the use of back-translation as a tool for identifying language change. This research is based on theories of back-translation (Baker, 1992) and language change (Campbell, 1998), focusing the use of this tool to identify shifts in language usage from lexical, morphological, and syntactical points of view. The original texts used for this study are the Indonesian novels *Sitti Nurbaya* (Rusli, 1922, ed. 2010), *Sukreni Gadis Bali* (Tisna, 1936, ed. 2013), and *Salah Asuhan* (Moeis, 1928, ed. 2013). The language used in these literary works is known as old Indonesian. All three novels have been translated into English: the first keeping its original title, *Sitti Nurbaya* (Fowler, 2009), *Sukreni Gadis Bali* as *The Rape of Sukreni* (Quinn, 2012), and *Salah Asuhan* as *Never the Twain* (Susanto, 2010). These English translations have in turn been translated back into Indonesian. The language used in these back-translated texts is present-day Indonesian, as used by speakers today. When the old Indonesian and contemporary Indonesian versions are compared, discrepancies may arise, even though the meanings of both texts are the same. These differences are considered to signify changes in the language. Our findings show that this back-translation method can be applied to understand changes in Indonesian usage. These include lexical changes, such as the word *sebagai* being replaced by *seperti*, or *sekalian* replaced by *semua* or *seluruh*; morphological changes, such as *diobat* changing into *diobati*, or *menghinakan* into *menghinia*; and syntactical changes, such as the term *suka kepada* being replaced by *suka*.

Index Terms—back-translation, old and present-day Indonesian, language change

I. INTRODUCTION

Every living language tends to develop over time in accordance with changes in various aspects of life. This implies that all languages may change and that this process cannot be prevented or avoided (Campbell, 1998, p. 3). Whether or not this change has occurred can be traced by comparing the language used nowadays with that used previously. When differences arise, it may indicate that there has been a shift in usage.

Indonesian is an example of a language that has exhibited many changes over the past century. There are numerous literary works written decades ago in a language now known as old Indonesian. When these are read by present-day speakers of Indonesian, some lexis and grammatical structures may be hard to understand. Readers often find that certain words and structures are not understandable, as the language used in these literary works is different from that used by modern Indonesian speakers. This is proof that Indonesian has changed in certain ways, including lexical and grammatical shifts.

Comparing old versions of Indonesian with new ones is one way to trace language change. Given the ways in which this comparative method is applied, this approach is much the same as the process of back-translation. Back-translation is a common term used in translation studies. It refers to the method of re-translating texts that have been translated into another language back into the original language in which they were written. This method is commonly used to assess translation quality. It is carried out by comparing the results of the back-translation with the original text. For example, when a work is translated from Indonesian into English, the translated English text will be translated back into Indonesian. The two Indonesian texts are then compared. When differences occur, they may be indications of translation errors in the target language version (Tyupa, 2011).

A number of translation experts believe that the value of back-translation as a tool to validate translation results is still debatable (Son, 2018). On the one hand, some consider that the process can strengthen awareness of linguistic differences between one language and another (Li, 2016; Guo, 2017; Rosyidah et al., 2017), with one study finding that back-translation has a positive effect on the quality of translation (Yanti et al., 2020). On the other hand, others argue that problems arising from the procedure of validating translation quality through back-translation are not clearly mentioned (Tyupa, 2011). When a difference occurs between the back-translated result and the original text in terms of word choices, but not in meaning, the target language version cannot be termed an error since the words are simply synonyms. In other words, whether the translation shows equivalence or not will depend on the result of the analysis or review process, which itself determines whether the two texts produce the same response or not (Nida & Taber, 1969, p.

* Corresponding Author.

164).

When the differences are those of meaning, the back-translation method can be considered a useful assessment tool to validate a translation and identify any errors. When the original and the back-translated texts do not show differences in meaning, this may be used as a measure of translation quality. This implies that the back-translation method can be applied to investigate other language phenomena, which makes it a tool of interest to researchers in other areas (Son, 2018; Ozolins, 2009).

Numerous studies have been concerned with translation quality. Some works focus on the quality of translation in dealing with culture-specific elements (Gümüş & Gültekin, 2021), such as the need for automated translation tools to translate certain cultural expressions (Çakır & Bayhan, 2021). Other researchers have explored the issue of translation quality more specifically by using the back-translation method as a tool. A study by Guo has explored how both language and translation method choices can be adapted to make an authentic, accurate, and smooth translation (Guo, 2017). Another study demonstrates that back-translation can be applied as a tool of language documentation (Son, 2018). Back-translation has been viewed from a variety of different perspectives, such as translation theories of intertextuality and interculturality (Cai, 2021), or the theory of acculturation (Chen & Li, 2018). Researchers have also demonstrated that back-translation can be used in a wide variety of research fields, ranging from medical texts (Ozolins, 2009) to literary works (Chen & Li, 2018). At an analytical level, applying contrastive analysis, back-translation tends to be viewed from the perspective of word choices, collocation, and sentence mechanics (Li, 2016).

Despite this large body of research, there are no studies which have examined back-translation in relation to language change. Therefore, deploying separate theories of back-translation (Baker, 1992) and language change (Campbell, 1998), this study is an attempt to prove another merit of back-translation as a tool for identifying changes in language use. Changes are discovered by comparing two related versions of the same or similar languages. They are revealed when the two versions show the same meanings but use different word choices, or when any aspect of an older linguistic structure cannot be found any more in the most recent version. The subject explored here is the Indonesian language. This investigation was carried out by comparing old Indonesian, used in novels written several decades ago, and their back-translated texts from English into modern Indonesian.

II. THEORETICAL FRAMEWORK

The key concepts of this study include back-translation and language change. The following descriptions of these concepts are used as references in elaborating the data.

A. Back-Translation

Back-translation is a common term in translation studies. This method has a popular function to validate the quality of a translation. As its name suggests, Baker (1992) defines back-translation as involving translating the target text back into the source language from which it is originally translated (p. 8). He also adds that in translating the already-translated text back into the original text, the text must be translated as literally as possible. The process of back-translation is as follows: firstly, the translated text is re-translated back into its source language; secondly, the result of back-translation is compared with the original text. Thirdly, any differences in meaning between the result of the back-translation and the original text are reconciled.

Li (2016) summarizes five functions of back-translation (p. 816) as follows: (1) as a tool to assess the quality of translation; (2) as a tool in language and translation teaching; (3) as a good way to preserve culture; (4) as an approach to improve language learning; and (5) as a tool for research. The function of back-translation as a research tool is based on observations by Baker (1992), that by performing a back-translation, learners can gain some insight into dealing with the various linguistic features of the languages involved in the translation process (p. 8).

B. Language Change

Language change is a fact of life which cannot be prevented or avoided (Campbell, 1998, p. 3). It is revealed in the comparison of related languages. Language change is different from language variation. In language variation, no one word or structure is inherently superior to another, since they may be dialects of the same language (Chineze et al., 2021, p. 748).

All aspects of a language's structure can change. Linguistically, these include lexical change, grammatical (syntactic and morphological) change, semantic change, sound change, borrowing, and orthographic change.

Lexical change concerns instances of loss of vocabulary items, which are then represented by other words. Old English shows lexical changes that are evident in Modern English; for example, *genēalæton* was replaced by *approached*, *cwædon* by *said*, and *gesweotolað* by *shows* and *reveals*. Lexical change may be accompanied by the creation of new words through analogy, borrowing, semantic change, or neologism. The sources of neologisms include new words created by authors or famous people, as well as place names, brand (trade) names, acronyms, compounding of words, and so forth. During the COVID-19 pandemic, numerous new English words were created that can be found on social media and in books, articles, and the news. New terms include "WFH" (for "working from home"), "new normal", "coronials", and "self-quarantine" (Nabila & Abdulrahman, 2021, p. 24).

Grammatical changes include both syntactic and morphological alterations. Syntactic changes involve three underlying mechanisms: reanalysis, extension, and borrowing. The reanalysis mechanism changes the underlying structure of a syntactic construction; the change does not modify the surface manifestation. Changes in grammatical categories and word order are examples of reanalysis. In the mechanism of extension, there is a change in surface manifestation; this does not involve direct modification of the underlying structure. Examples of changes of extension include a change in the subordinate clause or a move from reflexive to passive. Syntactic change can also occur because of syntactic borrowing. One language may borrow the syntactic structures of another, for example.

Semantic change concerns the change of meaning. This is understood as a change in the concepts that are associated with a word. Such semantic changes may occur through widening and narrowing of meaning, metaphor, metonymy, synecdoche, degeneration, elevation, taboo replacement, hyperbole, and semantic shifts due to language contact.

Sound changes constitute phonemic or non-phonemic changes. In general, they can be categorized into regular and sporadic sound changes. Regular sound changes occur and take place uniformly whenever the phonetic circumstances in which the change occurs are encountered: in other words, whenever the circumstances or environments that condition the change arise. In Spanish, for example, the original *p* regularly became a *b* when it occurred between vowels. This implies that whenever the sound *p* comes between vowels, it becomes a *b* sound.

By comparison, when sporadic changes occur, these changes are not generally applied. Such changes cannot be predicted and they only affect one or a few words. For instance, the Old English *spræc* lost the *r* in Modern English, becoming *speech*. Yet when other sounds appear within this context, the *r* is not generally lost as in *spræc*. One study dealing with language change, carried out on the Minang language and Sijunjung dialect in Indonesia, revealed that the Minang language and Sijunjung dialect have several prominent dissimilarities in terms of phonological aspects. The changes found include the change from the alveolar /r/ to the voiced velar fricative /gh/, from /r/ to /w/, from /a/ to /o/, and /a/ to /aw/ (Antoni et al., 2019, p. 92)

Borrowing takes place when one language takes words from another and includes it as parts of its vocabulary. Both need and prestige are considered as reasons why a language borrows words from other languages (Campbell, 1998). What can be borrowed is not restricted to lexical items. All linguistic items can be borrowed, such as sounds, syntactic patterns, phonological rules, grammatical morphemes, and so forth. Because of borrowing, many similar words can be found in different languages. One example is the Indonesian *tembakau*, the Finnish *tupakka*, and the Japanese *tobacco*.

III. METHOD

This study deals with changes that have occurred in the Indonesian language. The research was carried out by identifying the differences between Indonesian texts in their old and present-day versions. The texts were taken from three Indonesian novels which use old Indonesian. These novels were written and published nearly a century ago or more: *Sitti Nurbaya* by Marah Rusli in 1922, *Sukreni Gadis Bali* by Nyoman Pandji Tisna in 1936, and *Salah Asuhan* by Abdul Moeis in 1928. All of these novels have since been translated into English: *Sitti Nurbaya* as *Sitti Nurbaya* (Fowler, 2009), *Sukreni Gadis Bali* as *The Rape of Sukreni* (Quinn, 2012), and *Salah Asuhan* as *Never the Twain* (Susanto, 2010). The editions of the original Indonesian source texts used are *Sitti Nurbaya* (2010), *Sukreni Gadis Bali* (2013), and *Salah Asuhan* (2013).

To obtain the present-day Indonesian texts, the translated texts (TTs) were translated back into Indonesian. The TTs chosen were the ones which show adequate translations of the original or source texts (ST). Every text was translated by 10 students of English Department, Faculty of Letters, Warmadewa University, Bali, Indonesia. So, one translated text has 10 back-translated texts (BT1 up to BT10). The BTs were then considered as representing present-day Indonesian.

The changes which occurred in the Indonesian language were assessed according to the following steps. Firstly, the original texts in old Indonesian were compared with their back-translated texts. This analysis was carried out at the levels of lexical and grammatical change. In terms of lexical change, the words in old Indonesian were compared with their present-day Indonesian equivalent. When the two words compared showed different forms but the same meaning, the original text was considered to have undergone a language change. The same analysis was carried out for changes at the grammatical level, including morphological and syntactical changes.

IV. RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

The results of the comparisons between the original texts, termed old Indonesian, and their back-translated texts, termed new Indonesian, show that differences exist between the older and present-day versions of Indonesian in terms of the lexis used but not in terms of their meaning, which are the same. These differences can be identified as evidence of language change. The research reveals that this change occurs at both lexical and grammatical levels. Grammatical changes include morphological and syntactic differences. This indicates that the method of back-translation can be used as a tool to identify language change, including lexical, morphological, and syntactic shifts.

A. Back-Translation Used to Identify Lexical Change

When the results of the back-translation are compared with the old Indonesian text, some changes are seen to have occurred. A number of old Indonesian words are found to have been replaced by other Indonesian terms in the new

version. These are elaborated in the following table.

TABLE 1
LEXICAL CHANGE OF INDONESIAN LANGUAGE

No	SL	TT	BT	The Change
1	sebagai	like	seperti	<i>sebagai</i> replaced by <i>seperti</i>
2	sedemikian	like that	seperti itu	<i>sedemikian</i> replaced by <i>seperti itu</i>
3	sekalian	all	semua, seluruh	<i>sekalian</i> replaced by <i>semua; seluruh</i>
4	bilik	room	kamar, ruang	<i>bilik</i> replaced by <i>kamar; ruang</i>
5	terlebih	the most	paling	<i>terlebih</i> replaced by <i>paling</i>
6	kocek	pocket	kantung; kantong; saku	<i>kocek</i> replaced by <i>kantung; kantong; saku</i>
7	seroman	identical	mirip, identik	<i>seroman</i> replaced by <i>mirip; identik</i>
8	daripada	from	dari	<i>daripada</i> replaced by <i>dari</i>
9	bila	when	kapan	<i>bila</i> replaced by <i>kapan</i>
10	sejurus	a moment	sebentar, sesaat, sejenak	<i>sejurus</i> replaced by <i>sebentar; sesaat; sejenak</i>
11	dapat	able to	bisa	<i>dapat</i> replaced by <i>bisa</i>
12	belanja	the money	uang	<i>belanja</i> replaced by <i>uang</i>
13	reguk	gulp	teguk	<i>reguk</i> replaced by <i>teguk</i>
14	langsai	be erased	lunas, dibayarkan; dihapus	<i>langsai</i> replaced by <i>lunas, dibayarkan; dihapus</i>
15	diburu-burukan	in a rush	dengan cepat; dengan terburu-buru; terburu-buru	<i>diburu-burukan</i> replaced by <i>dengan cepat; dengan terburu-buru; terburu-buru</i>
16	bersedia-sedia	prepare	menyiapkan; mempersiapkan	<i>bersedia-sedia</i> replaced by <i>menyiapkan; mempersiapkan</i>
17	bercerai	separated	berpisah; terpisah	<i>bercerai</i> replaced by <i>berpisah; terpisah</i>
18	bersangka	thought	mengira	<i>bersangka</i> replaced by <i>mengira</i>
19	nanti	wait	menunggu	<i>nanti</i> replaced by <i>menunggu</i>

Translation 1.

Original text: “Pandangan matanya tenang dan lembut, sebagai janda baru bangun tidur” (Rusli, 2010, p. 2).

TT: “Her gaze was calm and soft, like someone who had just awoken” (Rusli, 2010, p. 2).

To identify any lexical changes from the original or source text, the TT was retranslated into modern Indonesian.

Five representative sentences are presented and the results of the back-translation (BT1-BT5) are as follows:

BT1: Tatapannya sangat tenang dan lembut, seperti seseorang yang baru bangun.

BT2: Pandangannya kalem dan lembut, seperti seseorang yang baru bangun.

BT3: Tatapannya begitu tenang dan lembut, seperti seseorang yang baru saja bangun.

BT4: Dia menatap itu tenang dan lembut, seperti seseorang yang baru saja terbangun.

BT5: Tatapannya tenang dan lembut, seperti seseorang yang baru saja terbangun.

One word shows a change. It is the word *sebagai*. When the TT is translated back into Indonesian, the translation equivalents of the word *like* as the equivalent of *sebagai* are as shown in the following table.

TABLE 2
CHANGE OF THE WORD *SEBAGAI*

SL	Pandangan matanya		tenang dan lembut	<i>sebagai</i>	janda baru bangun tidur
TT	Her gaze	was	calm and soft	like	someone who had just awoken
BT1	Tatapannya		sangat tenang dan lembut	<i>seperti</i>	seseorang yang baru bangun.
BT2	Pandangannya		kalem dan lembut	<i>seperti</i>	seseorang yang baru bangun.
BT3	Tatapannya		begitu tenang dan lembut	<i>seperti</i>	seseorang yang baru saja bangun.
BT4	Dia menatap itu		tenang dan lembut	<i>seperti</i>	seseorang yang baru saja terbangun.
BT5	Tatapannya		tenang dan lembut	<i>seperti</i>	seseorang yang baru saja terbangun.

From the point of view of its meaning, *like* is equivalent to *sebagai* and *like* is also equivalent to *seperti*. This implies that *sebagai* has the same meaning with *seperti*. Based on the results of BT1-BT5, all modern translators chose *seperti* as the equivalent of *like*. It can be concluded that the word *sebagai* is not used anymore. It changed and was replaced by the word *seperti*. This can be considered as a kind of lexical change, since the respondents did not find the word *sebagai* in the same context in present-day Indonesian. Although *sebagai* and *seperti* have the same meaning, based on the context above, the two words are in different positions. *Sebagai* is as old Indonesian, while *seperti* is present-day Indonesian; in other words, *sebagai* has changed and is now represented by *seperti*.

Translation 2.

Original text: “Mamanda, janganlah berpikir sedemikian! Ingatlah Nurbaya!” (Rusli, 2010, p. 163).

TT: “Don’t think like that! Think of Nurbaya!” (Rusli, 2010, p. 132).

BT1: Jangan berpikir seperti itu. Pikirkan Nurbaya.

BT2: Jangan berpikir seperti itu. Pikirkan Nurbaya.

BT3: Jangan berpikir seperti itu. Pikirkan Nurbaya.

BT4: Jangan berpikir seperti itu. Pikirkan Nurbaya.

BT5: Jangan berpikir seperti itu. Memikirkan Nurbaya.

TABLE 3
CHANGE OF THE WORD *SEDEMIKIAN*

SL	Janganlah	berpikir	<i>sedemikian</i>
TT	Don’t	think	like that
BT1	Jangan	berpikir	<i>seperti itu</i>
BT2	Jangan	berpikir	<i>seperti itu</i>
BT3	Jangan	berpikir	<i>seperti itu</i>
BT4	Jangan	berpikir	<i>seperti itu</i>
BT5	Jangan	berpikir	<i>seperti itu</i>

Sedemikian is equivalent to *like that*, while *like that* is equivalent to *seperti itu*. This means that *seperti itu* is equivalent to *sedemikian*. Among the five BT results, however, no translation uses *sedemikian* as the equivalent of *like that* and all use *seperti itu* as the equivalent. This shows that the word *sedemikian* is not used anymore. It has been replaced by the new term, *seperti itu*.

Translation 3.

Original text: Sekalian Penghulu di Padang ini beristri dua, tiga, sampai empat orang (Rusli, 2010, p. 19).

TT: All the district heads in Padang have two or three, even four, wives (Rusli, 2010, p. 14).

When the TT above is translated back into Indonesian, the translations are:

BT1: Semua kepala desa di Padang memiliki dua atau tiga, sampai empat istri.

BT2: Semua kepala kecamatan di Padang memiliki dua atau tiga bahkan empat istri.

BT3: Semua kepala daerah di Padang memiliki dua atau tiga bahkan empat istri.

BT4: Semua kepala wilayah di Padang memiliki dua atau tiga bahkan empat istri.

BT5: Semua kepala daerah di Padang memiliki dua atau tiga, bahkan empat istri.

Equivalents of the word *all* as a single word are elaborated on in the following table:

TABLE 4
CHANGE OF THE WORD *SEKALIAN*

SL	<i>Sekalian</i>	Penghulu	di Padang	beristri	dua, tiga, sampai empat orang
TT	All	the district heads	in Padang	have wives	two or three, even four
BT1	<i>Semua</i>	kepala desa	in Padang	memiliki istri	dua atau tiga, sampai empat.
BT2	<i>Semua</i>	kepala kecamatan	in Padang	memiliki istri	dua atau tiga bahkan empat.
BT3	<i>Semua</i>	kepala daerah	in Padang	memiliki istri	dua atau tiga bahkan empat
BT4	<i>Semua</i>	kepala wilayah	in Padang	memiliki istri	dua atau tiga, bahkan empat
BT5	<i>Semua</i>	kepala daerah	in Padang	memiliki istri	dua atau tiga, bahkan empat istri.

The analysis above shows that the word *sekalian* in old Indonesian has changed and been replaced by the word *semua* in present-day Indonesian.

B. Back-Translation Used to Identify Morphological Change

The back-translation method can also be applied to identify morphological change. These include differences in word formation through the affixation process. In the affixation process, in the case of the data found in this study, both Indonesian in its old version and Indonesian in the new version use the same base, but the number of the affixes used is different. The words identified are as follows:

Translation 4.

Original text: “Tatkala ia hendak menutupkan matanya, terdengarlah olehnya bunyi langkah orang ...” (Rusli, 2010, p. 221).

TT: “Just as she was about to close her eyes, Alimah suddenly heard the sound of footsteps ...” (Rusli, 2010, p. 177).

When the TT is translated back into Indonesian, the results are as follows:

BT1: Tepat saat dia menutup mata, Alimah tiba-tiba mendengar suara langkah ka

BT2: Ketika dia baru saja menutup matanya, tiba-tiba Alimah mendengar suara langkah kaki.

BT3: Tepat saat ia memejamkan matanya, tiba-tiba Alimah mendengar suara hentakan kaki

The translation equivalence of the TT in BT could be elaborated by an analysis of meaning, as shown below.

TABLE 5
CHANGE OF THE WORD *MENUTUPKAN*

SL	Tatkala	ia	hendak	<i>menutupkan</i>	matanya
TT	Just as	she	was about	to close	her eyes
BT1	Tepat saat	dia		<i>menutup</i>	mata
BT2	Ketika	dia	baru saja	<i>menutup</i>	matanya
BT3	Tepat saat	dia	baru saja	<i>menutup</i>	matanya

To give the same meaning as *menutupkan*, the translations show that the Indonesian word used nowadays is *menutup*. This constitutes a change from a morphological point of view. The two words, *menutupkan* and *menutup*, have the same base. The base is *tutup*. Morphologically, however, both words are formed through different affixation processes. The Indonesian in its older version, *menutupkan*, is composed of the base *tutup*, the prefix *me-*, and the suffix *-kan*, while the present-day Indonesian consists of the base *tutup* and the prefix *me-* only. Since the word *menutupkan* is not found any more in present-day Indonesian, this can be considered an example of language change, involving a different morphological process between the two words.

Translation 5.

Original text: “Nyonya Tuan Asssisten Residen sudah menghinakan aku sampai ke tanah....” (Moeis, 2013, p. 130).

TT: “The Assistant District Commissioner’s wife even insulted me in public....” (Moeis, 2013, p. 94).

BT1: Istri komisaris distrik pembantu bahkan menghina saya di depan umum.

BT2: Bahkan istri asisten komisaris distrik menghina saya di depan publik.

BT3: Istri asisten distrik commisioner menghinaku di muka umum.

TABLE 6
CHANGE OF THE WORD *MENGHINAKAN*

SL	Nyonya Tuan Assisten Residen	sudah	<i>menghinakan</i>	aku	sampai ke tanah
TT	The Assistant District Commissioner's wife	even	insulted	me	in public
BT1	Istri komisar distrik pembantu	bahkan	<i>menghina</i>	saya	di depan umum.
BT2	Istri asisten komisar distrik	bahkan	<i>menghina</i>	saya	di depan publik.
BT3	Istri asisten distrik commisioner		<i>menghina</i>	ku	di muka umum

From the point of view of meaning, the SL and BT texts are equivalent. The results of the back-translation use different word choices, however. No new translation uses *menghinakan*, since that word is not found in present-day Indonesian any more. The word used as the equivalent is *menghina*. This suggests that *menghinakan* in old Indonesian has been replaced by *menghina*. The words used are different in form, but not in meaning. That said, the two words are formed by the same base, which is *hina*. Only their suffixation processes are different. *Menghinakan* is formed by the base *hina* attached to the prefix *me-* and the suffix *-kan*, while *menghina* is formed by the base *hina* with the prefix *me-*. So, to mean *insulted*, old Indonesian used *menghinakan*, while present-day Indonesian uses *menghina*.

Translation 6.

Original text: "Bila penyakitku ini tiada diobat..." (Rusli, 2010, p. 219).

TT: "If this sickness of mine can't be cured..." (Rusli, 2010, p. 175).

BT1: Jika penyakitku tidak bisa disembuhkan.

BT2: Jika penyakit saya ini tidak bisa diobati.

BT3: Jika penyakitku ini tidak bisa disembuhkan.

BT4: Penyakitku ini tidak bisa disembuhkan.

TABLE 7
CHANGE OF THE WORD *DIOBAT*

SL	Bila	penyakitku ini	tiada	<i>diobat</i>
TT	If	this sickness of mine	can't	be cured
BT1	Jika	penyakitku	tidak bisa	disembuhkan
BT2	Jika	penyakit saya ini	tidak bisa	<i>diobati</i>
BT3	Jika	penyakitku ini	tidak bisa	disembuhkan
BT4		Penyakitku ini	Tidak bisa	disembuhkan

Be cured as the equivalent of *diobat* in old Indonesian has more than one equivalent when it is translated back into modern Indonesian. The equivalents include *disembuhkan* and *diobati*. There is no choice of the word *diobat* in present-day Indonesian, where it is not found in the current vocabulary. When there are two translation possibilities in the back-translation results, it means that the two words, *disembuhkan* and *diobati*, are synonymous. When the source text uses the word *diobati* as the equivalent, it shows that this word has the same base when compared to the word *diobat*. The base of the two words is *obat*. Although they have the same base, their morphological processes are different. The word *diobati* is formed by the base *obat*, the prefix *di-*, and the suffix *-i*. *Diobat* is formed by the base *obat* and the prefix *di-*. Thus, *diobat* and *diobati* have the same meaning, but they are different morphologically.

C. Back-Translation Used to Identify Syntactic Change

Syntactic changes also occur in the Indonesian language. When the translated Indonesian texts are translated back into Indonesian, some of these can be identified. The following includes some of these changes:

Translation 7.

Original text: "Bakhtiar amat suka kepada kue-kue..." (Rusli, 2010, p. 36).

TT: "Bakhtiar really loves cake..." (Rusli, 2010, p. 29).

BT1: Bahtiar sangat menyukai kue.

BT2: Bahtiar sangat suka kue.

BT3: Bahtiar sangat menyukai kue.

BT4: Bahtiar sangat menyukai kue.

From the point of view of their meaning, all BT texts are equivalent to the TT. The analysis of their meaning can be elaborated as follows.

TABLE 8
CHANGE OF THE WORD *SUKA*

SL	Bahtiar	amat	<i>suka</i>	<i>kepada</i>	kue
TT	Bahtiar	really	loves		cake
BT1	Bahtiar	sangat	<i>menyukai</i>		kue
BT2	Bahtiar	sangat	<i>suka</i>		kue
BT3	Bahtiar	sangat	<i>menyukai</i>		kue
BT4	Bahtiar	sangat	<i>menyukai</i>		kue

Based on the analysis above, the syntactic change which occurs in the Indonesian language involves the usage of the verb *suka*. In old Indonesian, *suka* is followed by the preposition *kepada*, followed by a noun functioning as an object (O), represented here by *kue*. The following phrase occurs in the SL text: *suka kepada kue*. When the equivalent of *suka kepada kue* is retranslated back into Indonesian, the translation choices which occur include *menyukai kue* and *suka kue*. The verbs *menyukai* and *suka* are synonymous. Both are found in present-day Indonesian. In terms of syntactic structure, *menyukai* and *suka* are directly followed by an object, as denoted by the noun *kue*. There is no preposition *kepada* following these verbs. This means that there is a difference between the structures of the SL and the BT or between the old and present-day Indonesian usages. To convey the meaning of *love*, old Indonesian used the structure of S + V (*suka*) + preposition (*kepada*) + O, while the present-day Indonesian uses the structure of S + V (*suka/menyukai*) + O.

Translation 8.

Original text: “Oh, sudah tentu Nyonya tidak kenal kepada saya....” (Moeis, 2013, p. 221).

TT: “Oh, of course you don’t know me....” (Moeis, 2013, p. 153).

BT1: Oh tentu saja, kamu tidak tahu siapa aku.

BT2: Oh, tentu kau tidak mengenaliku.

BT3: Oh tentu saja kamu tidak kenal saya.

BT4: Oh sudah jelas kamu tidak tahu saya.

TABLE 9
CHANGE OF THE WORD *KENAL*

SL	Nyonya	tidak	<i>kenal</i>	<i>kepada</i>	saya
TT	You	don’t	know		me
BT1	Kamu	tidak	tahu		siapa aku
BT2	Kau	tidak	mengenal		ku
BT3	Kamu	tidak	<i>kenal</i>		saya
BT4	Kamu	tidak	tahu		saya

This syntactic change in the Indonesian language concerns the usage of the verb *kenal kepada* in the SL. To express the meaning of *know* as the equivalent of *kenal kepada* in present-day Indonesian, there are several words that can be used. They include *tahu*, *mengenal*, and also *kenal*. When *kenal* is used, there is a difference in its use if it is compared with the verb *kenal kepada*. The two verbs have the same meaning. The way in which they are used is different because of their respective contexts: *kenal kepada* belongs to old Indonesian, while *kenal* is used in present-day Indonesian. Referring to Table 9, in old Indonesian the verb *kenal* is followed by the preposition *kepada*, while in present-day Indonesian, *kenal* does not need any preposition to make the sentence grammatical. The difference in syntactic structure is that old Indonesian used the structure of S + V (*kenal*) + preposition (*kepada*) + O, while present-day Indonesian uses the structure of S + V (*kenal*) + O.

To summarise, back-translation can function as a tool to validate translation quality if it is presented with two conditions. When there is a difference in meaning between the results of the back-translation and the original text, the translation is considered non-adequate; whereas, when the result of the back-translation uses the same word choices, the translation can be considered adequate. For example:

SL: Kami menganalisis beberapa data.

TT: We analysed some data.

BT: Kami menganalisis beberapa data.

The back-translation above shows that the TT is adequate, since the BT and the SL have the same forms and meaning. When the method of back-translation is applied and this condition arises, it can be considered a validation of the translation. Some back-translations present different results and different conditions: for example, they may not use the same word choices but they are all still equivalent.

Our research also indicates that the lexical items used in the SL and BT are different but they show the same meaning. If there are several variations in the BT, including the use of the same word as in the SL, this condition might imply that it is a problem of word choice. However, when the BTs involve around a number of translators and all choose the same word – which is not the word used in the SL – this implies that the original SL word is no longer in use, and has instead been replaced by a word or phrase that is understood by the translator(s) of the BT. There may indeed be several modern words that are equivalent, all of which are synonyms.

Original text: *Sekalian* Penghulu di Padang ini beristri dua, tiga, sampai empat orang.

TT: All the district heads in Padang have two or three, even four, wives.

BT1: Semua kepala desa di Padang memiliki dua atau tiga, sampai empat istri.

BT2: *Semua* kepala kecamatan di Padang memiliki dua atau tiga bahkan empat istri.

BT3: *Semua* kepala daerah di Padang memiliki dua atau tiga bahkan empat istri.

BT4: *Semua* kepala wilayah di Padang memiliki dua atau tiga bahkan empat istri.

BT5: *Seluruh* kepala wilayah di Padang memiliki dua atau tiga bahkan empat istri.

The method of back-translation in the datum above is applied to identify lexical change. The word *sekalian* in the SL text has the same meaning as *semua* and *seluruh* in the BT texts. However, *sekalian* is not used any longer, as evidenced by no BT using this word as the equivalent of the word *all*. It is replaced by the word *semua* or *seluruh*, both of which are synonyms.

TABLE 10
BACK-TRANSLATION METHOD FOR IDENTIFYING LEXICAL CHANGE

SL	<i>Sekalian</i>	Penghulu	di Padang	beristri	dua, tiga, sampai empat orang
TT	All	the district heads	in Padang	have wives	two or three, even four
BT1	<i>Semua</i>	kepala desa	in Padang	memiliki istri	dua atau tiga, sampai empat.
BT2	<i>Semua</i>	kepala kecamatan	in Padang	memiliki istri	dua atau tiga bahkan empat.
BT3	<i>Semua</i>	kepala daerah	in Padang	memiliki istri	dua atau tiga bahkan empat
BT4	<i>Semua</i>	kepala wilayah	in Padang	memiliki istri	dua atau tiga, bahkan empat
BT5	<i>Semua</i>	kepala daerah	in Padang	memiliki istri	dua atau tiga, bahkan empat istri.

To identify lexical change, as long as there is no change of meaning, the method of back-translation is used to identify the change of the word choice in a particular slot. The second slot shows that *sekalian* in old Indonesian changes into *semua* in present-day Indonesian.

From a morphological point of view, the back-translation method also can help us understand changes in the use of words. When the word *insulted* as the equivalent of *menghinakan* is translated back into Indonesian, the word used as the equivalent is *menghina* instead of *menghinakan*.

TABLE 11
BACK-TRANSLATION METHOD FOR IDENTIFYING MORPHOLOGICAL CHANGE

SL	Nyonya Tuan Assisten Residen	sudah	<i>menghinakan</i>	aku	sampai ke tanah
TT	The Assistant District Commissioner's wife	even	insulted	me	in public
BT1	Istri komisaris distrik pembantu	bahkan	<i>menghina</i>	saya	di depan umum.
BT2	Istri asisten komisaris distrik	bahkan	<i>menghina</i>	saya	di depan publik.

The change of a word morphologically can be identified through back-translation by analysing words with the same base in the same slot. The fourth slots above show that *menghinakan* and *menghina* have the same base form – that is, *hina* – but morphologically the process of word formation is different. *Menghina* is formed through the prefixation process, by using the prefix *me-* with the base *hina*, while *menghinakan* is formed through prefixation using *me-* and by suffixation using *-kan*.

Syntactic change can also be traced by this method. The word *like* as the equivalent of *suka kepada* has the equivalent of *suka* (or synonymous with *menyukai*).

TABLE 12
BACK-TRANSLATION METHOD FOR IDENTIFYING SYNTACTIC CHANGE

SL	Bahtiar	amat	suka	kepada	kue
TT	Bahtiar	really	loves		cake
BT1	Bahtiar	sangat	menyukai		kue
BT2	Bahtiar	sangat	suka		kue
BT3	Bahtiar	sangat	menyukai		kue
BT4	Bahtiar	sangat	menyukai		kue

This word is not followed by the preposition *kepada* as found in the SL. Thus, there has been a change syntactically.

V. CONCLUSION

The use of different word choices in the resulting back-translations when compared with the original text does not imply that the translation does not show equivalence. Even so, when the SL and BT texts show the same meanings, the different word choices or forms which occur in the BT could indicate language change. This kind of language change occurs when the SL words or forms are not used anymore and replaced by other words or forms from present-day Indonesian.

ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

The authors would like to thank the Head of Yayasan Kesejahteraan Korpri Provinsi Bali and the Rector of Warmadewa University for the research funding.

REFERENCES

- [1] Antoni, C., Irham, & Ronsi, G. (2019). Language Variation in Minang Colloquial Language Spoken in Kabun Region: Sociolinguistic study on Millennial Citizens. *Jurnal Arbitrer*, 6(2), 92–98.
- [2] Baker, M. (1992). *In Other Words: A course book on translation*. Routledge.
- [3] Cai, W. (2021). A Study of Textless Back Translation from the Perspective of Intertextuality. *Advances in Social Science, Education and Humanities Research, Volume 554. Proceedings of the 7th International Conference on Humanities and Social Science Research (ICHSSR 2021)*, 1216–1221.
- [4] Cakir, I., & Bayhan, S. (2021). The Effect of Machine Translation on Translation Classes at the Tertiary Level. *Journal of Narrative and Language Studies*, 9(16), 122–134.
- [5] Campbell, L. (1998). *Historical Linguistics: An Introduction*. The MIT Press.
- [6] Chen, L., & Li, C. (2018). A Study on Textless Back Translation of China Boy From Acculturation Perspective. *Studies in Literature and Language*, 16(2), 10–18. <https://doi.org/10.3968/10330>
- [7] Chineze, N., Chinyere, O. H., & Nwike, C. C. (2021). Linguistic Variation and Change in Nawfija Speech Community. *Journal of Language Teaching and Research*, 12(5), 741–749.
- [8] Fowler, G. A. (2009). *Sitti Nurbaya*. The Lontar Foundation.
- [9] Gumus, F., & Gultekin, H. (2021). Cultural Elements in the Turkish Translations of Hemingway's Short Stories. *Journal of Narrative and Language Studies*, 9(18), 438–446.
- [10] Guo, T. (2017). On Foreign Language Creation and Rootless Back Translation. *Journal of Literature and Art Studies*, 7(10), 1354–1364. <https://doi.org/10.17265/2159-5836/2017.10.017>
- [11] Li, S. (2016). A Contrastive Study of English Source Text and Back-Translation Version and Its Application. *Sino-US English Teaching*, 13(10), 814–821.
- [12] Moeis, A. (2013). *Salah Asuhan* [Never the Twain]. PT Balai Pustaka.
- [13] Nabila, E., & Abdulrahman, T. R. (2021). An Analysis of new English words created during COVID-19. *Englisia: Journal of Language, Education, and Humanities*, 9(1), 19–32.
- [14] Nida, E., & Taber, C. R. (1969). *The Theory and Practice of Translation*. E.J. BRILL.
- [15] Ozolins, U. (2009). Back translation as a means of giving translators a voice. *Interpreting & Translation*, 1(2), 1–13.
- [16] Quinn, G. (2012). *The Rape of Sukreni*. The Lontar Foundation.
- [17] Rosyidah, Kharis, M., & Afifah, L. (2017). Back-Translation Technique to Assess the Students' Translation of Literary Text. *International Journal of Language and Linguistics*, 5(1), 25–28.
- [18] Rusli, M. (2010). *Sitti Nurbaya*. [Sitti Nurbaya]. PT Balai Pustaka.
- [19] Son, J. (2018). Back translation as a documentation tool. *Translation & Interpreting*, 10(2), 89–100. <https://doi.org/10.12807/ti.110202.2018.a07>
- [20] Susanto, R. (2010). *Never the Twain*. The Lontar Foundation.
- [21] Tisna, A. A. P. (2013). *Sukreni Gadis Bali* [The Rape of Sukreni]. PT Balai Pustaka.
- [22] Tyupa, S. (2011). A theoretical Framework for Back-Translation as a Quality Assessment Tool. *New Voices in Translation Studies*, 7, 35–46.
- [23] Yanti, M., Syarif, H., & Hamzah. (2020). The Effect of Back Translation on Students' Translation Achievement. *Advances in Social Science, Education and Humanities Research, Volume 405. 1st International Conference on Lifelong Learning and Education Sustainability (ICLLES 2019)*, 101–106.



Made Susini was born in Singaraja, Bali, Indonesia in February 6, 1962. She obtained her Master Degree in Applied Linguistics (Translation) in 2005 and her Doctorate in Applied Linguistics (Translation) in 2019 from Udayana University, Bali, Indonesia.

She is a lecturer at English Department, Faculty of Letters, Warmadewa University, Bali, Indonesia. Her research interest focuses on Translation.



I Wayan Ana was born in Denpasar, Bali, Indonesia. He obtained his Master Degree in Linguistics in 2000 and his Doctorate in Applied Linguistics (Translation) in 2021 from Udayana University, Bali, Indonesia.

He is a lecturer at English Department, Faculty of Letters, Warmadewa University, Bali, Indonesia. His main research interests include Translation and Interpreting. He has participated and become invited speaker in a number of seminars and conferences on Translation and Interpreting.

Implementation of the Sociolinguistic Competence Strategies in Teaching and Learning English as a Foreign Language

Rasha Dorgham

College of Languages and Translation, Imam Muhammad Ibn Saud Islamic University, Saudi Arabia;
Faculty of Graduate studies for Education, Cairo University, Egypt

Abstract—Examining the effects of applying sociolinguistic competency teaching strategies on university students' linguistic proficiency and sociological variance among EFL learners is one of the key goals of this study, which aims to investigate one of the major obstacles associated with learning EFL. The research objectives were investigated through the use of a quantitative, descriptive approach. A questionnaire was employed as a means of gathering research data. One hundred fifty EFL students from several universities in Egypt were chosen at random to participate in this study. The data analysis was performed using SPSS. The research findings show that the implementation of sociolinguistic competence teaching strategies has a positive impact on linguistic proficiency and sociological variation as perceived by university EFL students. The results revealed that there are statistically significant differences ($\alpha \leq 0.05$) in the impact of implementing sociolinguistic competence strategies for teaching EFL on linguistic proficiency and sociological variation as perceived by participants according to gender. In addition, the results revealed that there are statistically significant differences ($\alpha \leq 0.05$) in the impact of implementing sociolinguistic competence strategies for teaching EFL on language proficiency and sociological variation as perceived by students according to academic level. The findings of the study demonstrated how crucial it is to use sociolinguistic competency techniques to illustrate linguistic performance and sociological variances in order to achieve sociological realization. Furthermore, the results indicated that this is the primary method used by EFL students in Egyptian universities to develop sociolinguistic competence.

Index Terms—sociolinguistic competence, teaching strategies, linguistic proficiency, sociological variation, EFL

I. INTRODUCTION

In recent years, there has been a discernible transformation in the realm of English language education, signifying a profound shift in pedagogical approaches. This shift is characterized by the increasing recognition and incorporation of sociolinguistic competence as a pivotal and indispensable component of teaching strategies (Ghazali, 2019).

Sociolinguistic competence is an intricate and multifaceted facet of language proficiency that revolves around the aptitude to employ language effectively in a multitude of diverse social contexts. It entails a profound understanding of not only the structural and grammatical aspects of language but also the intricate interplay of cultural norms, variable registers, and sociocultural intricacies (Enisa & Dililitaş, 2015).

Understanding the essence of sociolinguistic competence is paramount to grasping the scope of this transformative shift. It extends beyond mere linguistic correctness or fluency and transcends into the realm of nuanced and contextually appropriate language use. Learners who acquire sociolinguistic competence are not only equipped with linguistic prowess but also possess the social acumen required to navigate the intricate web of social conventions, expectations, and interactions (Richards & Schmidt, 2020).

Sociolinguistic competence entails an acute awareness of the subtleties of language, including factors such as the audience, the context, the purpose of communication, and the pragmatics of linguistic interaction. It allows individuals to switch between registers, adapt their language based on the expectations of their interlocutors, and decipher the intricate and often culture-specific nuances embedded in language use (Celce-Murcia et al., 2019).

In an era characterized by globalization and intercultural communication, the acquisition of this competence is no longer a mere educational luxury but an absolute necessity. Proficiency in English, beyond its structural correctness, now requires a profound understanding of its sociocultural dimensions and the ability to navigate the complex landscape of cross-cultural communication (Byram, 2019).

The integration of sociolinguistic competence into EFL education is seen as a response to this evolving linguistic landscape. It is considered essential for preparing learners to engage effectively in a diverse and interconnected world, where English often serves as the medium for international communication. By enabling learners to decode the intricate social fabric of language use, this pedagogical approach equips them with the skills and cultural awareness indispensable for proficient cross-cultural communication (Kumaravadivelu, 2018).

This study is significant because it addresses critical issues in English as a Foreign Language (EFL) education, such as the changing field of English language teaching and the need for sociolinguistic competence.

Recent research by Abd Rahman et al. (2022) and Al-Obaidi and Al-Khayat (2021) has highlighted the challenges that EFL instructors face in implementing sociolinguistic competence in their classrooms. This study aims to provide practical insights for educators and curriculum designers by examining the efficacy of teaching strategies designed to enhance sociolinguistic competence in EFL classrooms. It also seeks to identify the challenges faced by EFL instructors when incorporating sociolinguistic competence into their teaching techniques and to suggest pragmatic recommendations for integrating sociolinguistic competence into the prevailing EFL curriculum.

The purpose of this study is to examine one of the main challenges associated with learning EFL, namely the impact of using sociolinguistic competence teaching strategies on university students' linguistic proficiency and sociological variation among EFL learners. Accordingly, the objectives of the study will be the following:

1. Based on performance and ability in the English language, determine the most significant challenges in learning EFL.
2. Outlining how social perception is impacted by linguistic and cultural sociological variations while teaching and studying EFL.
3. Examining how crucial sociolinguistic proficiency techniques are to raising EFL learners' performance and English proficiency.
4. Examining the impact of using sociolinguistic proficiency techniques to overcome linguistic variance and social perception techniques in the classroom setting.
5. Adopting sociolinguistic competency teaching methodologies in EFL classrooms to examine the degree of linguistic inequalities according to academic level and gender.

Based on the previous objectives, the study will answer the following questions:

1. What is the impact of using sociolinguistic competence strategies on language proficiency and sociological variation among EFL learners in Egyptian universities?
 - a- What is the impact of teaching strategies targeting sociolinguistic competence on language proficiency and sociological variation in the strategies as perceived by participants?
 - b- What is the impact of teaching strategies targeting sociolinguistic competence on language proficiency and sociological variation in the students' needs as perceived by participants?
 - c- What is the impact of teaching strategies targeting sociolinguistic competence on language proficiency and sociological variation in the set-up as perceived by participants?
 - d- What is the impact of teaching strategies targeting sociolinguistic competence on language proficiency and sociological variation in the materials as perceived by participants?

Furthermore, the study will examine the following hypotheses:

- There are no statistically significant differences at ($\alpha = 0.05$) in learners' responses of the impact of implementing sociolinguistic competence strategies for teaching EFL on linguistic proficiency and sociological variation according to gender.
- There are no statistically significant differences at ($\alpha = 0.05$) in learners' responses of the impact of implementing sociolinguistic competence strategies for teaching EFL on linguistic proficiency and sociological variation according to academic level.

The research problem in the context of implementing teaching strategies for sociolinguistic competence in teaching EFL revolves around the need to investigate the impact, challenges, and integration of sociolinguistic competence into EFL education. Specifically, the problem encompasses three interconnected aspects:

Impact on language proficiency and sociocultural awareness: The first aspect of the research problem pertains to assessing the influence of teaching strategies targeting sociolinguistic competence on language proficiency and sociocultural awareness among EFL learners. This includes exploring whether these strategies significantly contribute to enhanced linguistic skills and a deeper understanding of the sociocultural dimensions of language use.

Challenges faced by EFL instructors: The second dimension of the research problem involves investigating the impediments and challenges that EFL instructors encounter when attempting to integrate sociolinguistic competence into their pedagogical approaches. These challenges might encompass factors like resource constraints, resistance to change, or difficulties in adapting existing curricula to include sociolinguistic elements.

Integration into the EFL Curriculum: The third aspect of the research problem focuses on the methodologies and strategies that can effectively assimilate sociolinguistic competence into the existing EFL curriculum. This includes exploring how to set up and implement practical teaching techniques and materials that are suitable for EFL contexts and align with the broader curriculum.

This research inquiry takes place in the dynamic context of EFL education, highlighting the importance of sociolinguistic competence in today's interconnected world. It aims to explore the practical consequences of this shift in perspective by investigating its effects on learners, the obstacles encountered by educators, and suggesting strategies for smooth integration into the EFL curriculum. By doing so, the study aims to make a valuable contribution to the ongoing conversation about impactful language education within a diverse and interconnected society.

II. LITERATURE REVIEW

A. Sociolinguistic Competence in English Language Education

In recent years, there has been a growing recognition of sociolinguistic competence as a critical and indispensable component of English language education (EFL) (Celce-Murcia et al., 2020). Sociolinguistic competence is defined as the ability to use language appropriately in a variety of social contexts, taking into account a multitude of factors, including the characteristics of the audience, the purpose of communication, and the cultural norms that shape language use (Celce-Murcia et al., 2020). This holistic approach to language proficiency goes beyond mere linguistic correctness and fluency. It delves into the nuanced and contextually relevant use of language, where learners are not only expected to be grammatically sound but also socially astute in their communication.

The importance of sociolinguistic competence in the realm of English language education cannot be overstated. In an increasingly globalized world, English often serves as the lingua franca for international communication. It is the bridge that connects individuals from diverse linguistic and cultural backgrounds, making sociolinguistic competence a necessary skill for effective cross-cultural communication. Without sociolinguistic competence, even those with strong linguistic abilities may struggle to navigate the complex landscape of international interactions (Ferguson, 2021).

B. The Essence of Sociolinguistic Competence

At the heart of sociolinguistic competence is an acute awareness of the subtleties of language use. This includes understanding how language varies depending on the context, the audience, and the purpose of communication. Sociolinguistically competent individuals are able to adapt their language use accordingly, using appropriate registers, avoiding taboo topics, and respecting cultural norms (Taguchi & De Costa, 2021).

For example, a sociolinguistically competent individual would know that it is inappropriate to use slang in a formal business setting (Taguchi & De Costa, 2021) or to make jokes about sensitive topics in a cross-cultural conversation (Brown & Taylor, 2022). They would also be able to recognize and respond to cultural cues in language use, such as nonverbal communication and body language (Ferguson, 2021).

C. Challenges in Integrating Sociolinguistic Competence Into EFL Education

Despite its importance, integrating sociolinguistic competence into EFL education is not without its challenges. One challenge is the lack of suitable teaching materials and resources (Taguchi & De Costa, 2021). There is a need for materials that provide learners with opportunities to develop their sociolinguistic awareness and skills in a variety of contexts (Taguchi & De Costa, 2021).

Another challenge is the resistance to change among some EFL instructors (Ferguson, 2021). Some instructors may be reluctant to incorporate sociolinguistic competence into their teaching because they are not familiar with it or because they believe that it is not essential for learners to develop this skill (Ferguson, 2021).

Finally, integrating sociolinguistic competence into EFL education can be challenging because it requires a holistic approach that considers all aspects of language learning, including grammar, vocabulary, and pronunciation. It is important to create opportunities for learners to practice their sociolinguistic skills in real-world contexts, such as through role-playing activities and simulations (Brown & Taylor, 2022).

D. The Imperative of Sociolinguistic Competence in EFL Education

In today's globalized world, integrating sociolinguistic competence into English as a Foreign Language (EFL) education is not merely advantageous but fundamentally essential. English frequently serves as the medium for international communication, acting as the bridge connecting individuals from diverse linguistic and cultural backgrounds. Within this context, sociolinguistic competence takes on a pivotal role, equipping EFL learners with the skills and cultural awareness necessary for effective cross-cultural communication (Ferguson, 2021).

Sociolinguistic competence enables learners to decipher the intricate social fabric of language use, granting them the ability to navigate the complex landscape of cross-cultural communication with finesse and efficacy. It extends beyond linguistic correctness and fluency, encompassing a profound understanding of how language varies depending on social contexts, audience characteristics, and communication purposes. This competence empowers learners to not only use language accurately but also to do so with cultural sensitivity and context-appropriate appropriateness (Mujiono, 2019).

One of the profound implications of sociolinguistic competence is its impact on building relationships with interlocutors from various cultures. It enables EFL learners to establish meaningful connections by understanding the subtleties of language use in different social settings. Whether engaging in casual conversations, formal business interactions, or academic exchanges, sociolinguistic competence facilitates effective and culturally sensitive communication (Ferguson, 2021).

Moreover, the importance of sociolinguistic competence extends to academic and professional settings. In academic contexts, EFL learners who possess sociolinguistic competence can effectively engage with their peers, instructors, and academic materials. They can navigate academic discourse and contribute meaningfully to discussions and research. In professional settings, sociolinguistic competence equips individuals to communicate professionally, make a positive impression, and succeed in a globalized job market (Abdilakimova & Musoyeva, 2022).

Additionally, sociolinguistic competence grants EFL learners' access to a wealth of information and resources from around the world. It empowers them to engage with global content, both in written and spoken form. This, in turn, fosters cultural enrichment and the ability to stay informed about global events, trends, and developments. Sociolinguistic competence, in essence, broadens horizons and provides access to a wealth of knowledge and experiences that would be otherwise restricted without a nuanced understanding of language use in various sociocultural contexts (Herawati, 2021).

In addition to the challenges and imperatives previously discussed, several critical considerations come to the forefront when it comes to integrating sociolinguistic competence into English as a foreign language education. These considerations aim to enrich the educational experience and prepare learners for the diverse, interconnected world they will encounter.

E. Culturally Responsive Pedagogy

Awareness of cultural backgrounds: One significant consideration is the need to develop a culturally responsive pedagogy. This approach necessitates that EFL instructors possess a deep awareness of the cultural backgrounds of their learners. Instructors should take into account the diverse origins, beliefs, values, and norms of their students. This awareness is pivotal in creating a classroom environment that is not only inclusive but also fosters a sense of belonging for all learners. By acknowledging and respecting the cultural diversity within the classroom, instructors can tailor their teaching methods and materials to be more relevant and meaningful to their students (Howard, 2021).

F. Development of Intercultural Competence

Understanding and appreciating different cultures: Another crucial consideration is the cultivation of learners' intercultural competence. This dimension of sociolinguistic competence goes beyond language proficiency and delves into the ability to understand and appreciate different cultures. EFL education should not only equip learners with the linguistic skills to communicate effectively but also instill in them the capacity to engage in cross-cultural interactions with sensitivity and empathy. This intercultural competence allows learners to navigate a world marked by diversity and intercultural encounters (Brown & Taylor, 2022).

Effective communication with diverse backgrounds: Furthermore, intercultural competence enables EFL learners to communicate effectively with people from various cultural backgrounds. It equips them with the skills to bridge cultural divides and establish meaningful connections. In an increasingly globalized society, the ability to engage respectfully with individuals from diverse cultures is an invaluable skill. It promotes international understanding and cooperation and empowers individuals to function effectively in culturally rich environments (Putra, 2021).

G. Lifelong Learning Process in Sociolinguistic Competence

Continual Development: It is essential to recognize that sociolinguistic competence is not a static skill but a lifelong learning process. As learners interact with individuals from different cultures throughout their lives, they will continually develop and refine their sociolinguistic skills. This lifelong learning journey allows individuals to adapt and grow, becoming more proficient in navigating language use in an ever-evolving global context (Ur Rahman, 2020).

In summary, integrating sociolinguistic competence into EFL education goes beyond language proficiency; it encompasses cultural responsiveness and intercultural competence. EFL instructors should be culturally aware and create a learning environment that respects and values the diversity of their students. Additionally, learners should be equipped with the ability to understand, appreciate, and effectively communicate with individuals from diverse cultural backgrounds. Sociolinguistic competence is not a finite destination but a continuous journey of growth and adaptation that learners embark on throughout their lives as they engage with a diverse world. These considerations are pivotal in preparing EFL learners for a world characterized by intercultural interactions and global interconnectedness.

H. Previous Studies

In the Department of English and Translation at Qassim University's bachelor's programme, the Ur Rahman (2020) study aims to investigate the sociolinguistic proficiency of EFL students at various levels. Eighty students in total, representing the four levels of the undergraduate programme examined in this study, provided the data for the study. A group of 20 pupils was chosen from each level. In an effort to enhance students' communicative English, it specifically examines the profile of students, their sociolinguistic proficiency, and factors that support sociolinguistic competence improvement. The study used a questionnaire and a standardized sociolinguistic proficiency test to gather student data using a descriptive, correlational approach. The outcomes showed a relationship between the four levels of EFL students' sociolinguistic ability and the categories of those students. The results suggest that there are three factors that can help EFL students at the four levels of study become more sociolinguistically competent: (1) the government encourages students to learn English at all university levels; (2) speaking English gives one the chance to work in the Arabian Peninsula or abroad; and (3) English teachers encourage students to use English properly in this circumstance. The study's findings support a number of recommendations that are also made in order to emphasize the need to improve the communicative English ability of EFL students at Qassim University.

Moreover, Liu and Gao's (2020) study objective was to learn what was actually occurring in Chinese classrooms among various EFL instructors in response to the shift towards communicative methods of teaching English. To gather

information from informants in various demographic groups, two distinct research methods—a questionnaire and classroom observation—were created. The following key conclusions were derived from the analysis of 89 questionnaires and 5 observation transcripts. Three conclusions can be drawn from the results of the 89 questionnaires: younger teachers are more communicative in their teaching methods than older teachers; teachers with degrees from high-status universities are more communicative in their methods than teachers with degrees from low-status universities; and teachers with degrees from teacher-training-oriented universities are more communicative in their methods than teachers with degrees from non-teaching institutions. However, only the first two findings could be verified by studying the texts of the five chosen classes, and the last conclusion could not be reached owing to a lack of pertinent information. The researcher concludes by making some recommendations for Chinese EFL teachers to perform additional research in light of the findings of this study.

In addition, Hsieh and Chuang's (2021) study looks at the attitudes of Taiwanese English teachers towards imparting sociolinguistic knowledge. Through homogenous sampling, ten aspiring EFL teachers in teacher preparation programmes were purposefully chosen. To gather information, semi-structured interviews were done. The findings showed that even though the majority of pre-service teachers think sociolinguistic education is crucial, they nevertheless feel underqualified to teach sociolinguistic skills because they lack significant sociolinguistic proficiency. Due to social and cultural factors like a lack of time, an examination-based teaching style, insufficient exposure to the target language's culture, and a lack of authentic practical content, these pre-service teachers' reported lack of sociolinguistic competence and low confidence in teaching sociolinguistic skills can be explained. The most significant findings, educational ramifications, and recommendations for future research are included in the study's conclusion.

Abd Rahman et al.'s (2022) study describes how ESL instructors at a Malaysian university help their pupils become more sociolinguistically competent. Three ESL teachers who were chosen for this study based on a set of criteria that would indicate their credibility and experience as participants were subjected to in-depth interviews and stimulated recall. It was discovered that ESL teachers engaged in meaning construction with their students, created a welcoming and supportive learning environment, and developed students' sociolinguistic competence through explicit teaching strategies and classroom interaction. It is believed that the findings of this study will aid ESL teachers in fostering the sociolinguistic competence of their students, particularly by providing illustrations of strategies and techniques that may be used in different classrooms.

The sociolinguistic and pedagogical consequences of EFL challenges in Saudi universities were taken into consideration in Elmahidi et al.'s (2023) study. The study obtained a significant conclusion while analyzing the pedagogical and sociolinguistic consequences of EFL difficulties. The authors employed a questionnaire to collect data from Saudi university personnel. Education for aspiring EFL instructors must consider linguistic, social, historical, cultural, and pedagogical factors. The explanation of how teachers play a critical role in fundamentally altering language education so that students may grasp both language and technology is an area that needs development. Studying the variables and effects of social context on third-level EFL proficiency shows that social competence aids learners in acquiring more than academic ability. Studying how sociolinguistic traits affect how English as a foreign language develops and is used in the educational context helps students become more socially and culturally aware so they can better understand their surroundings. In order to improve the sociolinguistic competence and desired outcomes of EFL learners, it is important for them to master cultural norms. This is why it is important to describe the close connection between social and educational environments, as well as the classroom environment, as appropriate factors. The majority of EFL instructors agree that teaching a language in its native environment is the most effective approach. According to them, addressing the nation's EFL challenges through the use of a socio-pedagogical approach to teaching EFL can be beneficial. It is advised that EFL instructors in Saudi universities adopt a sociopedagogical method of language instruction and that colleges give instructors and students the necessary tools to learn the language.

The studies presented shed light on various teaching strategies to enhance sociolinguistic competence in the context of teaching EFL. When comparing these studies to my own research, which aims to investigate the impact of teaching strategies on sociolinguistic competence, language proficiency and sociocultural awareness among EFL learners, several insights and conclusions can be drawn.

First, studies collectively emphasize the importance of sociolinguistic competence as a vital component of language teaching. They also provide evidence that teaching strategies targeting sociolinguistic competence can lead to improvements in language proficiency and a deeper understanding of the social and cultural aspects of language use among learners. This is in line with the goal of the current study, which is to evaluate the impact of these strategies.

Second, the challenges and barriers faced by EFL teachers in integrating sociolinguistic competence into their teaching methods, as demonstrated in these studies, are closely related to the current study. They highlight issues such as lack of training, limited resources, and resistance to change, which the study aims to address by investigating the challenges faced by EFL teachers.

Third, the current study seeks to explore methodologies to effectively incorporate sociolinguistic competence into existing EFL curricula. These methodologies are reflected in the different approaches used in the studies, such as the use of case studies and cultural awareness. Studies demonstrate the adaptability and effectiveness of these methodologies, providing valuable insights into the study objective.

In conclusion, the studies provide significant support for the study hypotheses, as they collectively indicate that teaching strategies focusing on sociolinguistic competence can indeed enhance language proficiency and sociocultural awareness among EFL learners. The challenges faced by teachers and the successful integration of sociolinguistic competence into the curriculum, as demonstrated in these studies, underscore the need to conduct the current study. By delving into these aspects, the study is well placed to contribute significantly to the ongoing conversation about effective language teaching within a globalized and interconnected society.

III. METHODOLOGY

A. Study Approach

A descriptive-quantitative approach was used to investigate research objectives. The researcher used a questionnaire as a tool for collecting research data.

B. Participants

This study involved 150 students who were randomly selected from a diverse pool of learners at Egyptian universities.

C. Study Instrument

The study determined that the following are the main challenges associated with teaching and learning EFL: keeping track of sociological and linguistic sociological variations and how these affect how foreign language terms are perceived in society. The researcher goes on to discuss certain sociolinguistic competency methods used in Egyptian universities for English instruction. According to the researcher, it's a way to get around learning challenges brought on by language barriers.

A questionnaire served as the primary research tool to investigate the impact of using sociolinguistic competence strategies on university students' linguistic proficiency and sociological variation.

The questionnaire was split into two sections; the first one depends on the personal characteristics of the participants, while the second section is divided into four subsections that answer the study questions. The first part deals with personal information. The questionnaire employs a 5-point Likert scale to enable candidates to indicate whether they agree or disagree with a particular statement that facilitates students' expression of their emotions regarding the effects of sociolinguistic proficiency teaching strategies on university students' linguistic proficiency and sociological variation.

Validation of the research tool: A thorough verification procedure was used for the questionnaire. Specifically, professionals from the university's department of applied linguistics and EFL assessed it at first. Throughout the questionnaire's final refinement process, their feedback and recommendations were carefully taken into account to guarantee its comprehensiveness, relevance, and clarity.

D. Data Collection and Analysis

The questionnaires were distributed to the participating students during their regular class sessions. The researcher remained present in the classroom to address any questions or concerns that the students had about the questionnaire.

After the students completed the questionnaires, the collected data were subjected to comprehensive analysis. The data analysis was performed using SPSS (Statistical Package for the Social Sciences), involving the summarization of responses, the calculation of descriptive statistics, and the identification of trends and patterns within the data. This analysis yields valuable insights into the relationship between implementing the teaching strategies of sociolinguistic competence in the context of EFL learning for Egyptian University students.

IV. RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

Results related to the main research question

1- What is the impact of teaching strategies targeting sociolinguistic competence on linguistic proficiency and sociological variation among EFL learners in Egyptian universities?

In order to answer the question, the means, standard deviations, percentages, and levels of learners' responses were calculated for the impact of teaching strategies targeting sociolinguistic competence on linguistic proficiency and sociological variation among EFL learners in Egypt. Table 1 shows the results.

TABLE 1
LEARNERS' RESPONSES ON IMPACT OF TEACHING STRATEGIES TARGETING SOCIOLINGUISTIC COMPETENCE ON LINGUISTIC PROFICIENCY AND SOCIOLOGICAL VARIATION

Subject	Mean	SD	Percentage	Level
Strategies	3.33	0.77	78.3	High
Students needs	3.40	0.78	76.9	High
Design	3.36	0.79	76.8	High
Material	3.39	0.76	78.9	High
Participants responses total Scores	3.43	0.76	76.9	High

Table 1 shows that the implementation of teaching strategies targeting sociolinguistic competence on linguistic proficiency and sociological variation as perceived by learners had a mean of (3.43), which indicates that there is a high impact of implementing sociolinguistic competence strategies in teaching EFL.

Results of the sub-questions

A- What is the impact of teaching strategies targeting sociolinguistic competence on linguistic proficiency and sociological variation in the strategies subject as perceived by participants?

TABLE 2
LEARNERS' RESPONSES ON IMPACT OF TEACHING STRATEGIES TARGETING SOCIOLINGUISTIC COMPETENCE ON LINGUISTIC PROFICIENCY AND SOCIOLOGICAL VARIATION IN THE STRATEGIES

No	Item	Mean	SD	%	level
1	To achieve the best possible English language acquisition, EFL students can greatly benefit from the application of sociolinguistic proficiency strategies.	3.36	1.17	76.9	High
2	Students' proficiency in using the foreign language is enhanced when sociolinguistic competency strategies are incorporated into English language instruction.	3.49	1.06	70.3	High
3	English language competency in Egyptian institutions is improved by the application of sociolinguistic proficiency strategies.	3.39	1.07	79.3	High
4	Using sociolinguistic strategies helps EFL students' vocabulary development.	3.55	1.09	71.1	High
5	By using sociolinguistic strategies, EFL students can become more familiar with the English language's cultural elements.	3.44	1.02	79.1	High
6	Putting sociolinguistic strategies into practice makes learning a new language easier.	3.39	1.03	78.1	High
7	For EFL learners, the use of sociolinguistic strategies specifies the linguistic variants.	3.27	1.03	75.5	High
8	For EFL learners, applying sociolinguistic competency strategies clarifies linguistic variances.	3.37	1.05	77.7	High
9	When sociolinguistic competency strategies are used, English acquisition becomes sociologically realized.	3.43	1.05	78.7	High
10	The four elements of learning the English language are covered by the application of sociolinguistic competency strategies.	3.42	1.13	78.1	High
11	In Egyptian universities, there is little emphasis placed on teaching EFL student's sociolinguistic competency strategies.	3.20	1.16	73.7	High
12	By using sociolinguistic competence strategies, EFL learners can utilize the language authentically.	3.31	1.11	76.1	High
13	By using sociolinguistic competency strategies, EFL students can generate English sentences on their own.	3.31	1.11	76.2	High
14	Applying strategies for sociolinguistic competency, are seen as crucial pedagogies for English language learning	3.39	1.03	77.5	High

Table 2 shows that the impact of teaching strategies targeting sociolinguistic competence on linguistic proficiency and sociological variation in strategies subject as perceived by participants had a mean of (3.38), which indicates that implementing sociolinguistic competence strategies have high influence of linguistic sociological variation on linguistic proficiency and sociological variation in the strategies.

B- What is the impact of teaching strategies targeting sociolinguistic competence on linguistic proficiency and sociological variation in the students' needs as perceived by participants?

TABLE 3
LEARNERS' RESPONSES ON IMPACT OF TEACHING STRATEGIES TARGETING SOCIOLINGUISTIC COMPETENCE ON LINGUISTIC PROFICIENCY AND SOCIOLOGICAL VARIATION IN THE STUDENTS' NEEDS

No	Item	Mean	SD	%	level
1	Sociological awareness aids EFL learners for language acquisition	3.49	1.13	79.8	High
2	Being able to speak English accurately is correlated with having good grammar.	3.04	1.26	70.8	High
3	In a foreign language, good performance is correlated with sociolinguistic ability.	3.58	1.06	71.6	High
4	Learners of foreign languages become more proficient in sociolinguistics when they employ idioms, proverbs, and language expressions.	3.66	1.08	73.2	High
5	Understanding English's cultural nuances is essential for achieving sociolinguistic competency.	3.63	1.10	72.6	High
6	For learners to function effectively in English, they must possess sociolinguistic competence.	3.26	1.18	75.2	High
7	Sociolinguistic competency is not achieved through the translation of literature from NL to FL.	3.01	1.20	70.2	High
8	Taking up a second language requires acclimating to a new framework with its own unique norms and culture.	3.47	1.07	79.8	High
9	A high degree of English competency cannot be attained by EFL learners who lack sociolinguistic ability.	3.51	1.20	70.2	High
10	EFL students at Egyptian universities lack sociolinguistic competency.	3.30	1.01	76	High
11	The absence of sociolinguistic competence strategies is the main reason why EFL students lack sociolinguistic proficiency.	3.37	1.11	77.1	High
Students needs total Score		3.35	0.61	76.9	High

Table 3 shows that the impact of teaching strategies targeting sociolinguistic competence on linguistic proficiency and sociological variation in strategies subject as perceived by participants had a mean of (3.36), which indicates that implementing sociolinguistic competence strategies has a high influence of linguistic sociological variation on linguistic proficiency and sociological variation in the students' needs.

C- What is the impact of teaching strategies targeting sociolinguistic competence on linguistic proficiency and sociological variation in the set-up as perceived by participants?

TABLE 4
LEARNERS' RESPONSES ON IMPACT OF TEACHING STRATEGIES TARGETING SOCIOLINGUISTIC COMPETENCE ON LINGUISTIC PROFICIENCY AND SOCIOLOGICAL VARIATION IN SET UP

No	Item	Mean	SD	%	level
1	Instructions for sociolinguistic competence strategies are necessary for EFL teachers.	3.37	1.15	77.7	High
2	Strategies for sociolinguistic competency demand a lot of work from EFL students.	3.33	1.02	78.8	High
3	Strategies for sociolinguistic competency demand a curriculum with high qualifications.	3.32	1.21	77.5	High
4	Specific pedagogies are needed for sociolinguistic competence strategies.	3.74	1.19	77.8	High
5	To be sociolinguistically competent, one must interact with and meet native teachers.	3.45	1.17	78.2	High
6	Sociolinguistic competency strategies combine classic and contemporary approaches to learning a foreign language.	3.41	1.09	78.2	High
7	Sociolinguistic competency techniques boost FEL students' productivity levels.	3.47	1.01	78.8	High
8	Sociolinguistic competency strategies foster creativity in EFL students	3.48	1.18	78.7	High
Set up subject total Score		3.43	0.78	77.9	High

Table 4 shows that the impact of teaching strategies targeting sociolinguistic competence on proficiency and sociological variation in the set-up subject as perceived by participants had a linguistic mean of (3.43), which indicates that implementing sociolinguistic competence strategies has a high influence of linguistic sociological variation on linguistic proficiency and sociological variation in the set-up.

D- What is the impact of teaching strategies targeting sociolinguistic competence on linguistic proficiency and sociological variation in the materials as perceived by participants?

TABLE 5
LEARNERS' RESPONSES ON IMPACT OF TEACHING STRATEGIES TARGETING SOCIOLINGUISTIC COMPETENCE ON LINGUISTIC PROFICIENCY AND SOCIOLOGICAL VARIATION IN THE MATERIALS SUBJECT

No	Item	Mean	SD	%	level
1	Learning of FL differs from FL acquisition.	3.51	1.22	71.1	High
2	For EFL students, one of the biggest challenges in learning a language is being able to communicate informally in English.	3.38	1.19	76.6	High
3	For EFL students to acquire English language proficiency, a significant degree of sociolinguistic competence is necessary.	3.34	1.18	78.1	High
4	The primary factor underlying sociolinguistic competency is linguistic variance.	3.41	1.09	77.4	High
5	Linguistic variances have a major impact on EFL learners' ability to learn English.	3.37	1.76	78.6	High
6	Linguistic differences affect social perception	3.42	1.13	77.4	High
7	Linguistic variances include cultural variances.	3.51	1.10	72.4	High
Materials subject total Score		3.41	0.72	78.1	High

Table 5 shows that the impact of teaching strategies targeting sociolinguistic competence on linguistic proficiency and sociological variation in the materials subject as perceived by participants had a mean of (3.41), which indicates that implementing sociolinguistic competence strategies has a high influence of linguistic sociological variation on linguistic proficiency and sociological variation in the materials.

Regarding the first research hypothesis, the results indicated that there are no statistically significant differences ($\alpha = 0.05$) in learners' responses to the impact of implementing sociolinguistic competence strategies for teaching EFL on linguistic proficiency and sociological variation according to gender. T-Test was used.

TABLE 6
T-TEST OF LEARNERS' RESPONSES TO IMPLEMENTING SOCIOLINGUISTIC COMPETENCE TEACHING STRATEGIES IN TEACHING EFL ACCORDING TO GENDER

Subject	Gender	Frequency	M	S. D	T-value	Sig.*
Strategies	Male	26	3.22	0.71	0.002	0.016*
	Female	124	3.44	0.72		
Students' needs	Male	26	3.32	0.58	0.022	0.023*
	Female	124	3.35	0.61		
Set up	Male	26	3.36	0.67	0.042	0.031*
	Female	124	3.37	0.71		
Materials	Male	26	3.45	0.75	0.031	0.128*
	Female	124	3.44	0.78		
Total score	Male	26	3.34	0.58	0.020	0.005*
	Female	124	3.39	0.60		

* The significant at ($\alpha \leq 0.05$).

Table 6 shows that there are statistically significant differences ($\alpha \leq 0.05$) in the impact of implementing sociolinguistic competence strategies for teaching EFL on language proficiency and sociological variation as perceived by students according to gender.

The outcomes demonstrate the rejection of the null hypothesis. The use of sociolinguistic proficiency teaching strategies in Egyptian universities is a powerful example of how the public views diversity and competency in teaching EFL. This finding supported the claim made by Smith et al. (2017) that there are significant differences amongst human languages in terms of semantics, morphology, phonology, syntax, and sociolinguistics. Due to these linguistic hurdles, linguistic aspects must be spread throughout the teaching procedure using sociolinguistic functions and other means in order to facilitate the acquisition of foreign languages. Furthermore, this result is in line with that of Mohammadi (2014), who discovered that applying EFL learners' sociolinguistic competence strategies resulted in a notable improvement in the appropriate application of foreign language sociolinguistics.

Regarding the second research hypothesis, it appeared that there are no statistically significant differences ($\alpha = 0.05$) in learners' responses to the impact of implementing sociolinguistic competence strategies for teaching EFL on linguistic proficiency and sociological variation according to academic level-Test was used.

TABLE 7
T-TEST OF LEARNERS' RESPONSES TO IMPLEMENTING SOCIOLINGUISTIC COMPETENCE TEACHING STRATEGIES IN TEACHING EFL ACCORDING TO ACADEMIC LEVEL

Subject	Academic Level	Frequency	M	S. D	T-value	Sig.*
Strategies	Bachelor	144	3.40	0.71	0.032	0.023
	Master	6	3.20	0.72		
student's needs	Bachelor	144	3.36	0.58	0.021	0.021
	Master	6	3.18	0.68		
Set up	Bachelor	144	3.41	0.68	0.022	0.032
	Master	6	3.26	0.77		
Materials	Bachelor	144	3.44	0.78	0.040	0.014
	Master	6	3.37	0.75		
Total score	Bachelor	144	3.41	0.61	0.016	0.013
	Master	6	3.26	0.68		

* The significant at ($\alpha \leq 0.05$).

Table 7 shows that there are statistically significant differences ($\alpha \leq 0.05$) in the impact of implementing sociolinguistic competence strategies for teaching EFL on linguistic proficiency and sociological variation as perceived by participants according to academic level.

Given the outcomes, the null hypothesis was disproved. The results showed the beneficial effects of implementing sociolinguistic competency strategies in the instruction of EFL, leading to the development of sociolinguistic competence and sociological variation among participants. Furthermore, the outcomes demonstrated that the linguistic distinctions between the mother tongue and the foreign language can be explained by applying sociolinguistic competency strategies when teaching EFL.

The aforementioned results are in close relation to those of Rababah (2016), who discovered that Arab learners studying English as a foreign language encounter challenges; their linguistic performance is poor due to a lack of language proficiency. Rababah (2016) determined the causes of this, including students' negative attitudes, a discouraging environment, curriculum design, instructional approach, and a dearth of vocabulary. In order to minimize learning challenges, the researcher stressed the importance of adopting communication methods when teaching and learning EFL.

V. CONCLUSION

The study results show that the majority of participants accepted the high impact of sociolinguistic competence strategies implementation for improving language proficiency and having perfect sociolinguistic sociological variation in learning EFL in favour of strategies, learners needs, set up, and materials. Moreover, the null hypothesis was rejected. The research results illustrate that there are statistically significant differences ($\alpha \leq 0.05$) in the impact of teaching strategies targeting sociolinguistic competence on linguistic proficiency and sociological variation among EFL learners in Egyptian universities in teaching EFL as perceived by learners according to gender and academic level.

REFERENCES

- [1] Abdilakimova, U. B., & Musoyeva, A. B. (2022). The importance of socio linguistic competence in forming perspective foreign language teachers' professional development. *Multidiscipline Proceedings of digital fashion conference*, 87-90.
- [2] Abd Rahman, S. N., Razali, A. B., Abd Samad, A., Jeyaraj, J. J., & Abdullah, N. S. (2022). Developing Sociolinguistic Competence in the ESL Classroom: A Case Study of ESL Instructors in a Malaysian University. *Asian Journal of University Education*, 18(4), 1156-1170.
- [3] Al-Obaidi, A., & Al-Khayat, H. (2021). Challenges and opportunities in developing sociolinguistic competence in EFL classrooms: A qualitative study. *Journal of Language Teaching and Research*, 12(1), 1-14.
- [4] Brown, J. D., & Taylor, L. (2022). Using role-playing activities to develop sociolinguistic competence in EFL learners. *TESOL Quarterly*, 56(1), 69-93.
- [5] Byram, M. (2019). Intercultural competence in EFL education: A critical perspective. In J. Cummins and M. Hornberger (Eds.), *Encyclopedia of applied linguistics* (pp. 1-14). Routledge.
- [6] Celce-Murcia, M., Dörnyei, Z., & Thurrell, S. (2019). *Teaching and learning vocabulary* (5th ed.). Routledge.
- [7] Celce-Murcia, M., Dörnyei, Z., & Thurrell, S. (2020). *Teaching English as a foreign language: A communicative approach* (4th ed.). Cambridge University Press.
- [8] Elmahidi, O. E. H., AbdAlgane, M., & Bajri, I. A. (2023). Sociolinguistic Pedagogical Implications of EFL Issues: A Case Study of Saudi Universities. *International Journal of Learning, Teaching and Educational Research*, 22(4), 264-285.
- [9] Enisa, M. E. D. E., & Dililitaş, K. (2015). Teaching and learning sociolinguistic competence: Teachers' critical perceptions. *Participatory Educational Research*, 2(3), 14-31.
- [10] Ferguson, T. S. (2021). The importance of sociolinguistic competence in EFL education. *ELT Journal*, 75(4), 390-396.
- [11] Ghazali, M. (2019). Teaching and learning sociolinguistic competence in EFL education: A critical review of the literature. *Journal of Language Teaching and Research*, 10(4), 925-940.
- [12] Herawati, S. (2021). The Effectiveness of E-Learning-Based Sociolinguistic Instruction on EFL University Students' Sociolinguistic Competence. *International Journal of Instruction*, 14(4), 627-642.

- [13] Howard, T. C. (2021). Culturally responsive pedagogy. *Transforming Multicultural Education Policy and Practice: Expanding Educational Opportunity*, 1(6)137-141.
- [14] Hsieh, M. H., & Chuang, H. H. (2021). Investigating pre-service English teachers' beliefs of sociolinguistic instruction in EFL classes in Taiwan. *TESOL and Technology Studies*, 2(2), 16-28.
- [15] Kumaravadivelu, B. (2018). *Critical pedagogy in EFL education (2nd ed.)*. Routledge.
- [16] Liu, X., & Gao, Y. (2020). The effectiveness of using a task-based approach to teaching sociolinguistic competence in an EFL classroom in China. *Language Teaching Research*, 24(5), 625-642.
- [17] Mohammadi, M. (2014). Iranian EFL learners' sociolinguistic competence: Refusal strategies in focus. *Journal of Language and Linguistic Studies*, 10(2), 48-66.
- [18] Mujiono, S. H. (2019). The effectiveness of E-learning based on self-directed learning on Sociolinguistic competence of EFL university students. In *Proceedings of the International Conference on Education, Language and Society*, 336-343.
- [19] Putra, E. R. (2021). EFL Teacher's Beliefs about Sociolinguistic Competence: A Qualitative Case Study in Indonesian Formal English Pedagogy. *Lingua Cultura*, 15(2), 191-198.
- [20] Rababah, G. (2016). The effect of communication strategy training on the development of EFL learners' strategic competence and oral communicative ability. *Journal of psycholinguistic research*, 45, 625-651.
- [21] Richards, J. C., & Schmidt, R. (2020). *Longman dictionary of applied linguistics* (5th ed.). Routledge.
- [22] Smith, K., Perfors, A., Fehér, O., Samara, A., Swoboda, K., & Wonnacott, E. (2017). Language learning, language use and the evolution of linguistic sociological variation. *Philosophical Transactions of the Royal Society B: Biological Sciences*, 372(1711), 1-13.
- [23] Taguchi, T., & De Costa, P. I. (2021). The impact of explicit sociolinguistic instruction on EFL learners' sociolinguistic competence. *Language Teaching Research*, 25(1), 1-21.
- [24] Ur Rahman, M. M. (2020). Improving communicative English skills based on sociolinguistics competence of EFL students. *The Asian ESP Journal*, 16(5), 260-274.

Rasha A. Dorgham -- Assistant professor of Applied Linguistics/TESOL, College of Languages and Translation, Imam Mohammed Bin Saud Islamic University/ Lecturer, Cairo University, Faculty of Graduate Studies for Education. Her areas of expertise include second language acquisition and assessment, computer-assisted language learning, teaching effectiveness, and teacher education. Her research interests lie in the areas of second language teaching and learning, language assessment, and teacher cognition.

The Effect of Using Verbal Thinking Skills on Enhancing Effective Verbal Communication Among Ninth-Grade Female Students in Jordan

Rateb Qasem Ashour*

Curriculum and Instruction, College of Education, Yarmouk University, Jordan

Iman Ali Muhaidat

Curriculum and Instruction, College of Education, Yarmouk University, Jordan

Abstract—This research examined how students' levels of verbal thinking correlated with their ability to communicate effectively in ninth grade among Jordanian females. A control group and an experimental group were established in accordance with a semi-experimental design. The students were recruited from Yarmouk University Model School utilizing a preexisting strategy. The research included 40 students, with 20 in the experimental group getting training in verbal thinking abilities and the other 20 in the control group receiving teaching in traditional ways. A validated and reliability-assessed 30-item multiple-choice test was used to accomplish the study's goals. The experimental and control groups were evaluated at the beginning and end of the trial, respectively, using this instrument. The study's results showed statistically significant differences, demonstrating the beneficial influence of training verbal thinking skills on developing competent oral communication.

Index Terms—verbal thinking skills, effective oral communication skills, Jordan

I. BACKGROUND AND IMPORTANCE OF THE STUDY

Oral linguistic communication is a key indicator of cognitive development and kinesthetic perception, distinguishing humans from other living beings (Al-Hawamdeh & Al-Khanji, 2017). It functions as a tool for thinking, envisioning, and remembering, connecting abstract and concrete meanings. Oral communication, which is precise and all-encompassing, incorporates auditory symbols and non-verbal language to bolster arguments and win over listeners (Abdel-Bary, 2011a). Human communication relies on language, comprising expressive and receptive parts (AlHawamdeh, 2006).

AlHawamdeh argues that the value of language goes beyond individuals and into language groups. As a reflection of thought and sentiment, language shapes and communicates ideas, shaping learners' experiences and facilitating their academic and practical endeavours. Words and other phonetic symbols allow instructors and students to communicate effectively by sharing their experiences and thoughts (Al-Hawamdeh & Al-Khanji, 2017).

According to AlHawamdeh, language serves as a means of expression and communication (Al-Hawamdeh & Al-Khanji, 2017). Abdel Bary (2011a) stresses the significance of language learning in comprehending human history and customs (Abdel-Bary, 2011a). While Flanders et al. (as mentioned in Rashid, 2007) highlight the relevance of interpersonal skills in enhancing learners' engagement and cognitive ability, effective language communication requires the appropriate transmission of information and meanings from instructor to student (Rashid, 2007).

Effective verbal and nonverbal communication skills facilitate a cordial teacher-student relationship and enhance the learning experience (Taima, 2004). "Communication skills" refers to more than just the ability to express oneself in words; it also includes the ability to apply that performance in particular situations. The development of linguistic abilities, such as listening and speaking, is deeply entwined with the environment in which they are used and is a mental activity requiring focus, understanding, and information processing (Asr, 2005).

Speech, one of the productive language skills, requires precise utilization of language sounds and their morphological arrangement within an educational framework (Abdel-Bary, 2011b). Its goal is to transmit meaning and ease communication. Hence, concepts and ideas must be articulated clearly to avoid misunderstandings (Abdel-Bary, 2011a).

Vocabulary, a fundamental language component, allows people to articulate their innermost feelings and beliefs (Steven A. Stahl, 2006). Conversations and listening are significant in vocabulary development, and context-based interactions are also important (Johnson, 2008). The capacity to construct and organize words fluently is developed via linguistic thinking, which aids communication, self-expression, and knowledge presentation ((Moussaoui, 2012).

Al-Subaie (2009) argues that a systematic strategy is necessary for teaching students to think critically (Al-Subaie, 2009). Sentence construction and context-based arrangement are the logical conclusions of linguistic thinking,

* Corresponding Author. Email: rashour@yu.edu.jo

heightening students' attunement to words' sounds, meanings, structures, and functions (Al-Totani, 2013).

Even though the Arabic language is constantly developing, teachers tend to place less value on oral communication abilities, instead focusing on the final auditory form without encouraging comprehension. Vocabulary acquisition is a complicated process inextricably linked to thinking; it serves as a tool for communicating thoughts and performing cognitive duties (Abdel-Bary, 2011a).

Haarmann et al. (2012) and Willis (2008), among others, stress the need to teach students critical thinking abilities in language classes, which includes developing a wider vocabulary and a deeper appreciation of context (Henk J. Haarmann, 2012; Willis, 2008). Haynes and Zacarian (2010) distinguish between direct and indirect approaches to teaching vocabulary, while Stratton (2001) highlights the importance of verbal interaction in shaping students' conceptualizations (Stratton, 1999; Zachariah, 2010).

In addition, Al-Houli and Al-Hayat (2012) argue that verbal thinking abilities comprise three primary features. To begin, "Biased Questions" refer to situations in which a teacher's personal preference for a certain response frames the question in a good or negative light. Second, "Verbal Delicacy" refers to substituting tactful and nice words for negative or challenging ones, providing a constructive tone while conveying an unfavourable message. Third, "Harshness of Words" alludes to a negative verbal style that expresses a positive mood by the calculated use of harsh words to convey a positive message. This nuanced view highlights the complexity of verbal thinking abilities and their potential effect on communication dynamics (Al-Houli, 2012).

Al-Fayoumi (2012) added to the conversation on powerful oral communication by investigating the impact of linguistic communication activities on the maturation of oral expression abilities among ninth-graders. The research looked at language-based activities that aim to improve oral expression abilities using a semi-experimental methodology. The results showed that the students who participated in the most beneficial language activities had the highest scores in oral writing (Fayoumi, 2012).

Samara and Al-Assaf (2013) investigated whether or not students perceive a high level of communicative competence among Arabic language instructors in UNRWA schools. Using a semi-experimental design and a questionnaire based on Likert scales, this research found that educators, especially those working with students in the upper basic grades, put into practice a high degree of effective communication abilities. This points to the possible beneficial effects of effective communication on students' educational experiences (Samara, 2013).

Similarly, Haniyeh and Al-Haddad (2019) set out to investigate the effects of a curriculum built on the tenets of civilized discourse on the maturation of students' oral communication abilities in Arabic throughout the tenth grade. Researchers used a semi-experimental strategy using a test of oral communication skills to discover statistically significant variations in test takers' performance after exposure to polite conversation principles. This demonstrates the importance of cultivating strong oral communication via fundamental communication practices (Haddad, 2019).

Musleh (2019) investigated the effect of "the four pillars" active learning technique on third-grade girls' progress in developing their oral communication abilities. The research used a semi-experimental design, with participants taking listening comprehension tests and using notecards to record their oral presentations. It found that the active learning technique improved participants' ability to put their knowledge into practice. These results highlight the promise of cutting-edge instructional approaches to bettering students' communication skills (Mosleh, 2019).

In addition, Al-Khalidi and Bani Issa (2021) focused on fostering linguistic intelligence using a criteria-driven curriculum. Researchers used a semi-experimental design to evaluate the program's effect on kids' linguistic intelligence and ability to think creatively in middle school. The research results showed statistically significant changes that could be ascribed to the training program, proving the importance of methods based on organized thinking for improving performance (Al-Khalidi, 2021).

These studies, taken as a whole, highlight the significance of strong verbal communication and logical reasoning in the classroom. Other research highlights the need to develop verbal and linguistic thinking abilities (Al-Khalidi, 2021), while others stress the importance of teaching good communication skills (Haddad, 2019; Mosleh, 2019; Samara, 2013). These results support the argument that Arabic speakers might benefit from concerted efforts to strengthen their oral communication skills.

The current study explores how teaching advanced verbal thinking skills to female students in Jordan's ninth grade might improve their students' ability to express themselves clearly in conversation. This research intends to contribute to the educational discussion by investigating how verbal reasoning and communication skills are intertwined, with the hope of shedding light on successful pedagogical strategies and stimulating new developments in Arabic language teaching.

A. Study Problem

This research focuses on the underemphasized teaching of Vocabulary and the development of verbal reasoning skills, which are essential components of effective oral communication. Instructors often ignore these abilities despite their significance, limiting comprehension and expression. Previous studies, such as Jaafar's (2018), illustrate the significance of verbal language intelligence shaped by the classroom setting. However, there is still a significant disconnect between the importance of developing strong written and spoken communication skills within the school (Jaafar, 2018). To help close this achievement gap, researchers in Jordan examined how ninth-grade girls may benefit from developing their verbal thinking abilities to improve their oral communication.

B. Research Question

- Are there statistically significant differences at the level of significance ($\alpha = 0.05$) between the arithmetic means of the performance of the ninth-grade female students in employing verbal thinking skills in the type of skill (biased questions, verbal delicacy, harshness of words) related to the teaching method (the traditional thinking skills verbal, the usual)?
- Are there statistically significant differences at the significance level ($\alpha = 0.05$) between the arithmetic means of the performance of the ninth-grade female students in improving effective oral communication skills due to the teaching method (the traditional verbal thinking skills)?

II. METHODOLOGY

A. Research Design

According to the objectives of the investigation, a quasi-experimental design was implemented.

B. Participants

Researchers used a convenience sample of 40 female Yarmouk University Model School ninth graders. 20 students were split evenly between two groups: an experimental group and a control group.

C. Study Tool

The theoretical literature and previous research were the basis for developing the study tool. A test was developed to evaluate the ability to effectively communicate orally on four levels of understanding: literal, logical, evaluative, and creative. There were seven paragraphs on the literal level, eight on the logical level, eight on the evaluative level, and seven at the creative level.

D. Tool Creation Process

Speech communication and deductive reasoning were analyzed concerning theoretical literature and previous research skills (Al-Khalidi, 2021; Haddad, 2019; Mosleh, 2019). Researchers evaluated the listening skill resources for the ninth grade in the Arabic language curriculum to create pre-and post-tests for the four comprehension levels and their corresponding side skills.

E. Validity of the Tool

To ensure the tool's validity, it was first shown to professionals and specialists in Arabic language and teaching techniques for feedback. The Irbid Directorate of Education's Arabic language supervisors offered further input on the text's readability and comprehension. The supervisors also gave their opinions on the deletion and modification of items or anything about the items of the study tool. Both researchers considered the notes and guidance obtained unanimously from the supervisors at a rate of (85%) or more. Their suggestions informed the changes made to the tool and ultimately led to its completion.

F. Tool Stability

A (Test-Retest) strategy was used to establish the reliability of the evaluation instrument by administering it twice to 20 female students who were not part of the original study's sample. The test's clarity and participant appropriateness were validated after adjustments were made based on comments from supervisors. Using a 'Likert scale' to rate each of the eight factors' importance, we used the model response to inform our corrections. The resultant score ranged from 1 to 4 for most goods and 1 to 10 after adjustments were made for some things. Strong test score stability was shown by a Pearson correlation value of 0.91, which increases the trustworthiness of the research. The tool's robustness and validity were further enhanced by the study of answers from 20 female students. This allowed for estimating difficulty and discrimination coefficients for each question (**Table 1**).

TABLE 1
ILLUSTRATES EACH TEST ITEM'S DIFFICULTY AND DISCRIMINATION COEFFICIENTS

Item Number	Difficulty coefficient	Discrimination Coefficient
1	0.35	0.62**
2	0.25	0.75**
3	0.25	0.88**
4	0.40	0.57.**
5	0.70	0.53*
6	0.25	0.79**
7	0.20	**0.85
8	0.40	**0.84

*Statistically significant at the significance level of 0.05

**Statistically significant at the significance level of 0.01

According to Table 1, the difficulty coefficients of the items range between (0.20-0.70), and the discrimination coefficients range between (0.53-0.88). This is an appropriate value for the study, and thus, none of the test items were

omitted based on the difficulty and discrimination coefficients.

G. Equivalence Groups

To verify the equivalence of the groups, the arithmetic averages, standard deviations of the skills and the total score of the grades of the ninth-grade female students in each skill (biased questions, verbal delicacy, harshness of words) according to the variable of the two study groups (experimental and control). To illustrate the statistical differences between the arithmetic means, the t-test was employed, as shown in **Table 2**.

TABLE 2
MEANS, STANDARD DEVIATIONS, AND THE "T" TEST, ACCORDING TO THE GROUP VARIABLE ON THE SCORES OF NINTH-GRADE STUDENTS IN THE EFFECTIVE ORAL COMMUNICATION SKILLS TEST

Dimension	Group	Number	The arithmetic mean	The Standard Deviation	Value "T"	Degree of freedom	Statistical significance
Biased Questions	Experimental	20	3.35	.671	-1.616	38	114
	control	20	3.65	.489			
Verbal Delicacy	Experimental	20	2.60	.821	.384	38	703
	control	20	2.50	.827			
Harshness of Words	Experimental	20	2.60	.598	-2.451	38	019
	control	20	2.95	.224			
Pre / Total Degree	Experimental	20	6.75	1.372	-2.186	38	035
	control	20	7.50	.688			

According to Table 2, it is clear that there are no statistically significant differences at ($\alpha = 0.05$) attributed to the group in the biased questions, verbal delicacy. There are statistically significant differences at ($\alpha = 0.05$) attributed to the group in the harshness of words and the total score of the effective oral communication skills test. This result shows the equivalence of the groups in the skills of biased questions and verbal delicacy, while it is not equivalence in the skill of the harshness of words and the total score. Therefore, an analysis of variance was adopted to remove the effect of tribal differences.

H. Statistical Processors

To answer the two questions of the study, the arithmetic means and standard deviations were calculated for the performance of the two study groups on the pre-and post-scales in testing effective oral communication skills according to the teaching method (the traditional verbal thinking skills). Multiple analysis of variance (One Wey MANCOVA) was used to verify the significance of the apparent differences between the two measures, and (One Wey ANCOVA) was used for the post-measurement to test effective oral communication skills as a whole after determining the effect of the pre-measurement for them. Eta square (η^2) was adopted to discover the size of the effect of teaching method verbal thinking skills.

III. RESULTS

The study's overarching objective was to compare the effectiveness of two approaches to teaching students critical thinking skills (using verbal thinking skills versus traditional skills) by analyzing the mean performance scores of ninth-grade female students in these areas: biased questioning, verbal delicacy, and harshness of words. Data from pre- and post-tests on the abilities mentioned above were collected from groups of ninth graders taught in different ways, and the averages and standard deviations were calculated. These findings are shown in Table 3.

TABLE 3
ARITHMETIC MEANS, STANDARD DEVIATIONS, AND THE ADJUSTED ARITHMETIC MEAN OF THE PRE AND POST-MEASUREMENTS OF NINTH-GRADE FEMALE STUDENTS IN SKILLS (BIASED QUESTIONS, VERBAL DELICACY, HARSHNESS OF WORDS) ACCORDING TO THE TEACHING METHOD

Dimensions	Teaching methods	Number	Pre-measurement		Telemetry		arithmetic average Average	Standard Error
			Arithmetic mean	Arithmetic mean	Arithmetic mean	Arithmetic mean		
Biased Questions	Verbal Thinking Skills	20	3.35	.671	3.90	.447	3.940	.202
	The usual Verbal Thinking Skills	20	3.65	.489	3.15	1.089	3.110	.202
verbal delicacy	Verbal Thinking Skills	20	2.60	.821	3.00	.000	3.002	.116
	The usual Verbal Thinking Skills	20	2.50	.827	2.80	.695	2.798	.116
harshness of words	Verbal Thinking Skills	20	2.60	.598	2.95	.224	2.929	.142
	The usual Verbal Thinking Skills	20	2.95	.224	2.45	.826	2.471	.142

According to Table 3, there are obvious differences between the arithmetic means. The adjusted arithmetic means in the pre-and post-measurements of the scores of the ninth-grade female students in each skill (biased questions, verbal

delicacy, harshness of words) result from the difference in the teaching method (verbal and regular thinking skills). A One-Way MANCOVA analysis was conducted in **Table 4** to verify the importance of the obvious differences.

TABLE 4
ONE-WAY MULTIPLE VARIANCE ANALYSIS (MANCOVA) OF THE IMPACT OF THE TEACHING METHOD ON THE TELEMTRY OF THE SCORES OF THE NINTH-GRADE STUDENTS IN EACH SKILL (BIASED QUESTIONS, VERBAL DELICACY, HARSHNESS OF WORDS) AFTER DETERMINING THE EFFECT OF THE PRE-MEASUREMENT FOR THEM

Source of Discrepancy	Sum of Squares	Degrees of Freedom	The mean of squares sum	F	Error Probability	Effect size η^2
Biased Questions pre -measurements	.029	1	.029	.040	.843	.001
verbal delicacy pre-measurements	.002	1	.002	.008	.929	.000
Harshness of words Pre- measurements	.742	1	.742	2.051	.161	.055
Teaching methods	5.584	1	5.584	7.610	.009	.179
Hoteling = 0.315	.335	1	.335	1.398	.245	.038
h = 0.027	1.706	1	1.706	4.716	.037	.119
The error	25.684	35	.734			
	8.382	35	.239			
	12.660	35	.362			
Total correction	31.975	39				
	9.600	39				
	16.400	39				

According to Table 4, there are statistically significant differences at the level of significance ($\alpha = 0.05$) according to the effect of the teaching method (verbal thinking skills, the traditional) in all skills except for the skill of verbal delicacy. The differences were in favour of the female students who received a teaching method that activates verbal thinking skills compared to the ones who received a traditional teaching method, considering that the effect size of the dimensions may range between (3.8%-17.9%).

The purpose of this study was to compare the effectiveness of two different approaches to teaching oral communication to ninth-grade female students and to determine whether or not there were statistically significant differences between the mean performance scores of the two groups at the significance level of $\alpha = 0.05$. Means, standard deviations, and adjusted means were calculated for the Effective Oral Communication Skills Test administered to female ninth graders before and after instruction in either verbal thinking skills or the more traditional style of instruction **Table 5**.

TABLE 5
THE ARITHMETIC MEANS, STANDARD DEVIATIONS, AND THE ADJUSTED ARITHMETIC MEAN OF THE SCORES OF THE NINTH-GRADE STUDENTS IN THE TEST OF EFFECTIVE ORAL COMMUNICATION SKILLS AS A WHOLE FOR THE PRE AND POST-MEASUREMENTS ACCORDING TO THE TEACHING METHOD (VERBAL THINKING SKILLS, THE USUAL).

Teaching Method	Number	pre-measurement		Post-measurement		arithmetic average Average	Standard Error
		arithmetic average	standard deviation	arithmetic average	standard deviation		
Verbal thinking skills	20	6.75	1.372	7.85	1.278	7.877	.302
The usual	20	7.50	.688	6.52	4.765	6.473	.302

According to **Table 5**, there are obvious differences between the arithmetic mean and the adjusted arithmetic average of the scores of ninth-grade female students in the test of effective oral communication skills in the pre-and post-measurements according to the teaching method (verbal, regular thinking skills). To see whether these apparent differences are significant Statistically, One Way ANCOVA was used for post-measurement to test oral communication skills according to the teaching method (verbal thinking skills, usual) after determining the effect of pre-measurement for them. The following is a presentation of these results, as shown in **Table 6**.

TABLE 6
RESULTS OF ONE WAY ANOVA FOR THE POST-MEASUREMENT OF THE SCORES OF THE NINTH-GRADE STUDENTS IN THE EFFECTIVE ORAL COMMUNICATION SKILLS TEST AS A WHOLE ACCORDING TO THE TEACHING METHOD (VERBAL THINKING SKILLS, THE USUAL) AFTER DETERMINING THE EFFECT OF THE PRE-MEASUREMENT ON THEM

source of discrepancy	Sum squares	of Degrees of freedom	Average of squares sum	F value	significance level	Eta-squared η^2
Pre-measurement	.236	1	.236	.138	.712	.004
Teaching method	17.523	1	17.523	10.240	.003	.217
Error	63.314	37	1.711			
Total	81.775	39				

According to Table 6, there are statistically significant differences at the significance level ($\alpha = 0.05$) in the scores of the ninth-grade students in the effective oral communication skills test according to the teaching method (verbal thinking skills, the traditional), as the value of (F) reached to (10.240) with a statistical significance of (0.003), which is a statistically significant value and the differences were all for the teaching method for the female students that received verbal thinking skills in comparison with the students that received the traditional teaching method.

Table 6 shows that the influence of the teaching method was huge; the value of the ETA squared illustrated (η^2) equals (21.7%) of the illustrated (predicted) variance in the dependent variable, which is the effective oral communication skills test.

IV. DISCUSSION

The results showed that there were statistically significant differences at the significance level ($\alpha = 0.05$) between the average performance of the participants of the study on the verbal thinking skills scale in favor of the experimental group, which was taught through thinking skills that shows the effectiveness of these skills and their influencing on enhancing oral communication skills among the female students.

Both researchers relate the progress of the experimental group over the control group, in each verbal thinking skill separately and collectively, like the performance of the study participants, to its influence on enhancing effective oral communication skills and its ability to help the learners realize the meanings of Vocabulary, differentiate them, and know the meanings of words according to the context through recalling them and making the Vocabulary present and prominent in mind during educational events.

This asserts the importance of teaching vocabulary and thinking skills by linking language to thinking. Both researchers attribute the statistical differences at the significance level ($\alpha = 0.05$) in the sub-skills. The skill of 'harshness of words' is offered to the rest of the skills because it creates a positive meaning in the learner's mind within the communicative contexts. Such a matter was affirmed by Al-Hooly and Al-Khayyat (2012); they clarified that the skill of harshness of words is a deliberate expression of harsh words to convey a positive meaning; thus, it is a harsh verbal style that conveys a positive meaning (Al-Houli, 2012).

In addition, both researchers associate the decrease in the statistical result with teaching verbal thinking skills to the control group.

The participants' performance compared with the prescale shows a lack of attention of teachers and learners concerning these skills and a lack of awareness of the importance and role of these skills in enhancing effective oral communication skills. One of the researchers noticed this while working in the educational field: lack of interest of learners in these skills, lack of interaction with them, and the teacher's failure to teach and employ them in the educational contexts.

These results are consistent with those of the following studies (Fayoumi, 2012; Mosleh, 2019; Samara, 2013). This result is consistent with previous studies emphasizing the importance of teaching linguistic thinking skills. These skills provided an opportunity for the teachers and learners to employ several verbal thinking skills, which are supposed to improve effective oral communication skills by developing the learners' verbal thinking skills and encouraging them to employ ineffective communicative linguistic contexts.

V. RECOMMENDATIONS

The findings of this research support the need for more attention to critical thinking skills in Arabic language textbooks, especially in the context of listening comprehension. This may be accomplished by providing seminars for Arabic language teachers on effectively instructing students in verbal thinking during face-to-face discussions. The impact of developing verbal thinking skills on students' communication ability should be studied in future studies with a wide range of student populations.

REFERENCES

- [1] Abdel-Bary, M. (2011a). *Active Listening Skills* (1st ed.). Dar Almasera.
- [2] Abdel-Bary, M. (2011b). *Teaching Vocabulary* (1st ed.). Dar Almasera.
- [3] Al-Hawamdeh, R., & Al-Khanji, R. (2017). The Effects of Motivation and Other Factors on Second Language Acquisition: A Case Study on Achieving Advanced Oral Proficiency in English. *Arab World English Journal (AWEJ)*, 8(1), 165-178.

- [4] Al-Houli, A., & Abdul Karim, K. (2012). *Teaching Thinking Styles to University Learners* (1st ed.). Kuwait.
- [5] Al-Khalidi, A., & Bani Issa, A. (2021). The Effectiveness of a Program Based on Thinking Criteria in Developing Verbal Linguistic Intelligence Skills and Creativity Skills Among Middle School Students in The State of Kuwait. *Journal of Al-Hussein Bin Talal University*, 7(5), 1-43.
- [6] Al-Subaie, M. (2009). *Teaching Thinking in Educational Curricula* (1st ed.). Dar Al-Yazuri Scientific Publishing.
- [7] Al-Totani, R. (2013). *The Effect of Using Reciprocal Teaching Strategy in Improving Oral Presentation Skills and Linguistic Intelligence*. University of Islamic Sciences.
- [8] Asr, H. (2005). *Teaching Arabic at The Primary Level*. Dar al Menhaj for Publishing and Distribution.
- [9] Fayoumi, K. (2012). The Impact of Linguistic Communication Activities on Developing Oral Expression Skills Among Ninth Grade Students in The Schools of The Directorate of Education in Amman, Jordan. *Journal of Educational and Psychological Sciences*, 13(2), 452-484.
- [10] Haddad, H. (2019). The Effect of a Teaching Program Based on The Principles of Civilized Dialogue in Developing Oral Communication Skills in The Arabic Language Among Tenth Grade Female Students. *Journal of the Islamic University for Educational and Psychological Studies*, 28(3), 410-426.
- [11] Henk, J. Haarmann, P., & Eric Ragusa, R. (2012). *Does Divergent Thinking Training Improve Language Proficiency and Performance*, Univ. Maryl.
- [12] Jaafar, Z. (2018). Linguistic Intelligence and Its Relationship to Academic Achievement: A Field Study of Sixth Grade Female Students. *Journal of Culture and Development*, 18(125), 179-216.
- [13] Johnson, A. (2008). *Teaching reading and writing: A guidebook for tutoring and remediating students*. R&L Education.
- [14] Mosleh, M. (2019). *The Impact of Employing the Active Learning Strategy (The Four Pillars) on Developing Oral Communication Skills Among Third-Grade Female Students in Gaza*. Unpublished master's thesis, Department of Curricula and Teaching Methods, Faculty of Education, Al-Azhar University, Gaza.
- [15] Moussaoui, M. (2012). Emotional Intelligence, Linguistic Intelligence, and their Relevance to Speaking Anxiety. *Journal of Academic and Applied Studies*, 2(6), 11-22.
- [16] Rashid, H. (2007). A program to develop some of the oral communication skills needed to teach and reduce anxiety among female teachers. *Journal of Reading and Knowledge*, 5(63), 158-210.
- [17] Samara, A., & Al-Assaf, J. (2013). The Degree of Availability of Effective Communication Skills Among Arabic Language Teachers in UNRWA Schools In Jordan from Students' Point of View and Its Relationship to Their Achievement *An-Najah University Research Journal*, 27(9), 1956-1982.
- [18] Steven, A., & Stahl, W. (2006). *Teaching Word Meaning*. Mahwah-New Jersey. Lawrence Erlbaum Associates (LEA) Publishers.
- [19] Stratton, J. (1999). *Critical thinking for college students*. Ardsley House Publishers.
- [20] Taima, R. (2004). *Language Skills: Levels, Teaching, and Difficulties*. Arab Thought House.
- [21] Willis, D. (2008). *Teaching The Brain to Read, Strategies for Improving Fluency Vocabulary And Comprehension*. Alexandria-Virginia: Association for Supervision and Curriculum Development.
- [22] Zachariah, H. (2010). *Teaching English Language across Content Area*. Alexandria-Virginia: ASCD Publishing.



Rateb Qasem Ashour is a renowned scholar who works in the field of education at Yarmouk University in Jordan. The title of his dissertation at Ohio University, where he got his doctorate in 1996, was "The Cultural Content of Arabic Language Reading Textbooks in Jordan, Grades (4-6)." His Master's thesis, completed in 1990, examined the social values promoted by Jordanian elementary school reading textbooks for grades. In 1981, Dr. Ashour started his long academic path with a Bachelor's in Arabic Language. His research interests include ways of teaching the Arabic language, incorporating computers into language education, and curriculum analysis and creation. Dr. Ashour has made important contributions to the world of education with his more than fifteen published works.



Iman Muhaidat is a hardworking doctoral candidate at the College of Education at Yarmouk University, where she studies Arabic language curricula and teaching methods. She is now furthering her education in the profession by enrolling at the Department of Curriculum and Teaching Methods. Iman is dedicated to making significant contributions to the fields of curriculum creation and teaching approaches, with a particular emphasis on Arabic language instruction. Her desire to further her studies by earning a doctorate reflects her passion for discovery and dedication to bettering the world of academia. Iman's academic trajectory displays a genuine devotion to enhancing the knowledge and practice of Arabic language education.

The Languages of Men and Women in Indigenous Villages

Ni Wayan Kasni*

Faculty of Letters, Universitas Warmadewa, Indonesia

I. Wayan Budiarta

Faculty of Letters, Universitas Warmadewa, Indonesia

A. A. Gede Suarjaya

Faculty of Letters, Universitas Warmadewa, Indonesia

Abstract—In indigenous villages, distinct language features of men and women exist. The linguistic features of men's and women's languages are unique because the villages have unique cultures. This research was conducted in Tenganan Pegringsingan village and Penglipuran village. The research method applied was descriptive-qualitative, in which the data were collected through recordings and structured interviews. The results of the analysis show that in conversations amongst men, the topics that emerged were *ngayah meratengan* (cooking together without payment), *perarem* (village regulations), money, and responsibility. Meanwhile, in discussions amongst women, the topic that emerged was the lottery club. Regarding intonation, men and women showed differences in using tag questions. Furthermore, differences in the lexicons associated with men and women emerged. In the selection of sentence types, men predominantly used tag questions, while women predominantly used super-polite forms. Men tended to be more direct, while women preferred to be more circumlocutory before conveying the main utterance. In the dominance of conversation between men and women, it was found that men dominated in taking turns to speak and led the topic of conversation.

Index Terms—indigenous villages, linguistics features, dominance, culture

I. INTRODUCTION

Critical discourse analysis is defined as the study of the relationships between discourse, hidden meanings, social inequality, power, and dominance. It is a complex, multi-disciplinary, multi-dimensional field. In addition, sociopolitical discourse, or sociolinguistics, is closely related to critical discourse analysis (Salman & Ahmad, 2023, p. 403).

According to Holmes (2013), sociolinguistics studies the relationship between language and society (p. 21). It is related to why people speak differently in different social contexts. The way people use different languages in different social contexts provides information about how language works, the relationships in a community, and the way people express and construct aspects of their social identity by using their language. The social identity of the speaker can be known from their utterances and identity; Wardhaugh (2000) notes that a major topic in sociolinguistics is the connection, if any, between the structure, vocabularies, and ways of a particular language and the social roles of the men and women who speak it (p. 309).

There is a close relationship between gender and language. Language is used as a unifying tool, reinforcing empathy, politeness, and courtesy, especially when communication involves gender (Prayitno, 2017). Gender refers to differences in male and female individuals based on socio-cultural construction, which relates to the nature of their status, position, and role in society and the occurrence of gender differences that are socially and culturally constructed. In addition, society has various scripts that its members follow as they learn to play masculine and feminine roles (Munjin, 2008).

An extremely interesting social context exists in the community of Indigenous villages in Bali, which include Penglipuran village and Tenganan Pegringsingan village. Penglipuran is a traditional village located in Bangli regency. In relation to the phenomena of language and gender, Penglipuran indigenous people have a culture of respecting the value of monogamous marriage, meaning that women are respected because of village rules that forbid men to practice polygamy (Astara et al., 2022). Tenganan Pegringsingan is a beautiful heritage village in Karangasem regency. The phenomena in relation to language and gender found in Tenganan Pegringsingan are the community of men, *krama teruna*, and of woman, *krama daha*. The separation of these two communities affects language forms between men and women. This must be observed deeply to see whether men and women have equality in terms of power, jobs, and the like.

* Corresponding Author.

Several previous studies regarding language and gender have been conducted. Kasni and Budiarta (2017) investigated 'Balinese women and men and their language'. 'Language use between men and women' was observed by Budiwati (2004). 'A Sociolinguistic Study of Language and Gender in Desperate Housewives' was done by Li (2014). Qari (2019) did the research on 'The gender of the addressee as a factor in the selection of apologies: the case of Saudi and British'. Zhumasheva et al. (2022) examined 'Representation of Gender Metaphor in Lexicography as reflection of culture', while research on 'Gender Inequality in Arabic Textbook: Misrepresentation of women in culture and society' was conducted by Muassomah et al. (2023). Because previous studies have not observed men's and women's language in Indigenous villages, nor have they compared linguistic features according to gender, this research is focused on the following questions:

1. What are the features of men's language?
2. What are the features of women's language?
3. What are the differences between men and women in terms of their roles in conversation?

II. LITERATURE REVIEW

Lakoff (1975) introduced the term 'women's language' to distinguish the differences between men's and women's speech. He proposed theories on the existence of women's language and noted that there are certain characteristics of women's language that give the impression that women are weaker and lesser than men. There are ten characteristics of women's language, including empty adjectives, lexical hedges, tag questions, intensifiers, hypercorrect grammar, super-polite form, , rising intonation on declarative, precise colour terms, avoidance of strong swear words, and emphatic stress. Empty adjectives, which refer to special and literal meanings, have the function of describing nouns and exist only in women's vocabulary (e.g., 'cute', 'divine', 'charming'). Women use lexical hedges (e.g., 'kinda', 'you know', 'I think', 'I guess', 'well', 'yeach', 'mmm', 'oh') to make themselves look polite. Holmes (2013) notes that some studies have found that women used up to three times more hedges than men, while others found no differences between the sexes.

Women also ask many questions, including the use of tag questions and rising intonation when making statements (Lakoff, 2004). They also tend to ask questions even when declaratives are expected because, unlike men, women are insecure about their opinions. An intensifier is a unit that is used with other expressions to intensify the meaning of the expression it modifies. Intensifiers (e.g., 'really', 'totally', 'truly', 'clearly', 'extremely') are used more by women than men. Hypercorrect grammar is the consistent usage of standard verb forms. Lakoff argues that hypercorrect grammar involves an avoidance of terms considered vulgar or coarse, such as 'aint', and the use of precise pronunciation, such as sounding the final 'g' in the word 'going' instead of the more casual 'goin'. Lakoff (2004) also states that women are supposed to speak more politely than men. The super-polite forms are usually in the form of indirect requests and euphemisms. According to Lakoff (2004), rising intonation in the declarative relates to the special use of syntactic rules. This type of intonation occurs in declarative sentences that become questions because the intonation rises at the end.

Lakoff (2004) states that women's invective is different from men's. Women use 'oh dear' more often than 'shit' and tend to avoid violent curses. Men often use rude and forbidden invective words (e.g., 'damn', 'bloody hell', 'shit'), while women use gentler versions (e.g., 'oh dear', 'my dear', 'my goodness', 'good heavens'). Emphatic stress refers to how to convey uncertainty with a certain expression. The speaker employs tone to emphasise certain words, such as 'fabulous', 'very', or 'enough'. Lakoff (2004) defines speaking with emphatic stress as a form of referral in order to tell someone how to react because what was said by the speaker is less convincing and that it is better to use double power to ensure that the listener can understand what is being said by the speaker.

Coates (2004) also discusses the differences between men's and women's languages. He notes that men usually use minimal responses, which is known as backchannel. These terms, including 'mhm', 'yeach', and 'right', assert dominance. Men also tend to use command and directive, and they use explicit commands when they are in the same group, such as 'gimme', 'gonna', and 'gotta'. In addition, men use more expletives than women. The topics that are usually discussed for men or same-sex groups are current affairs, travel, and sports. In asking questions, men ask the questions to gain information, while women sometimes use the question tag to ask questions. Men tend to ask questions directly. Coates (2004) notes that the male speaker was "more likely to interrupt others distractively and they are much more likely to interrupt women than women were to interrupt men" (p. 157).

There has been an increase in the number of studies on language and gender. However, research on language and gender in Indigenous cultures has received less attention. Those studies related to language and gender are described below.

The previous research dealing with the languages of men and women (Kasni & Budiarta, 2017) revealed that "there are six linguistic devices to show the languages of men and women in Bali: (1) morphological devices, (2) articles, (3) nouns, (4) verbs, (5) adjectives, and (6) figurative language. They are the markers of female and male that describe characteristics and physical appearance, give suggestions, and are used in daily communication for seducing women" (p. 247). Regarding the use of English between men and women, Budiwati (2004) found that "English shows the differences in language between men and women in phonology, morphology, vocabulary, intonation pattern, and conversation style" (p. 120). A study conducted by Li (2014) entitled 'A Sociolinguistic Study of Language and Gender in Desperate Housewives' was mainly focused on the differences in the amount of talk and turns and their distribution.

It was found that in relation to the amount of talk, men use more words to compose more sentences. In other words, they are much more talkative than women. From the aspect of the number of turns, men are inclined to take the floor for a longer time (p. 52). Muassomah et al. (2023) examined the representation of gender imbalance in the textbook composition, which includes contents and illustrations. They also discussed the portrayal of gender roles, as illustrated in the textbooks' examples. The findings showed that the construction of Arabic language textbooks perpetuates a gendered, unbalanced representation in both the text and visual representation of males and females (p. 272). Qari (2019) notes that "there are dominant cultural differences between Saudi and British participants making apologies, with a focus on the role of the gender of the addressee in the selection of apology strategies in gender-segregated versus co-ed societies" (p. 83). In relation to apology strategies, the British subjects are not afraid of blaming their fathers for important things, while Saudis are more submissive, evasive, and reluctant to admit their faults because they fear the dead's punishment. Furthermore, Saudi males tend to prefer using negative politeness strategies to convey their apologies, while Saudi females tend to use positive politeness apology strategies. In general, Saudi males are more respectful towards their fathers than are Saudi females, as expressed by the use of different expressions and respectful terms of address.

The above studies reveal that research observing men's and women's language in indigenous villages is lacking. These studies can give insight into the analysis of men's and women's languages in indigenous villages.

III. MATERIALS AND METHOD

The data for this research were the conversations of men and women in Penglipuran village (five conversations) and Tenganan Pegringsingan village (three conversations). The conversations were transcribed in the form of written data. In collecting the data, the methods applied were recording, note-taking, and interviewing. Each of the conversations amongst the villagers was audio recorded when the villagers ran a meeting, and it was also noted. To get a clear understanding of the meaning of the language, the interview method was applied, interviewing the informants, the heads of the villages. The collected data were classified based on the problems observed. The amount of data was then descriptively analysed regarding the theme (thematic analysis).

IV. RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

Penglipuran village has a system for handling jobs related to traditional ceremonies. The men are divided into groups, namely *kelompok meratengan* (a group of men who make the traditional food *lawar*, chopped meat mixed with vegetables, such as young jackfruit and long beans which are already boiled), *kelompok baris* (a group of men who handle the job of dancing the ceremonial *baris*), and *sekeha pecalang* (a group of men who are responsible for the safety of ceremonies). *Sekeha yowana* consists of males and females who are teenagers, and they help with activities during ceremonies. In addition, there are groups of women who handle the making of offerings, *mesanti* (reading holy songs), and jobs related to government activities.

In Tenganan Pegringsingan village, the men are involved in jobs related to its culture, such as working together to make food for ceremonies, as well as daily chores, such as farming. Women handle the job of preparing offerings, doing their daily chores, and making a traditional cloth called *tenun gringsing* (an ancient Bali cultural heritage that still survives today). From those groups, the language features of men and women were observed in the topics of conversation, intonation, lexicons, and sentence choice.

A. Features of Men's Language

From those groups, the language features of men and women were observed in the topics of conversation, intonation, lexicons, and the choice of sentences.

(a). Topics of Conversation

The data obtained from the men's conversations contained several topics of conversation. In the conversation of the same group of men, the topics include discussions about *ngayah meratengan* (working together to cook without payment), responsibility, money, and village regulations.

1. Topic of Ngayah Meratengan

Data 1

Man 1: *Ida dane sekaa ebat puniki jagi ngayah meratengan.*

(‘You [all], the crew making *lawar*, will do a community service of cooking.’)

(Taken from Penglipuran village)

In the data above, the utterance aims at giving information or an announcement to the crew of cooks, as shown by the phrase *ida dane* (‘you’), the second person plural. There are two phrases of Balinese culture that appear in this utterance: *sekaa ebat* (‘crew of making *lawar*’) and *ngayah meratengan*.

2. Topic of Responsibility

The topic of responsibility emerges in the men's utterances, as demonstrated in the below data.

Data 2

Man 2: *Nika tugas ida dane selaku sekaa ebat.*

(‘That is your responsibility as the crew making *lawar*.’)

(Taken from Penglipuran village)

Data 2 shows an utterance of the responsibility topic that takes the form of a statement. The responsibility can be seen from the use of the word *tugas* (‘task’), meaning something to do or be responsible for. This statement also uses the noun phrase *ida dane* (‘you’) to emphasise that this statement is addressed to a group.

3. Topic of Money

Based on the research conducted on male conversations, it was discovered that the topic of finance emerged as one of the preferred subjects. The subsequent data show cases of utterances specifically focused on monetary matters.

Data 3

Man 3: *Indik margi puniki, tiyang sampun polih ngelapor. Ledangang dumun, durung wenten anggaran.* (‘About the road, I already informed, [please] understand first, there is no budget yet.’)

(Taken from Penglipuran village)

The utterance in Data 3 reveals a discussion on money with the intention of seeking understanding or forgiveness. The Balinese term *ledangang* specifically conveys the speaker’s aim to request the listener’s understanding or forgiveness. The data further indicates that the speakers bring up the topic of money while informing the listener that there is currently no budget available.

4. Topic of Perarem

In the conversations of men in Bali, it was discovered that there were discussions about *perarem* (village regulations), which refers to the traditional village rules. The topic of *perarem* appears in the following data:

Data 4

Man 4: *Jani ape usulne jeg setuju. Asal desa setuju, perarem bisa berubah.* (‘Right now, [just] agree to all suggestions. As long as villagers agree, the village regulations rule can change.’)

(Taken from Penglipuran village)

In Data 4, the topic of *perarem* appears. The speaker’s objective is to express his opinion to the listener. In this particular case, the speaker intends to emphasise the agreement of the villagers with regard to *perarem*.

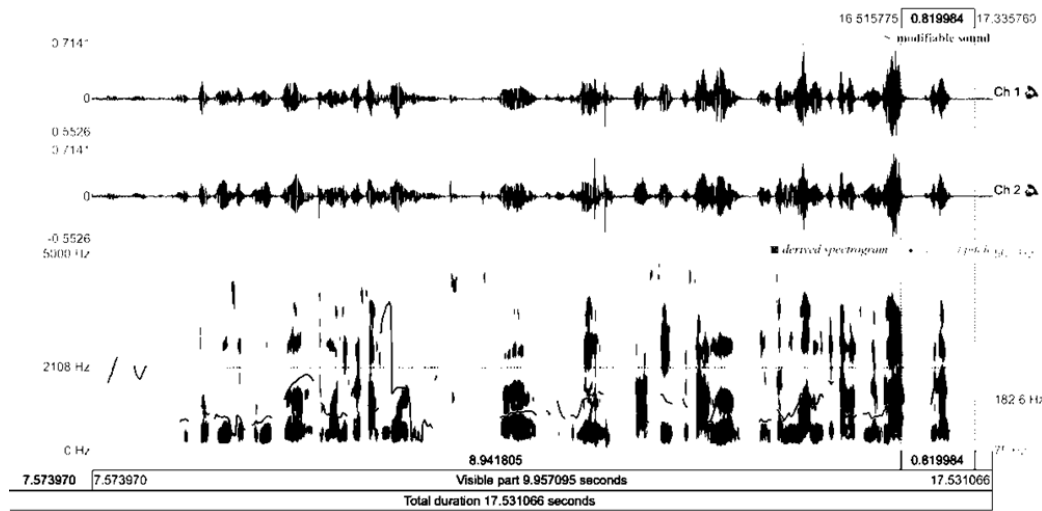
(b). Choice of Intonation

Intonation describes the pitch patterns used in speech to express specific meanings, emotions, or expressions. Pitch or intonation can alter the meaning of a sentence without changing the words used. Intonation is related to changes in the frequency of sound produced during speech. Sound frequency refers to the number of sound vibrations per second and is measured in hertz (Hz). When speaking, intonation affects the frequency of the sound produced, thus altering the highness or lowness of the pitch.

According to Sugiyono (2003), the different vocal cord conditions between men and women lead to a higher frequency in women’s voices compared to men’s. The average frequency of men’s voices is 120 Hz. From the data analysed in the men’s speech in Bali, it was found that the average frequency of men’s voices was different: 149.9 Hz, 110.4 Hz, and 151.4 Hz. The data below shows the intonation of men’s language by using the speech analyser Praat. Typically, in conversations, when question tags are used by speakers, they employ a rising intonation.

According to Lakoff (1975), a tag question sentence involves the use of tag questions and rising intonation when making a statement. This upward intonation suggests that the speaker is posing a small question or seeking agreement from the listener. The rising intonation at the end of the question tag serves as a marker that the sentence is an additional question appended to the main statement. The picture of men’s voice frequency when they use tag questioning in their speech is displayed in Picture 1:

Data 5



Picture 1. Praat Application Showing the Frequency of the First Male Speaker Using Tag Questions

Transcription:

Man 1: *Dumun, dawege kapat, niki istri-istrine sampun metangan sareng tua-tuane, antuk niise punika, sumaliha sampun kesungkemin sasih kesange, yen ten iwang niki tanggal 19, ten kenten?* ('Previously, during the *kapat* [name of the fourth month according to Balinese calendar], the women had already discussed with the elders regarding *niis* [name of the purifying ceremony], and the decision was to carry it out in *sasih kesanga* [name of the ninth month according to Balinese calendar]. If I am not mistaken, it will be on the 19th, won't it?')

(Taken from Tenganan Pegringsingan village)

In the above image, the curve lines between the vertical lines show the intonation of tag question *ten kenten* ('won't it?'). The tag question used by this man has an increasing line on the curve, which indicates a rising intonation.

(c). Choice of Words

In the Balinese language, many words and phrases specifically refer to men or are used in contexts more often associated with men. This phenomenon reflects the unique social and cultural dynamics in Bali, which can provide deeper insights into gender norms and the roles of men in society. Table 1 presents results regarding men's lexicons.

TABLE 1
THE USE OF LEXICON ASSOCIATED WITH MEN IN BALINESE LANGUAGE

No.	Lexicon	Classification	Meaning
1	<i>Dape luanan</i>	Noun	The term for a special adviser, particularly for males, who is respected or esteemed
2	<i>Dape tulupan</i>	Noun	The honorific term for male figures who are no longer actively involved in social Balinese activities, only meetings aimed at seeking the best solutions for the common interest
3	<i>Sekaa ebat</i>	Noun	The community group in the village (specifically for males) who are responsible for preparing spices and cooking ingredients during communal activities
4	<i>Sekaa baris</i>	Noun	The community of men who practice and perform the <i>baris</i> dance, a traditional male dance of Bali
5	<i>Krama lanang</i>	Noun	The community of married male civilians who are registered as village residents

(d). Choice of Sentences

Generally, the selection of sentence types is influenced by linguistic and socio-cultural aspects. After conducting research on the communication patterns amongst men, the data show that men dominantly use this type of tag question. This type of sentence includes the use of tag questions and rising intonation when giving a statement (Lakoff, 1975). However, in the data obtained from men's conversations, the researcher found that the use of tag questions is dominated by men, as demonstrated below.

Data 6

Man 1: *Indik sane wawu nika, lanturang benjangan nika, ritatkala kawentenang pengabenan, ten kenten?* ('As we just said, we will continue next time, when we carry out *pengabenan* [cremation ceremony], won't we?')
(Taken from Tenganan Pegringsingan village)

Data 7

Man 2: *Duaning niki nak sampun sue niki pemargine, mangda sampunang. Dumogi ke ida sesuhunan siih, ten kenten?* ('Because the implementation has already been done a long time ago, there is no problem caused. Hopefully, God will bless us, right?')
(Taken from Tenganan Pegringsingan village)

B. Features of Women's Language

The linguistic features found in women's speech encompass several aspects, including the choice of topics, lexicon employed, selection of sentence structures, and use of intonation.

(a). Choice of Topic

Communication is vital in shaping social interactions, and women, in particular, exhibit distinct patterns in choosing their conversational topics. In the conversations held by Balinese women, a particular topic, namely *arisan* (a lottery club), was discussed as an activity that can gather women in order to shape social interaction in the women's community. The data are as follows:

Data 8

Woman 3: *Gimana kalau kita mengadakan arisan, lima ribu atau berapa.* ('What if we hold an *arisan*, 5,000 [each person] or whatever.')

(Taken from Penglipuran village)

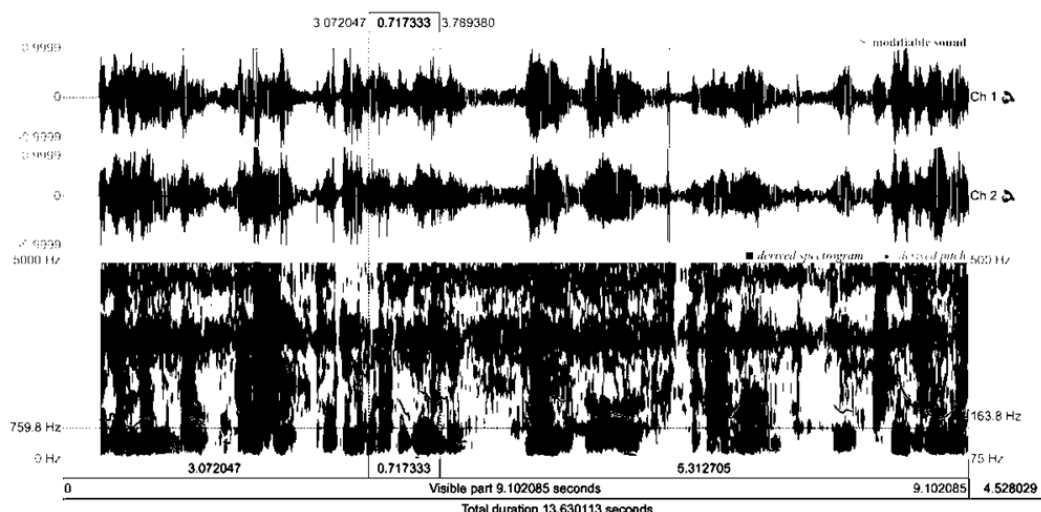
The data above also show the topic of money, as indirectly indicated by the term *arisan*. In this case, the speaker proposes organising an *arisan*.

(b). Choice of Intonation

Women prefer to convey or express their speech purposes using intonation. Women may have a rising intonation to make a firm statement (Latifa, 2020). Sugiyono (2003) states that the frequency of women's voices tends to be higher than men's.

The average female voice frequency is around 225 Hz. This is because normally women have thin vocal cords that produce a higher voice pitch. The women's speech conveys three different types of sentences: giving a statement, asking a question, and tagging a question. The speaker was in the same situation, which is speaking in public. These data were gathered at the village meeting. To determine the voice frequency, the recordings of the speakers' voices were analysed using Praat. The example below is the intonation of a tag question.

Data 9



Picture 2. Praat Application Showing the Frequency of the Second Female Speaker's Speech in Using Tag Questions

Transcription:

Woman 1: *Nah jani, kadi aku kenten, sing keto Dek?* ('Well, now, from my opinion, isn't it like that Dek?')

Woman 2: *Mm... Ae* [interrupts]. ('Mm... yes.')

Woman 1: *Ee... Men kesanga, ampun jenenge ngeh.* ('Ee... If *kesanga*, it might be already known.')

(Taken from Tenganan Pegringsingan village)

The picture above shows the curve representing the use of a question tag by the woman. The curve is very low because the speaker significantly lowers her voice when using the question tag *sing keto Dek?* Furthermore, the curve line that appears in the application shows a descending pattern when the speaker uses the tag question.

The observation of this data indicates that the lower voice of the speaker signifies humility. The speaker does not want to impose her opinion, but the question tag is still used to seek more confidence in her statement.

(c). Choice of Words

In Balinese, there are several words and phrases that specifically pertain to women or are commonly used in contexts associated with women. This occurrence reflects the distinct social and cultural dynamics in Bali, providing valuable insights into gender norms and the roles of men in society. Table 2 presents the findings from the analysed data, highlighting the lexicons related to women in Bali.

TABLE 2
THE USE OF LEXICON THAT IS ASSOCIATED WITH WOMEN IN BALINESE LANGUAGE

No	Lexicon	Classification	Meaning
1	<i>Da bibi luanan</i>	Noun	The term for a special adviser, particularly for woman, who is respected or esteemed
2	<i>Da bibi tulupan</i>	Noun	The term and honorific for woman figures who are no longer actively involved in social activities in Balinese customs, only in meetings aimed at seeking the best solutions for the common interest
3	<i>Jero istri</i>	Noun	The term for female villagers
4	<i>Krama istri</i>	Noun	The community of married women civilians who are registered as village residents
5	<i>Klian istri</i>	Noun	A woman who leads the meetings and activities of the women's community in a village and holds an honorary title and plays a significant role in the social structure of the village

(d). Choice of Sentences

Women are known to be highly conscious and mindful of their speech. They prioritise using language that reflects politeness, respect, and cultural norms, particularly when engaging with others, especially elders and individuals of higher social status. According to the data analysed, women in Bali dominantly use the sentence in the super-polite form.

(e). Super-Polite Form

In Balinese culture, the use of super-polite language by women is deeply rooted in the concept of respect and maintaining harmony within social interactions. It is considered essential for women to convey their messages in a courteous and respectful manner, particularly when addressing elders or individuals of higher social status. This cultural norm is evident in various settings, such as family gatherings, religious ceremonies, and community events. The data presented below provide valuable insights into how women utilise the super-polite form of sentences.

Data 10

Woman 1: *Tiang te matur pepolosan manten.* ('I [can] only talk simply.')

(Taken from Tenganan Pegringsingan village)

From the utterance above, the speaker is trying to express humility. It is marked by the use of the word *pepolosan* (simply). The use of the word is aimed at respecting the audience, which is dominated by older people.

Data 11

Woman 2: *Mungkin ada denda, kalau ada denda kan, oh... denda liu.* ('Maybe there is a fine, if there is a fine, oh... [later should pay] many fines.')
(Taken from Penglipuran village)

As explained previously, the speaker intends to convey her idea. She uses the word *mungkin* (maybe) with the intention of softening the suggestion she conveys. According to Lakoff (1973), women often utilise super-polite forms in their speech. He describes how women tend to keep their opinions open, avoiding imposing their ideas or claims on others, with the intention of preserving their own face and that of their addressee. In this case, the speaker does not want to impose her opinion about suggesting the idea of imposing a fine payment.

C. Differences Between Men's and Women's Language

Previously, the results of the data revealed distinctions across various fields related to male and female speech. Some scientists propose that men and women exhibit distinctive speaking characteristics. Coates (1986) asserts that men and women adopt different speaking styles. Males typically tend to adopt a competitive speech style, while females lean towards a cooperative speech style. Conversely, the differences between women's and men's speech are also found in women's conversations, which are primarily for negotiating and expressing relationships, while men's conversations are for display (Poynton, 1989).

The differences regarding men's and women's conversations include the conversation style and the dominance of conversation. They are illustrated below.

The conversational style of men tends to be more direct and to the point in conversation.

Data 12

Man 1: *Tiap bulan kengken asane, lumayan?* ('Every month how do you feel, good enough?')

Man 2: *Nuunang asane.* ('Decreased I guess.')
(Taken from Penglipuran village)

Data 13

Man 3: *Ehh, kecuali maling siap mare enggal mejuk.* ('Ehh, except [we] steal the chicken, easily get caught by the police.')

Man 4: *Kene... apin pelih, mekejang mantu iya.* ('Like this... however it is wrong, all people [can] help him.')
(Taken from Tenganan Pegringsingan village)

From Data 12 and 13, the initiator of the conversation directly asked the addressee without any hesitation and directly make their point. The data show that men feel more free to speak openly.

Data 14

Woman 1: *Sane lianan mungkin wenten usulan?* ('Other persons, maybe any suggestions?')

Woman 2: *Kalau tiang kelih, Kalau tiang gimana kita mengadakan arisan?* ('From me *kelih*, if from me, what if we carried out *arisan*?')
(Taken from Penglipuran village)

Data 15

Woman 1: *Nggih durus.* ('Yes please.')

Woman 3: *Suksma Jero Kelih. Mungkin ada denda, kalau ada denda kan.* ('Maybe there is a fine, if there is a fine.')

Woman 1: *Oh... denda liu.* ('Oh... [they should later pay] many fines.')
(Taken from Penglipuran village)

Both Data 14 and 15 contain small talk before continuing to the core of the conversation. Generally, this happened because of the natural tendencies of women, who always try to be cooperative.

D. The Domination of Conversation

Conversation dominance is a condition where one party in a conversation has more influence or control than the others in determining the content, direction, and duration of the conversation. Men tend to dominate the speaking turn by talking longer or frequently interrupting the addressee while they speak. From conversations between women and men, it is found that men, on several occasions, intervened to show their dominance. Furthermore, men also confidently conveyed their ideas for their listeners to follow.

Data 16

Man 1 : *Nggih rarisan dumun komunikasi dumun.* ('Well, please communicate first, go ahead.')

Woman 1 : *Ke malu nake da bibi'e negak.* ('Why doesn't da bibi sit in the front?')

Man 2 : *Orin ke malu ongkone da bibi* [interrupting Woman 1]. ('Tell da bibi to sit in the front.')

Woman : *Bi, ke malu ongkon negak* [talking to da bibi]. ('Bi, please sit in the front.')

Man 3 : *Konden kene... nak konden ye...* [interrupting Woman 1]. ('Not yet... she has not finished yet...')

Man 1 : *Sing, nak ye nu komunikasi* [interrupting Man 3]. ('No, she is still communicating.')

(Taken from Tenganan Pegringsingan village)

The man asked the women in the meeting to communicate or have a discussion first. The woman then realised that da bibi would be better to sit in the front, and she spoke confidentially about her idea. Man 2, who overheard the idea,

suggested to the woman that she ask da bibi to sit in front by interrupting her speech. The woman then requested that da bibi sit in front, but before she finished her speech, Man 3 interrupted her, saying that the discussion was not yet finished.

At that moment, Man 3 indicated that it would be beneficial for Da Bibi to speak in front after the discussion finished. This proves that Man 2 interrupted the woman to assert his authority and dominance. When the woman subsequently complied with the command, Man 3 intervened to assert his own dominance and interrupted her idea. In response to Man 3's speech, Man 1, who supported Man 3's view, promptly interrupted him and addressed the woman.

V. CONCLUSION

The data analysis revealed that the features of men's language include the topics *ngayah meratengan*, money, responsibility, and village regulations. Men used rising intonation on tag questions to seek agreement from listeners. The lexicons associated with men relate to their roles in society, such as *sekeha ebat* (a group making traditional Balinese food), *sekeha baris* (a group who dance *baris*), and *dapa luanan* (the elder as adviser). The features of women's language involved the topic of the lottery club. Women used rising intonation on tag questions to gain confidence. The choice of words referring to women included *krama istri* (community of married women) and *klian istri* (a woman who leads the village and leads community events). Women tended to use very polite sentences. From the conversation roles, the differences between men and women were that men tended to be more direct in conversation than women. Men also dominated conversations.

ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

I would like to thank the Rector of Warmadewa University for the research funding.

REFERENCES

- [1] Budiwati, T. R. (2004). Language Use between Men and Women. *CELT*, 4(2), 120–124.
- [2] Coates, J. (1986). *Women, men and Language: A sociolinguistics account of sex differences in language*. Longman.
- [3] Coates, Jennifer. (2004). *Women, Men, and Language*. Routledge.
- [4] Holmes, J. (2013). *An Introduction to Sociolinguistics (fourth)*. Routledge.
- [5] I Wayan Wesna Astara, I Nyoman Putu Budiarta, I Wayan Rideng, & I Nyoman Gede Sugiarta. (2022). Penglipuran Traditional Village, Kubu Village, Bangli Regency, Bali as a Cultural Tourism Village Based on Local Wisdom and Creative Economy. *Law Doctoral Community Service Journal*, 1(1), 21–27. <https://doi.org/10.55637/ldcsj.1.1.4472.21-27>
- [6] Kasni, N. W., & Budiarta, I. W. (2017). Balinese Women and Men and Their Language. *International Journal of Linguistics*, 9(5), 247. <https://doi.org/10.5296/ijl.v9i5.11961>
- [7] Lakoff, R. (1973). Language and Women's Place. *Language in Society*, 2(1), 45–80.
- [8] Lakoff, R. (2004). Language and Women's Place. *Text and Commentaries*. Oxford University Press.
- [9] Lakoff, Robin. (1975). *Language and Women's Place*. Harper Row.
- [10] Latifa, A. (2020). Language Varieties of Woman's Conversation in Youtube Channel of Emma Watson in HeForShe Program: A Conversation Analysis Study. *International Journal of Linguistics, Literature, and Translation*, 4(1), 221–227. <https://doi.org/10.32996/ijllt>
- [11] Li, J. (2014). A sociolinguistic study of language and gender in Desperate Housewives. *Theory and Practice in Language Studies*, 4(1), 52–57. <https://doi.org/10.4304/tpls.4.1.52-57>
- [12] Muassomah, M., Halimi, H., Yasmadi, Y., & Kamal, H. (2023). Gender Inequality in Arabic Textbook: Misrepresentation of Women in Culture and Society. *International Journal of Society, Culture & Language*, 11(1), 272–288.
- [13] Munjin. (2008). Ekspresi Bahasa dan Gender Sebuah Kajian Sociolinguistik. [Language and Gender Expression: A Sociolinguistics Perspective] *Yin Yang Jurnal Studi Gender & Anak*, 3(262–274).
- [14] Poynton, C. (1989). *Language and gender: making the difference*. Oxford University Press.
- [15] Prayitno, H. (2017). *Studi sosiopragmatik [Sociopragmatic studies]*. Muhammadiyah University Press.
- [16] Qari, I. (2019). The Gender of the Addressee as a Factor in the Selection of Apology Strategies: The Case of Saudi and British. *International Journal of Society, Culture & Language*, 7(1), 83–95.
- [17] Salman, M., & Ahmad, S. (2023). Language, Society and Gender : A Critical Discourse Analysis of the Linguistic Variation in the Language of Men and Women in the Movie North Country. *Journal of Social Sciences Review*, 3, 403–416.
- [18] Sugiyono. (2003). *Pemarkah Prosodik Kontras Deklaratif dan Interogatif Bahasa Melayu Kutai*. [Prosodic Markers Contrast Declarative and Interrogative in Malay Language] Universitas Indonesia.
- [19] Wardhaugh, R. (2000). *An introduction to Sociolinguistics* (3rd ed.). Blackwell Publishers Ltd.
- [20] Zhumasheva, K. B., Sapargaliyeva, M. E., Sarkulova, D. S., Kuzhentayeva, R. M., & Utarova, A. G. (2022). Representation of Gender Metaphor in Lexicography as a Reflection of Culture. *International Journal of Society, Culture and Language*, 10(3), 151–162. <https://doi.org/10.22034/ijscsl.2022.555683.2662>



Ni Wayan Kasni is a lecturer in English Study Program and Linguistics Master Program in Universitas Warmadewa, Indonesia. She specializes in Discourse Analysis and Syntax.

She has published an article entitled 'The Multimodal Form of Tourism Promotional Discourse in the Age of Covid-19' in the International Journal of Linguistics, Literature, and Culture, A Critical Discourse Analysis of the Microstructure of Covid-19 Health Protocol Advertisements in Tourist Facilities in the Journal of Language Teaching and Research (JLTR).

She is also a member of *Masyarakat Linguistik Indonesia* 'Indonesian Linguistics Society' and Asosiasi Peneliti Bahasa Lokal 'Association of Local Language Researcher'.



I Wayan Budiarta is a lecturer in English Literature and Master of Linguistics Study Program at Universitas Warmadewa, He specializes in Morphology, Semantics, Pragmatics, Translation, and Phonology.

He has published an article in the Indonesian Journal of Language Teaching and Linguistics entitled "Deixis Analysis on Zootopia Movie Script: A Pragmatic Study".

He is also a member of *Masyarakat Linguistik Indonesia* and Asosiasi Peneliti Bahasa Lokal "Association of Local language Researcher".



Anak Agung Gede Suarjaya is a lecturer in English Study Program at Universitas Warmadewa Denpasar, Bali, Indonesia. He specializes in Sociolinguistics and Phonology.

He has published articles entitled "Implicature found in Balinese Selebgram contents on Instagram" in The International Journal of Language and Cultural (TIJOLAC), and "Campur Kode pada Konten Selebgram Bali" published in Indonesian Journal "Lingua" Center of Language and Cultural Studies, Surakarta, Indonesia.

Translanguaging: A Promising Approach to Enhance English Learning in Saudi Arabia

Albatool Ahmad Alhazmi

Department of English, College of Language and Translation, Najran University, Saudi Arabia

Abstract—New perspectives incorporating a more flexible plurilingual approach to language teaching have recently emerged. This paper aims to develop a conceptual framework that suggests a teaching policy methodology that enhances English education in Saudi Arabia. It includes a thorough revision of the nature of Saudi language pedagogy. The study argued for a better understanding of bilingual practices and for utilizing students' pluralist resources of knowledge to develop their academic, communicative and literacy skills. It also called for a critical review of the conventional methodology of language education that is entirely based on adherence to the socially and politically defined boundaries between languages. As a result, it is suggested that translanguaging be implemented as a communicative strategy to support English education and encourage linguistic diversity in the Saudi context. Moreover, developmental recommendations regarding English teaching and translanguaging implementation that are useful both locally and internationally are incorporated.

Index Terms—translanguaging, language planning, bilingual education, EFL, Saudi Arabia

I. INTRODUCTION

New perspectives have emerged in language education that encourage a shift from monolingual methods that relied totally on the exclusive use of a target language in the classroom to a more flexible plurilingual approach. This shift was the result of English often being the most widely taught foreign or second language. Moreover, because it is the most prominent of languages in the multilingual teacher's repertoire, it has become the language of instruction for all educational subjects in many educational institutions the world over. Over time, however, teaching in English has become one of the most heated topics discussed in education around the world today as its policies and methodologies are still found to be problematic (Cenoz & Gorter, 2020). Therefore, as indicated by Cenoz and Gorter (2020), it is necessary to take the complex and intense relationship between English and multilingualism into account when teaching English to compete with the special economic and social characteristics of modern societies.

The purpose of this paper is to develop a conceptual framework that proposes a teaching policy methodology that enhances English education, encourages bilingual practices, and promotes multilingualism in Saudi Arabia. It critically examines the history of English language education in Saudi contexts and sheds light on recent linguistic practices that reflect complex teaching challenges in the field. This paper argues that a new approach to English teaching that is aligned with the educational goals of Saudi Vision 2030 to deal with the challenges of current social and economic change in Saudi Arabia and to meet the needs of contemporary highly diverse societies is required.

II. DISCUSSION

To achieve the purpose of this theoretical study, this review is comprised of an extensive discussion of the current literature in a Saudi linguistic setting as well as language planning and policy including English as a Foreign Language (EFL) teaching and learning in SA. Further exploration of bilingual education and multilingual practices, specifically translanguaging as a new approach to support language learning and enhance linguistic diversity, has been incorporated in this section.

A. Saudi Current Linguistic Setting

As the kingdom's primary language, Arabic is also Saudi Arabia's official national language and is considered one of the main elements of Arab, and thus, Saudi historical and cultural legacy. Therefore, as mentioned in Saudi Vision 2030, the language must be recognized, valued and preserved in order to meet vision objectives "by keeping true to our national values and principles, as well as by encouraging social development and upholding the Arabic language" (Saudi Vision 2030, 2022, p. 17). In fact, since the unification of lands as the Kingdom of Saudi Arabia (KSA) by King Abdulaziz bin Saud in September 1932, the status of Arabic and its preservation and consolidation has always been of high priority (Alzumor, 2019). The religious status of Arabic has also been reported by several researchers concerning language policy across several Middle Eastern countries including SA. It has been described as "a holy tongue" and "the language of the intellectuals, power holders and dominant groups in the region" (Mahboob et al., 2018, p. 3). However, due to its diverse population, Saudi Arabia is not a monolingual country where only Arabic is spoken in everyday conversations across the country; indeed, there are other languages spoken in Saudi Arabia as well – the result of many factors.

The kingdom has an ideological, economic, and political influence which makes it a destination for population movements (De Bel-Air, 2018). Its religious status as the home of two of Islam's holiest sites alongside its role in the world's economy because of its large number of oil reserves, Saudi Arabia attracts foreign visitors, experts, and laborers from the world over. In mid-2021, 34.1 million non-nationals made up an estimated 36.4% of the population of Saudi Arabia (GASat, 2021). According to World Bank statistics (cited in De Bel-Air, 2018), the Kingdom of Saudi Arabia is among the top five migrant destinations in the world. In his study of the code-switching phenomenon in Saudi hospitals, Alhamami (2020) stated that non-nationals make up a great percentage of the healthcare workforce and patients in the kingdom and include those whose native tongues are Hindi, Tagalog, Urdu, Indonesian, Sri Lankan, Turkish, and Nepalese. He confirms that there is a unique multilingual discourse in Saudi Arabia workplaces specifically in various healthcare facilities.

Nevertheless, being the lingua franca of the world, English is a widely spoken and understood language across the country, particularly in urban areas where it is taught in public and private educational contexts and used in corporate sectors including holy places, media, business, tourism, and international communication (Elyas & Picard, 2010; ur Rahman & Alhaisoni, 2013).

B. The Transformative Cross-Sectoral Agenda: Saudi Vision 2030

Vision 2030 is a unique, ambitious, and transformative plan for economic, educational, and social reform in Saudi Arabia. It is led by the Crown Prince of Saudi Arabia, Muhammed bin Salman, beginning on 25 April 2016, and built around three main themes: "a vibrant society, a thriving economy and an ambitious nation" (Saudi Vision 2030, 2022, p. 13). According to the official document of Saudi Vision 2030 (2022, p. 6), the major goal of the vision is to develop the country's different sectors as "the heart of the Arab and Islamic worlds".

Education is one of the main sectors that contribute to achieving Vision 2030; thus, education reform is part of its critical agenda. However, improving the kingdom's educational system has always been a concern of the Saudi government since the establishment of the kingdom. Regular increases in the budget for the development of education have been reported by several national and international institutions such as the World Bank and the UNESCO Institute for Statistics (UIS) as well as several scholars (e.g., Allmnakrah & Evers, 2020; Alotaibi, 2014; Barnawi & Alhawsawi, 2017). In the same line, the ambitious reform blueprint reveals various overlapping educational objectives as can be recognized from the statement of the crown prince below:

We will continue investing in education and training so that our young men and women are equipped for the jobs of the future. We want Saudi children, wherever they live, to enjoy higher quality, multi-faceted education. We will invest particularly in developing early childhood education, refining our national curriculum, and training our teachers and educational leaders. We will also redouble efforts to ensure that the outcomes of our education system are in line with market needs. (Saudi Vision 2030, 2022, p. 36)

Accordingly, the transformation agenda includes reform plans for each component of the education system including learning objectives, curriculum, methodology, assessments, and teacher training (OECD, 2020; Albiladi, 2022). The connection between reform in education and the economy can be recognized straight from the prince's words above. The vision includes an objective that is directly related to "an education that contributes to economic growth" (Saudi Vision 2030, 2021, p. 40). Therefore, it implies several strategies and projects aligned with these objectives for ensuring a high-quality education system.

To achieve the aspirations of Vision 2030, 13 programs have been introduced including the Human Capability Development Program (HCDP) and the National Labor Gateway (TAQAT). The National Transformation Program 2020 has been developed to achieve the longer-term aspirations of the Saudi Vision 2030. It consists of multiple projects and incorporates key performance indicators which include 36 Ministry of Education initiatives that are aligned with regional and global benchmarks (Mitchell & Alfuraih, 2018).

C. Language Education Policy in Saudi Arabia

As mentioned earlier, Arabic has a special ideological status in Saudi Arabia. Thus, language planning efforts were mostly directed at the literacy skills development and maintenance of Arabic. Saudi language planning could be described as a top-down language policy. Arabic is defined by the official authorities in the education sector as the main medium of instruction in Saudi public education unless there is a necessity to use other languages (Barnawi & Alhawsawi, 2017; Alomaim & Altameemi, 2022). Alzumor (2019) mentions several formal statements and acts regarding Arabic policy that include the obligation to specifically use Arabic in its standard form in education, media, public speech, courts, business, and trade contexts. Moreover, Arabic, or bilingual documents that surely include Arabic, must be written when communicating with external institutions or companies. Saudi language policy also involves teaching Arabic to non-Arabic and international students and workers. Accordingly, institutions and centers were opened across the countries with specific curricula designed for teaching Arabic to non-native speakers (Saleh, 2017).

The national objectives of Vision 2030 also introduce various initiatives and programs to develop Arabic education and enhance its learning process. According to the Organization for Economic and Cooperation Development (OECD, 2020), the Arabic language is considered a crucial subject to align Saudi education with modern educational trends and practices that focus on creativity and productivity in the educational system.

On the other hand, English in Saudi Arabia is taught as a foreign language. Unlike other foreign languages, English has an officially unique status as the primary foreign language to be taught and used throughout the country. In fact, it is taught as a compulsory subject in all grades of Saudi public and private schools as well as all university levels (Alseghayer, 2014a). Recently, the Saudi Ministry of Education (MOH) implemented the teaching of English starting in the first grade of primary school during the first semester of the academic year 2021-2022 (MOE, 2021). The aim of teaching English in these early grades is “to keep pace with requirements, enhance their skills for the twenty-first century, and to meet the requirements of the Fourth Industrial Revolution” (MOE, 2021). This is just one of the various policies and initiatives introduced in Saudi Arabia to promote English language learning and proficiency.

Moreover, in several employment sectors and institutions, English is a highly desired, if not mandatory, requirement for employment and admission in different programs and courses (Almukhallafi, 2019). This special status of English, which is not exclusive to Saudi Arabia, is due to its domination as the lingua franca of people from all over the world (Cenoz & Gorter, 2020). Accordingly, English has been selected across various educational systems around the world as the foreign language to be both taught and taught in (Elyas & Picard, 2010; Alseghayer, 2015).

English is also regarded as a major vehicle of economic and scientific development in the kingdom (Elyas & Picard, 2010; ur Rahman & Alhaisoni, 2013; Alseghayer, 2014a). The economic value of English was recognized very early in Saudi Arabia. As mentioned earlier in this paper, there is a flux of foreign manpower to the country. For economic, security and technological considerations, the Saudi government seeks foreign workers and managers to train local workers. Thus, English is the medium of training and communication between different parties across organizations and companies inside and outside the country (Elyas & Picard, 2010; Mahboob & Elyas, 2014). English is also a critical tool to prepare students for scholarships that are primarily granted in the USA and Britain to gain Western education that helps the country keep pace with developed nations in different fields, especially science and technology (Mahboob & Elyas, 2014).

Moreover, with the influence of globalization and modernization, a universal language is required to reflect the position of the country and to convey its promising vision to the world (Alseghayer, 2015). Soon after launching the Saudi 2030 Vision, the country established the General Entertainment Authority in May 2016 to attract visitors of different cultural backgrounds and enhance the tourism sector. Such initiatives and projects assert the importance of English education to serve the country’s diverse objectives. According to Yusuf (2017) and Almukhallafi (2019), for the Saudi government, English is helpful in the exchange of cultures, the maintenance of peace, the permanence of prosperity, and the building of cultural and political relationships with countries worldwide. Therefore, a heavy burden is carried by the education sector to equip students with needs that contribute to reaching the country’s plans and ambitions (Saudi Vision 2030, 2021; OECD, 2020).

D. Complex Relationship Between Arabic and English in the Saudi Context

As described by Mahboob and Elyas (2014), English is not a “neutral” language in the Saudi context. English planning in Saudi Arabia has a long history of conflict and English teaching has always been a heated controversial topic. Teaching English was not entirely welcome in the early language policies of the country. Conflicts in English planning and practice in Saudi Arabia were indicated in several studies on English education in the country (e.g., Alzahrani, 2017; Mahboob & Elyas, 2014; Barnawi & Alhawsawi, 2017). As mentioned in the above section, there was a strong regulation to use only Arabic as a medium of instruction and knowledge transmission in all educational stages.

Despite the recent and sustained efforts to promote English learning in Saudi Arabia, there is still some resistance to English being taught or even spoken in Saudi society. This attitude is related to the belief that teaching English affects Islamic values by adopting Western culture and ideologies (Al Haq & Smadi, 1996; cited in Mahboob & Elyas, 2014). For some voices in Saudi Arabia, English is considered a threat to local culture and Islamic beliefs. Such ideology against English in society has been heavily reflected in the history of language policy in schools (see section 6 below). Barnawi and Alhawsawi (2017) refer to the ambiguity that surrounds English education policies and practices in Saudi Arabia that were clearly affected by ideological, social and cultural perspectives experienced in Saudi interactional contexts.

However, a shift in this strict language ideology and policy has recently occurred that allows for more flexible discourse for both Arabic and English across different contexts according to the need and under the policy admitted by the official councils (Alzumr, 2019).

E. Challenges in English Education in Saudi Arabia

Although there have been positive attitudes among Saudi policymakers and teachers toward the rapid reforms implied in Saudi Vision 2030 which is imposed by the universal, social, technical, and economic change, achieving real and valuable transformation of education requires a more steady and sometimes more thoughtful application. Since the early 20th century, there have been both internal and external pressures for radical change in education to help the country compete in global markets and be a part of the universal educational system (Elyas & Picard, 2010). Several researchers such as Almohanna (2010), Alseghayer (2014b), Alzahrani (2017), and Allmnakrah and Evers (2020) have indicated that there have unsatisfactory outcomes and poor overall performance in English among Saudi students. Thus, English education in the country was described by Alseghayer (2014b, p. 17) as “suffering, not up to the mark and below expectations”.

Alshehri (2020) calls for considering several issues that may hinder the effective reforms of the English educational system including the technological infrastructure, facilities and resources, and English teaching training as well as cultural incorporation. In the same vein, researchers such as Allmnakrah and Evers (2020) and Albiladi (2022) argue for urgent and major reform of the language educational system in Saudi Arabia to support the rapid movement of the country into a knowledge-based economy through a more comprehensive language teaching policy that considers issues faced by people involved in the field. They ask that further attention be directed towards teachers' perceptions and training, as well as the development of methodologies and strategies that promote critical thinking and stimulate creativity and innovation skills in EFL classrooms.

The administrative educational system is among the critical areas that need improvement in Saudi Arabia where the education sector - including language education policy and practices (Mahboob & Elyas, 2014) - is highly regulated and completely managed by the Ministry of Education (MOE). In the Saudi education system, English teachers, like other teachers, work within a strict hierarchy within the educational system frameworks that are highly affected by national and religious ideology (Elyas & Picard, 2010). Further, the management system is described as a vertical multi-layered bureaucracy system of the MOE (OECD, 2020).

This top-down management policy is clearly reflected in the curriculum, methodology and assessment procedures as well as the materials including textbooks which are highly governed by MOE regulations, and teachers are required to stick to the content and timeline proposed by the ministry. This, in effect, reduces the space of local collaboration and innovation from people working within the context such as teachers, supervisors, and school managers (OECD, 2020). Alseghayer (2015) reports that English teachers have unsatisfactory impressions of the textbooks they are directed to use. Similarly, Allmnakrah and Evers (2020) assert the huge mistake that needs a shift in language education in Saudi Arabia is ignoring the teachers and dealing with them as passive recipients rather than being agents and active partners in education reforms.

This ideology plays a major role in English teaching and is highly reflected in English classroom practices. To be more specific, the teacher's power is articulated in Islamic culture and could notably be recognized in English interactional practices through the teacher-centered methodologies prevailing in EFL classrooms (Elyas & Picard, 2010). Teaching English as a Foreign Language (TEFL) methodologies are part of the most intense discussions about English in the Arab world (Elyas & Picard, 2010). Applying traditional methods in TEFL in Saudi Arabia is a critical issue reported by researchers. Almohanna (2010) and Alseghayer (2015) claim that the traditional methods used in TEFL classrooms often follow audio-lingual and grammar-translation methods with various conventional techniques such as memorizing, structural analysis, chorus work, answering questions, corrections, and text translation. Such strategies are often teacher-based methods in which the students are completely and passively relying on their teachers' grammar explanations and vocabulary presentations.

Thus, there are calls to reform outdated policies in Saudi English teaching, specifically traditional methods, through incorporating more collaborative learning that enhances the social and communication skills of students (Allmnakrah & Evers, 2020). Recently, several scholars, such as Alharbi (2015), Allmnakrah and Evers (2020), and Albiladi (2022) have argued for implementing communicative cooperative language teaching methods so students can keep up with the country's developmental objectives which align with the global demands.

Furthermore, cultural factors affect English teaching in terms of integrating teaching English with its cultural contexts. Generally, Saudi education of English fails to incorporate culture into EFL teaching practices. For ideological considerations mentioned above, the fear of teaching Western culture leads to teaching English isolated from its cultural base (Alseghayer, 2015). Alsamani (2014) mentions two main reasons for the failure to integrate culture into English education in Saudi Arabia including a lack of knowledge about English culture as well as the fear of teaching content that includes materials contrary to Islamic values and local customs. Such cultural sensitivity has a prominent effect on English teaching resources and materials which often appears in avoiding using authentic materials of ideological bias (Alzahrani, 2017). The absence of cultural awareness in TEFL in Saudi Arabia has been reported by various researchers (e.g., Mahboob & Elyas, 2014; Alharbi, 2015; Alseghayer, 2015; Alshehri, 2020). Barnawi and Alhawsawi (2017) argue the need for the internationalization of language education and national cultural identity in both schooling and higher education systems in Saudi Arabia to achieve the country's economic plans.

Still, these cultural factors affect students' motivation to study English. Ur Rahman and Alhaisoni (2013) claim that students' aptitude and motivation to learn English are obstacles facing English teachers. Likewise, Alseghayer (2014b, p.18) discusses the extent to which students' beliefs and motivations influence their classroom performance including students' perceptions of English, their experiences with learning English, and their expectations about studying English. Thus, Alotaibi (2014) argues that cultural values must be of high concern when teaching English, especially for the recently implemented early grades. Similarly, Barnawi and Alhawsawi (2017) call for urgent English education policy reforms through the design of a language education framework that is based on the national culture and local intellectual conditions of the country.

F. New Vistas in Language Teaching: Multilingual Language Education

Nowadays, multilingualism is increasingly prevalent all over the world. It is not the exception but has become the norm in a highly interconnected world. According to Cenoz and Gorter (2020), diversity has recently become a characteristic of society in Europe and other countries around the world. Globalization, modernization, and immigration

play a major role in changing people's social lives in various societies (Blommaert, 2010). People now live in superdiverse societies in which they interact through dynamic and complex sorts of communication (Blommaert & Rampton, 2011; Creese & Blackledge, 2015). This huge interconnectedness of societies leads to new and unprecedented forms of social and cultural diversity resulting in more complex forms of linguistic and social practices (Garcia & Sylvan, 2011). Thus, the study of language in society must be revised and must focus on a comprehensive theoretical and methodological perception when studying language contact and language practices in different contexts. Researchers in various disciplines of linguistics including sociolinguistics, psycholinguistics and applied linguistics have called for the consideration of new trends in studying the linguistic practices of people and considering the dynamically developed societies. According to Blommaert and Rampton (2011, p. 3), "Rather than working with homogeneity, stability and boundedness as the starting assumptions, mobility, mixing, political dynamics and historical embedding are now central concerns in the study of languages, language groups and communication".

Hence, new perspectives emerged in language education that urged more flexible plurilingual methods in language teaching instead of monolingual approaches that relied totally on the exclusive use of a target language in the classroom. The recent new trends are found in language education research due to the span of the traditional views of teaching languages that see languages as isolated entities that could be taught as separated items. Such traditional views devalue bilingual and multilingual practices and see them go against ideal monolingual/native speakers. The proponents of this conventional vision assume multilingualism is a real threat to home language maintenance since it promotes the dominance of English over other minority and less widely-known languages (Li, 2018; Cenoz & Gorter, 2020).

However, concerning the experiences of bilingual and multilingual speakers, researchers assert the value of multilingualism in promoting both home and second languages. Moreover, the advantages of multilingualism were identified by scholars in the field (e.g., Li, 2000; Hamers & Blanc, 2000; Aldosari & Alsultan, 2017) who mentioned the numerous positive effects of bilingualism on children at the cognitive, communicative, and cultural levels.

Hence, away from the traditional views, new insights reveal that English learners should not be seen only through the "Inner Circle" of typical contact that is often found in English countries, but rather through looking at the wider interactions with speakers from the "Outer and Expanding Circle" in their diverse communities of practice (Cenoz & Gorter, 2020). This view argues for considering social context and diverse characteristics of communication of English learners who have their own home languages.

Saudi Arabia is not much different from other multilingual countries in that it has a complex linguistic landscape with super-diverse norms of communication. Multilingualism is a significant aspect of Saudi society due to its diverse population, international relationships, and economic growth. Therefore, achieving proficiency in both English and Arabic is the objective highlighted in the official document of the country. Multilingual language proficiency that values both national heritage language as well as international communicative tools is the target to achieve its various transformative strategies including its social, cultural, political, economic, educational, and demographic plans.

G. Translanguaging: The Pedagogic Potentials for Language Learning

Translanguaging is a concept used recently to describe the linguistic practices of multilingual speakers in various contexts. According to Li (2018), translanguaging first emerged as a descriptive rather than theoretical concept and is used to describe a specific linguistic behavior. The term was first introduced in Welsh bilingual education by Williams in the 1980s for the Welsh-English pedagogical practices of students when deliberately switching the language mode of input and output in the classroom (Lewis et al., 2012b). Hence, translanguaging is commonly noticed in bilingual classrooms (Lewis et al., 2012a, 2012b; Garcia & Li, 2013). It is defined by Garcia (2009, p. 45) as "multiple discursive practices in which bilinguals engage in order to make sense of their bilingual worlds".

However, translanguaging is a developing concept that is used primarily in bilingual educational settings and then extended to include various sociolinguistic arenas where it is utilized based on the cross-disciplinary notions of linguists, sociolinguists, educationalists, and neurolinguists (Garcia, 2009; Lewis et al., 2012b). Recently, Li (2018) emphasized translanguaging as a new transdisciplinary theoretical perspective that should be recognized and used beyond the artificial and ideological divides between different disciplines like linguistics, psychology, and sociology, and between various linguistic varieties such as indigenous versus immigrant, majority versus minority, and target versus mother tongue languages. The term has been broadened and has become more associated with new trends and includes further aspects of multilingualism such as everyday social interaction, cross-modal and multi-modal communication, linguistic landscape, and visual arts (Li, 2018; Cenoz & Gorter, 2020).

Unlike other traditional concepts of bilingual interaction such as code-switching, code-mixing and language choice that analyze bilingual discourse as separated linguistic codes, translanguaging is concerned with the flexibility and dynamic use of languages in communication and focuses on how language users employ their discursive and multiple meaning-making and sense-making resources in their daily social interaction (Li, 2018; Cenoz & Gorter, 2020; García & Kleifgen, 2020).

However, translanguaging does not replace the common concepts but rather challenges them to focus on interconnectedness and multimodality in human communication (Li, 2018). Further explanation was presented by Li as follows:

It [translanguaging] is not conceived as an object or a linguistic structural phenomenon to describe and analyse but a practice and a process—a practice that involves dynamic and functionally integrated use of different

languages and language varieties, but more importantly a process of knowledge construction that goes beyond language(s). (Li, 2018, p. 15)

Though, ideologically speaking, translanguaging is like other bilingual practices that were not welcomed both among people in the wider society and within the educational environments. This may be due to the negative attitudes of those who believed the detrimental effects of bilingualism on psychological and linguistic development as well as human intellectual and spiritual growth even among scholars and intellectuals themselves (Li, 2000). These beliefs survived and were reflected in language classrooms where a monolingual or a target-language-only approach was commonly used which stressed the notion of limited or prevented use of L1 in L2 learning classrooms (Garcia & Sylvan, 2011). Creese and Blackledge (2010) refer to situations in which the two languages are kept rigidly separated with teachers and students often feeling embarrassed or even guilty about their bilingual practices.

Complicated language arrangements are still found in most language education contexts where language policy during the learning process is not well defined or certainly declared (Brown, 2007). Moreover, conflicts between language policy and actual practices in terms of the linguistic medium of instruction and learning were reported in several educational contexts as instructors seek to minimize the home language practice while maximizing the target language's use (Li & Martin, 2009; Creese & Blackledge, 2010).

However, in the 21st century, classrooms are increasingly characterized by the plurality of practices while a monolithic view of ethnolinguistic contact has been considerably under question (Garcia & Sylvan, 2011). Thus, calls for a comprehensive interpretation of bilingual practices seem to be necessary. For example, Cummins (2005) claims the need to move beyond the squandering of bilingual resources in mainstream contexts (Creese & Blackledge, 2010). Similarly, several researchers such as Creese and Blackledge (2010), Garcia and Sylvan (2011), Cenoz (2013), as well as Cenoz and Gorter (2013) call for allowing students to have access to pluralistic resources of knowledge they have.

Furthermore, Li (2018, p. 14) asserts the need to address what he calls "Post-Multilingualism challenges" as the notion of different languages or varieties is no longer accepted or could be reliable in today's complex interdependent communication where speakers themselves build or break borders according to their interactional contexts.

Thus, a shift in language ideology towards bilingual behaviors including translanguaging was inevitable and urgent especially within different academic contexts to allow students to benefit from their translanguaging instinct and to normally use obtainable spaces and multiple natural resources to make sense of the world. Currently, researchers like Li (2018) and Garc ía and Kleifgen (2020) argue for critical understandings of language use that go beyond traditional views that claim separate conventionally-named languages or separate modes. One example of the historical change in language ideology towards bilingual practices in education was described by Garcia and Sylvan (2011) when examining bilingual speakers in an international high school in the US that passed three phases starting from strictly monolingual schools to linear bilingualism and recently more flexible dynamic bilingualism in schools. Such are the translanguaging theories developed by various scholars who play a great role in transforming society's understanding of multilingual language use and literacy practices (Garc ía & Kleifgen, 2020).

Hence, translanguaging could be defined as both an act of bilingual performance and a bilingual pedagogy for teaching and learning (Garcia & Li, 2013). Supporting this point, research carried out on translanguaging literacy and pedagogy by researchers such as Canagarajah (2011), Hornberger and Link (2012), Creese and Blackledge (2010), Creese and Blackledge (2015), Garcia and Li (2013), Garcia and Sylvan (2011), Garc ía and Kleifgen (2020), and Cenoz and Gorter (2020) is broadened to include the theory and practices of translanguaging across different pedagogical contexts including bilingual schools, communities and complementary schools as well as foreign and second language classrooms.

The contribution of translanguaging in language education as an instructional strategy that integrates languages for scaffolding language learning and enhancing language awareness is indicated in several recent studies. Hornberger and Link (2012) assert the important role of transnational literacies and translanguaging pedagogy for both government and classroom policy-makers to develop innovative programs, curricula, and practices that incorporate students' multiple dynamic communicative and literacy repertoires as resources for learning. Through translanguaging practices in the classroom, there is significant potential to utilize access to different academic content, media and other resources found in various sites. Pedagogical translanguaging can be employed both in language classrooms to enhance a variety of linguistic skills such as English academic vocabulary and reading skills and in content classes to incorporate metalinguistic awareness and knowledge along with pragmatic and discourse competence (Cenoz & Gorter, 2020). Based on several contexts of research, Garc ía and Kleifgen (2020, p. 9) named four critical skills being enhanced through pedagogical translanguaging including: 1) Deepening student's understanding of texts; 2) generating students' diverse texts; 3) developing students' "confianza" (English: "trust") in performing literacies and 4) fostering critical metalinguistic awareness. Hence, translanguaging could serve as an effective strategy for performing various tasks and accomplishing several educational and communicative functions in language classrooms.

H. Translanguaging: A Promising Approach to Enhance English Learning in Saudi Arabia

Over the last few years, translanguaging as a pedagogical strategy in TEFL and content knowledge classrooms has been studied in the Saudi context. Alsaawi (2019) examined language use and attitudes of business university students towards translanguaging. He found that translanguaging is a highly effective method used by students and their teachers to enhance their comprehension. Translanguaging was also beneficial for employing students' complete linguistic

repertoire and gave enough good space to maximize English use during the learning process. Thus, Alsaawi recommends flexibility in language use to achieve better intended learning outcomes.

Alahdal's (2020) study of teachers' attitudes toward "translanguaging" (as named by Alahdal) was to explore the suitability of the translanguaging approach to the critical TEFL situation in Saudi Arabia. The study confirms the positive attitudes of English teachers toward translanguaging as they believe that the English monolingual strategy could be biased against students in acquiring their content knowledge through a language that they still learn. It was found that translanguaging presents better learner involvement in the learning process and allows for the transferring of mother tongue skills into English.

Similarly, Alzabidi and Alahdal (2021) investigated students' perspectives on translanguaging in ESL upper-secondary classrooms in Saudi Arabia. In contrast to the above findings, students in this context were hesitant and seemed unfamiliar with translanguaging and were still in favor of the traditional monolingual approach. They concluded that students may have had only the slightest background information on translanguaging and may not have been exposed to the scientific data supporting the use of translanguaging and affirming its benefits to second language education. Alasmari et al. (2022) examined teachers' online translanguaging practices and ideologies in the Saudi context and found that translanguaging was more common during office hours. They also outline considerable numbers of positive functions of translanguaging in language learning classrooms including facilitating knowledge construction and content understanding, creating a positive and dynamic learning atmosphere, and increasing student engagement and motivation, especially for students with low levels of proficiency, as well as supporting classroom management.

A similar conclusion was reached by Alqahtani (2022) who found greater faith in students who were taught using the conventional language learning approach, applying only English use in the EFL classes. However, positive attitudes towards translanguaging were also found which reflects potential conflict in English classrooms that need extensive efforts by teachers and policymakers before exposing learners to translanguaging in such contexts.

Other studies have likewise argued for promoting bilingual education in Saudi Arabia. Alharbi (2015) calls for converting some public schools into bilingual schools to overcome the students' deficiency in English communication competence and enhance English mastery in the kingdom. He claims that bilingual education will end up with economic and educational outcomes as it will reduce the budget assigned for sending students to learn English abroad. Alotaibi (2014) recommends teaching English to early-grade students in Saudi Arabia based on his revision of the literature on bilingual education and second language acquisition. The consideration of the positive effects of longer exposure to a target language when implementing English learning in elementary schools was the main factor in supporting the decision. Likely, in their study of the effects of teaching English starting in the first grade on Arabic literacy skills, Aldosari and Alsultan (2017) support the decision since no observable harm to the skills of L1(Arabic) was found when teaching English simultaneously in the early phases of L1 education. However, careful and sustainable language policy and planning are crucial both before and during the inclusion process (Alotaibi, 2014; Aldosari & Alsultan, 2017).

III. CONCLUSION

This paper aimed to develop a conceptual framework that suggests translanguaging as a teaching policy methodology that enhances English education, encourages bilingual practices, and promotes multilingualism in accordance with the inspired plan of modern Saudi Arabia.

Based on the review above, it can be argued that a remarkable and comprehensive change in language policymakers and planning in Saudi Arabia has occurred. At the macro level, Saudi language policy and planning have always been aligned with the economic, cultural, political, and educational objectives of the country (Alzumor, 2019). Still, despite a sort of cohesion evidenced in the language planning situation, there is a gap between language teaching objectives and the real outcomes and a call for problem-solving has been raised by several researchers. Additionally, the conflicts between language policy and the actual linguistic practices of speakers in classrooms need to be addressed. Thus, at the micro-level of language education, an urgent and inclusive reform in language education policy and planning is crucial. From our perspective, and based on this revision of various studies and papers in TEFL in Saudi contexts, educational reform is driven by both internal and external factors. Hence, bottom-up efforts must be accompanied by top-down planning and policy-making procedures.

In the Saudi context, translanguaging could be used as a new, explicit and well-defined approach for language learning in EFL classrooms. Researchers assert translanguaging as an effective strategy that promotes cooperative learning. As translanguaging in literacy challenges the notion of separated language learning, it freely allows students to integrate their linguistic resources, construct their social spaces, and reflect their multiple identities. In addition, it provides opportunities for students to use and develop their language skills in authentic contexts as found in their real daily interactions. Translanguaging contributes to what Elyas and Picard (2010) call "the hybridity of teacher and student identity" and "a hybrid English language pedagogy" that allows for the third space of English learning and practicing and promotes culturally suitable language pedagogy in the Saudi educational contexts. It also allows a "safe space" for bilingual students to practice their bilingualism and thereby benefit from their linguistic repertoire (Garcia & Li, 2013).

Through the translanguaging process, the teacher acts as a "co-learner" as described by García and Kleifgen (2020), and thus allows more independence and autonomy for students, developing their confidence and motivation, and

increasing their engagement in activities. Such cooperative strategy enhances various social, cognitive, and communicative skills such as critical thinking, problem-solving, meaning-making and negotiating (Albiladi, 2022). Moreover, various positive functions of translanguaging could be utilized in EFL classrooms in Saudi Arabia, especially in lower levels of proficiency including facilitating knowledge transmission and construction, promoting group work and discussion, and supporting classroom management. Furthermore, employing translanguaging also increases openness and tolerance towards other cultures among learners.

However, for developmental implications regarding English teaching and translanguaging implementation, several points must be considered by policymakers and decision-makers as well as practitioners in the field. These points would be useful both locally and internationally for TEFL and translanguaging applications as follows:

1. Practical and holistic educational reform on both macro- and micro-levels of language planning is necessary and crucial for the effective alignment of education with the country's inspiring vision and plans for successful openness and incorporation with the global culture and the international market.
2. Grassroots perspectives and concerns regarding language teaching and learning must be taken into consideration. Issues in language learning must be addressed by involving teachers, learners and their parents in the pedagogical choices and experiences. Policymakers must consider language education practices that work practically and are both individually and contextually preferred by people in the field. Regular local assessment of language education is critical not only to evaluate plans and identify weaknesses but also to shed light on the complexity of the process and explore valuable and preferable practices that could be utilized in language learning classes.
3. Ideology and attitudes about language, language learning and the teaching process must be at the center of the reform process. People in both school communities and the wider outside community should have adequate knowledge about the significance of language learning for contact and integration into modern societies and about the new trends and concepts in language learning such as translanguaging and other bilingual education practices. Pre- and in-service teachers must be exposed to, educated, and trained regarding bilingual different features and behaviors. Positive attitudes about bilingualism and multilingualism could be attained by raising awareness about its advantages and benefits for language learning. Additionally, increasing a sense of openness, acceptance and tolerance among language learners is important to achieve positive attitudes and motivation in language learners and their families. Gradually, this will help to reduce cultural concerns and language anxiety and minimize negative attitudes about foreign languages and bilingual practices.
4. On a parallel track, both mother tongue (Arabic) and target language (English) education must be well planned, carefully assessed and continually revised and treated. Equal support must be directed to both languages to promote positive bilingualism instead of the potential language deficiency or shift. During translanguaging implementation, caution needs to ensure that translanguaging does not end up with the dominance of one language over the other negatively. Thus, integrated efforts of language planners and teachers of both languages must be made to reach the best outcomes.
5. A clear and well-defined language policy, scientifically based and experimentally supported, must be documented and announced for people involved in language education, specifically the explicit role of L1 in L2 classrooms. As mentioned by Barnawi and Alhawsawi (2017), language policy in Saudi Arabia must be accessible and clear to address issues of internationalization of education and national cultural identity. Based on such declarations, each component in the language education system including learning objectives, curriculum, methodology, assessments, and teacher training must be revised and restructured in a reasonable and practical manner for successful implementation of newly recommended bilingual strategies including translanguaging.

From the points listed above, further research on translanguaging is needed in the Saudi context to support policymakers in developing a comprehensive framework for language learning that is in line with the national plan and the international expectations of the global market. Such studies will also contribute to language learning in similar contexts.

REFERENCES

- [1] Alahdal, A. (2020). Translanguagism and the bilingual EFL learner of Saudi Arabia: Exploring new vistas. *Asian EFL Journal*, 27(1), 14-26.
- [2] Alasmari, M., Qasem, F., Ahmed, R., & Alrayes, M. (2022). Bilingual teachers' translanguaging practices and ideologies in online classrooms in Saudi Arabia. *Heliyon*, 8(9), 1-9. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.heliyon.2022.e10537>
- [3] Albiladi, W. (2022). English teaching and learning in Saudi Arabia: Emerging practices and strategies for achieving the educational objectives of the Saudi vision 2030. *Journal of Language Teaching and Research*, 13(4), 781-789. <https://doi.org/10.17507/jltr.1304.11>
- [4] Aldosari, A., & Alsultan, M. (2017). The Influence of Early Bilingual Education (English) on the First Language (Arabic) Literacy Skills in the Second Grade of Elementary School: Saudi Arabia. *Journal of Education and Practice*, 8(5), 135-142.
- [5] Alhamami, M. (2020). Switching of language varieties in Saudi multilingual hospitals: insiders' experiences. *Journal of Multilingual and Multicultural Development*, 41(2), 175-189. <https://doi.org/10.1080/01434632.2019.1606227>

- [6] Alharbi, H. (2015). Improving Students' English-Speaking Proficiency in Saudi Public Schools. *International Journal of Instruction*, 8(1), 105-116.
- [7] Allmnaqh, A., & Evers, C. (2020). The need for a fundamental shift in the Saudi education system: Implementing the Saudi Arabian economic vision 2030. *Research in Education*, 106(1), 22-40. <https://doi.org/10.1177/0034523719851534>
- [8] Almohanna, A. (2010). English language teaching in Saudi Arabian context: How communicatively oriented is it. *Journal of King Saud University*, 22(1), 69-88.
- [9] AlMukhallafi, T. (2019). English in Saudi Arabia: Status and challenges in the light of Prince Mohammad bin Salman's Vision 2030. *International Journal of English Linguistics*, 9(4), 209-223. <https://doi.org/10.5539/ijel.v9n4p209>
- [10] Alomaim, T., & Altameemi, Y. (2022). Saudi students' perspective towards language education policy of using the first language in teaching the second language. *Asian-Pacific Journal of Second and Foreign Language Education*, 7(1), 1-19.
- [11] Alotaibi, G. (2014). Teaching English as a foreign language in the early grades of the Saudi public elementary schools: Considering the proposal. *Journal of King Saud University*, 26, 31-36.
- [12] Alqahtani, M. (2022). The Saudi 2030 vision and translanguaging in language learning in Saudi Arabia: Looking for concord in the future. *Journal of Language and Linguistic Studies*, 18(S1), 556-568.
- [13] Alsaawi, A. (2019). Translanguaging in the case of bilingual university students. *International Journal of English Linguistics*, 9(6), 281-286. <https://doi.org/10.5539/ijel.v9n6p281>
- [14] Alsamani, A. (2014). Foreign Culture Awareness Needs of Saudi English Language Majors at Buraydah Community College. *English Language Teaching*, 7(6), 143-153.
- [15] Alseghayer, K. (2014a). The actuality, inefficiency, and needs of EFL teacher-preparation programs in Saudi Arabia. *International Journal of Applied Linguistics and English Literature*, 3(1), 143-151.
- [16] Alseghayer, K. (2014b). The four most common constraints affecting English teaching in Saudi Arabia. *International Journal of English Linguistics*, 4(5), 17-26. <http://dx.doi.org/10.5539/ijel.v4n5p17>
- [17] Alseghayer, K. (2015). Salient Key Features of Actual English Instructional Practices in Saudi Arabia. *English Language Teaching*, 8(6), 89-99. <http://dx.doi.org/10.5539/elt.v8n6p89>
- [18] Alshehri, S. (2020). Transforming English Language Education in Saudi Arabia: Why Does Technology Matter? *International Journal of Emerging Technologies in Learning (iJET)*, 15(6), 108-123. <https://doi.org/10.3991/ijet.v15i06.12655>
- [19] Alzabidi, A., & Alahdal, A. (2021). Translanguaging in Saudi classrooms: A study of upper secondary learner perceptions. *Journal of Language and Linguistic Studies*, 17(3), 1680-1689.
- [20] Alzahrani, A. (2017). Markets and language policy in Saudi Arabia: how the English language can contribute to the success of the Saudi vision 2030. *International Journal of English Language and Linguistics Research*, 5(6), 1-12.
- [21] Alzumor, A. (2019). Language planning in Saudi Arabia (1927–2019): Arabic and other Languages. *Trames*, 23(4), 409-424.
- [22] Barnawi, O., & Alhawsawi, S. (2017). English education policy in Saudi Arabia: English language education policy in the Kingdom of Saudi Arabia: Current trends, issues, and challenges. In R. Kirkpatrick (Eds) *English Language Education Policy in the Middle East and North Africa* (pp. 199-222). Springer, Cham. https://doi.org/10.1007/978-3-319-46778-8_12
- [23] Blommaert, J. (2010). *The sociolinguistics of globalization*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.
- [24] Blommaert, J., & Rampton, B. (2011). Language and superdiversity. *Diversities*, 13(2), 1-21.
- [25] Brown, H. (2007). *Teaching by Principles: An Interactive Approach to Language Pedagogy*. USA: Pearson Education.
- [26] Canagarajah, A. (2011). Translanguaging in the classroom: Emerging issues for research and pedagogy. *Applied Linguistics Review*, 2(1), 1-28.
- [27] Cenoz, J. (2013). Discussion: Towards an educational perspective in CLIL language policy and pedagogical practice. *International Journal of Bilingual Education and Bilingualism*, 16(3), 389-394.
- [28] Cenoz, J., & Gorter, D. (2020). Teaching English through pedagogical translanguaging. *World Englishes*, 39(2), 300-311. <https://doi.org/10.1111/weng.12462>
- [29] Creese, A., & Blackledge, A. (2010). Translanguaging in the bilingual classroom: A pedagogy for learning and teaching? *The Modern Language Journal*, 94(1), 103-115.
- [30] Creese, A., & Blackledge, A. (2015). Translanguaging and identity in educational settings. *Annual Review of Applied Linguistics*, 35, 20-35. <https://doi.org/10.1017/S0267190514000233>
- [31] De Bel-Air, F. (2018). *Demography, migration and labour market in Saudi Arabia*. Retrieved July 10, 2023, from: https://gulfmigration.grc.net/media/pubs/exno/GLMM_EN_2018_05.pdf
- [32] Elyas, T., & Picard, M. (2010). Saudi Arabian educational history: Impacts on English language teaching. *Education, Business and Society: Contemporary Middle Eastern Issues*, 3(2), 136-145.
- [33] Garcia, O. (2009). *Bilingual education in the 21st century: A global perspective*. US: Wiley-Blackwell.
- [34] Garcia, O., & Kleifgen, J. (2020). Translanguaging and literacies. *Reading Research Quarterly*, 55(4), 553-571. <https://doi.org/10.1002/rq.286>
- [35] Garcia, O., & Li, W. (2013). *Translanguaging: Language, bilingualism and education*. US and UK: Palgrave Macmillan.
- [36] Garcia, O., & Sylvan, C. (2011). Pedagogies and practices in multilingual classrooms: Singularities in pluralities. *The Modern Language Journal*, 95(3), 385-400. <https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1540-4781.2011.01208.x>
- [37] GStat (General Authority for Statistics). (2021). *Population Estimates in the Midyear of 2021*. Retrieved June 20, 2023, from: <https://www.stats.gov.sa/sites/default/files/POP%20SEM2021E.pdf>
- [38] Hamers, J., & Blanc, M. (2000). *Bilinguality and bilingualism*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.
- [39] Hornberger, N., & Link, H. (2012). Translanguaging and transnational literacies in multilingual classrooms: A biliteracy lens. *International Journal of Bilingual Education and Bilingualism*, 15(3), 261-278. <http://dx.doi.org/10.1080/13670050.2012.658016>
- [40] Lewis, G., Jones, B., & Baker, C. (2012a). Translanguaging: Developing its conceptualisation and contextualisation. *Educational Research and Evaluation*, 18(7), 655-670. <http://dx.doi.org/10.1080/13803611.2012.718490>
- [41] Lewis, G., Jones, B., & Baker, C. (2012b). Translanguaging: Origins and development from school to street and beyond. *Educational Research and Evaluation*, 18(7), 641-654. <http://dx.doi.org/10.1080/13803611.2012.718488>

- [42] Li, W. (2000). *The bilingualism reader*. London: Routledge.
- [43] Li, W. (2018). Translanguaging as a practical theory of language. *Applied linguistics*, 39(1), 9-30. <https://doi.org/10.1093/applin/amx039>
- [44] Li, W., & Martin, P. (2009). Conflicts and tensions in classroom code-switching: An introduction. *International Journal of Bilingual Education and Bilingualism*, 12(2), 117-122.
- [45] Mahboob, A., & Elyas, T. (2014). English in the kingdom of Saudi Arabia. *World Englishes*, 33(1), 128-142.
- [46] Mahboob, A., Elyas, T., & Alissa, A. (2018). *Shaping the Future of the GCC Countries through Language Policy and Planning: Concepts, Challenges and Aspirations*. Gulf Research Centre Cambridge. Retrieved July 15, 2023 from: https://www.grc.net/documents/1584363642140_WS7%20-%20Shaping%20the%20Future%20of%20the%20GCC%20Countries%20through%20Language%20Policy%20and%20Plannin%20g.pdf
- [47] Mitchell, B., & Alfuraih, A. (2018). The Kingdom of Saudi Arabia: Achieving the aspirations of the National Transformation Program 2020 and Saudi vision 2030 through education. *Journal of Education and Development*, 2(3), 36-46.
- [48] MOE (Ministry of Education). (2021). *Teaching English from the First Grade of Primary School to enhance Students' Language Abilities from an Early Age*. Retrieved June 5, 2023, from: <https://www.moe.gov.sa/en/mediacenter/MOENews/Pages/english-tech-2021-76.aspx>
- [49] OECD (Organization for Economic and Cooperation Development). (2020). *Education in Saudi Arabia, Reviews of National Policies for Education*, OECD Publishing, Paris. Retrieved July 19, 2023, from: <https://www.moe.gov.sa/ar/education/studies/Documents/Education%20in%20Saudi%20Arabia.pdf>
- [50] Saleh, M. (2017). Role of Saudi Arabia in Arabic language spread and improvement of its teaching. *Language Planning and Policy*, 4, 7-25.
- [51] Saudi Vision 2030, (2022). *The Vision Realization Programs: Kingdom of Saudi Arabia 2022*. Retrieved July 11, 2023, from: <https://www.vision2030.gov.sa/>
- [52] ur Rahman, M., & Alhaisoni, E. (2013). Teaching English in Saudi Arabia: prospects and challenges. *Academic Research International*, 4(1), 112-118.
- [53] Yusuf, N. (2017). Changes required in Saudi universities curriculum to meet the demands of 2030 Vision. *International journal of economics and finance*, 9(9), 111-116. <https://doi.org/10.5539/ijef.v9n9p111>

Albatool Ahmad Alhazmi had her MA and PhD. from UNSW, Australia. Research areas are discourse analysis, language acquisition, language education and bilingualism. She is currently an assistant professor in English Dept., College of Languages and Translation, Najran University, Saudi Arabia. She has a paper published under the title: "Linguistic Aspects of Arabic-English Code Switching on Facebook and Radio in Australia. Another paper under the title "The Ideology of Language Purism in Online Interaction of Arabic Speakers" was published in 2021. Recently, in 2023, a coauthored paper entitled "The Effectiveness of Writing Circles Strategy in Developing Academic Writing Skills in EFL Classrooms" was published. <https://orcid.org/0000-0002-3737-524X>

Family Names in Jordan and the USA: A Comparative Socio-Linguistic Study

Muneera M. Jaradat
Jadara University, Jordan

Abstract—This study aims to analyze family names in Jordan and the USA from a sociolinguistic perspective. The examination is based on a sample of 1000 family names: 500 Jordanian family names (JFN) and 500 American family names (AFN). As for Jordan, the sample was randomly selected from Al-Rawabdeh's (2010) *Lexicon of Jordanian Clans*, while in the case of the USA, the sample was randomly drawn from the list published at <https://gist.github.com> of the 1000 most common family names in the USA. The study's findings show that (41.6 %) of family names in Jordan and (54.4 %) in the USA do not reflect any aspect of human life. However, (58.4%) of family names in Jordan and (45.6%) of family names in the USA are found to reflect various aspects of human life. These aspects are reflected in nine categories: social traits, animals, occupations and professions, physical features, plants, geographical areas, natural and timing phenomena, tools and instruments, and financial conditions. The overall findings of this study reveal that although family names in Jordan and the USA are different, they generally tend to reflect the social-cultural and natural contexts in which these names have emerged and maintained.

Index Terms—last names, personal names, proper names, Jordanian names, American names

I. INTRODUCTION

Names, whether first or last names (surnames), reflect not only the identity of their givers or owners but also the identity and uniqueness of the societies and/or cultures in which these names prevail. As such, names are often associated with social, economic, geographical, and cultural features of the society where the naming process occurs. In this regard, Rosenhouse (2002) argued that "naming is a specific linguistic act which shows values, traditions, hopes, fears and everyday events in people's lives, names reveal the preference and concerns of their owners as well as givers in terms of real-life objects, actions and beliefs". Although a naming practice is a universal principle, the patterns, typologies, and stability of such names differ from one place to another within the same society, from one society or culture to another, and from one historical period to another.

The study of names started as a scattered individual initiative by researchers. Then, it was developed to become an independent field of study called 'onomastics' or 'onomatology'. Bochstruck (2013, p. 6) defined onomatology as: "the study of names". It involves both forenames, commonly called first, second, or middle names, and family names or surnames. According to Portner (2005), onomatology as a significant discipline in linguistics can be classified into two core aspects: the first one is etymology, which is the study of the name's origin, and the second one is semantics, which is the study of a word's meaning. The study of names has recently gained growing importance after linguists have recognized the significant contributions of studying names to linguistics. This recognition has led to the emergence of a journal specialized solely in research related to names called "Names: A Journal of Onomastics". This Journal is published by the University Library System of the University of Pittsburgh (ans-names.pitt.edu).

Undoubtedly, the study of names, whether it is first or last, can contribute significantly to our understanding of the mutual relation between language, society, and culture. However, this study contends that studying last names is more important than studying first names. This is mainly because, in today's societies, the need for last names is a contemporary demand due to the drastic increase of people, while in the early times, the need for people's identification was satisfied using the first name only. In this regard, Bardsley (1915, p. 172) states that: "surnames, we must remember, were the simple result of necessity when population hitherto isolated and small, became so increased as to necessitate further particularity than the merely personal one could supply." Applying the same logic, Room (1995), stated that "the concept of a "surname" is a recent historical development, evolving from a medieval naming practice which is called a "by name". Based on an individual's occupation or area of residence, "a by name" would be used in situations where various people have the same name" (Cited in Tahat, 2014). Linguistically, the surname is defined as the name that one shares with other members of one's family, that is, the last name (Cambridge Dictionary, 2019).

Akinnaso (1980), Elias (1991), Atawneh (2005), Lewis (2010), Pappas (2013) have emphasized the importance of studying family names as compared to first names. Accordingly, it should be clear that studying family names can contribute more to our understanding of one's identity than studying first names only. Despite the relative importance of family names compared to first names, the study of family names has not yet been thoroughly investigated from a sociolinguistic perspective (Atawneh, 2005; Tahat, 2014). Hence, this study is expected to attempt to fill the gap in the literature on names.

The significance of this study can be attributed to four main factors. The first is related to its expected original contribution to the linguistic field of onomatology in general. Secondly, it emerges from the earlier observation that most linguistic studies have dealt with names related to first names despite the relative importance of studying family names. This implies that studying family names is more needed and should, therefore, receive more attention than has already been captured. Thirdly, this study is unique in its attempt to study family names in two different cultural settings (i.e., Arab-Islamic and Western cultures). In contrast, most other linguistic studies of family names deal with family names in only one specific culture. The fourth reason is related to its comprehensiveness, as it is perhaps one of the first, if not the first, to study the corpus of all family names in Jordan that are listed in Al-Rawabdeh (2010) 'Lexicon of the Jordanian Clans' on the one hand and the corpus of all the 1000 most common family names in the USA.

Accordingly, this study aims to analyze family names in Jordan and the USA from a sociolinguistic perspective and attempts to answer the following question:

To what extent do family names in the Jordanian society and the American society reflect the lifestyle of people in terms of their social, economic, geographical, and environmental backgrounds? In other words, what is the extent to which the practice of family naming, as a linguistic act, in both Jordan and the USA, is associated with the same socio-economic, cultural, environmental, and geographical patterns?

II. LITERATURE REVIEW

As indicated above, most linguistic studies on names have dealt with first names compared to surnames or family names. Such studies have tackled a variety of linguistic dimensions and aspects. These studies can be generally divided into three groups.

The first group is the studies of various dimensions of first names. Examples of these studies include: Antoun (1968), Akinnaso (1980), Abed-el-Jawad (1985), Alford (1988), Tushyeh and Rishmawi (1989), Koul (1995), Whissell (2001), Bani-Melhem (2002), Kayed and Lance (2002), Rosenhouse (2002), Agyekum (2006), Saadi (2006), Al Zumor (2009), Eslami-Rasekh and Ahmadvand (2012), Al-Quran and Al-Azzam (2014), Rasul and Sherwani (2014), Adomako (2015), Al-Qawasmi and Al-Haq (2016), Bisilki (2018), Hazaymeh et al. (2019), Aljbour and Al-Haq (2019), Tahat (2019), That (2020).

The second group is the studies dealing with family names in general, such as Akkinaso (1980), Hanks and Hodges (1988), Tushyeh and Hamadallah (1992), Wardat (1997), Butkus (1999), Atawneh (2005), Creider (2007), Koehn (2015), Bilcher (2016), Patterson and Farr (2017), Kandt and Longley (2018).

The third group, which is the closest to the topic of this study, analyzed the actual family names in various cultural settings that attempted to clarify the social, cultural, geographical, or environmental connotations. Baker (1939) found that (80%) of the Americans using the surname 'Washington' are Negroes. He found that lesser but remarkably high proportions of persons known as Johnson, Brown, Smith, and various other long-established family appellations are borne by men of dark skin. In a study of nicknames in one village in Jordan Valley, Antoun (1968) found that those nicknames expressed character, physical and personal traits, occupation, and place of origin. Similarly, in studying family names in Palestine, Atawneh (2005) found that those names reflected the style of life in the past regarding agricultural professions, industry, human characteristics, and the place of living. In his analysis of the English and Chinese family names, Zhu (2010) found that the English family names reflect their love and attachment to everything in their culture, while the Chinese family names express the feudal system that exists in their culture concerning all surnames which the emperors and nobles granted.

In another study of family names in Malta, Chetcue (2014) concluded that the Maltese family names are indicative elements of the country's multicultural history because Malta has always been a place of coexistence for different cultures and ethnicities. Muslims in the thirteenth century and Jews in the fifteenth century who lived in Malta significantly impacted the language, culture, and, therefore, the Maltese family names. In another investigation of the Turkish patronymic surnames ending with -oglu "Son of", Tum (2021) found that these names did not reflect the name of someone's father only. Instead, they denote cognitive diversity, expressing meta-language awareness of Turkish's intercultural richness.

Finally, Aljbour (2022) clarified that surnames are defined legally as the names added to the first names. He illustrated that they are called surnames because, originally, they were written over the name in judicial writings and contracts. He also explained that in the Arabic context, the *nisba* is like the term surname, as it is often used as the last name. He also added that the term family name is often used in the relevant Arab literature instead of surname. It usually stands for a family, an occupation, or a geographical location.

III. METHODOLOGY

The corpus of the study consists of all family names in Jordan (JFN) and the 1000 most common family names in the USA (AFN). Regarding Jordan, Alrawabdeh (2010) developed a Lexicon for family names in Jordan named 'Lexicon of Jordanian Clans'. This Lexicon lists 2650 family names, which are believed to include all JFN. Accordingly, the study's corpus regarding Jordan consists of all those 2650 JFN. As for the USA, <https://gist.github.com> lists the 1000 most common surnames in the USA. As such, the study's corpus about the USA consists of all these 1000 family names.

The study sample consists of 1000 family names: 500 JFN and 500 AFN. This sample was randomly selected from the corpus of the study. In the case of Jordan, the researcher selected the fifth, the tenth, the fifteenth and so on of the 2650 family names, while in the case of the USA, the author selected the odd numbers from the list of the 1000 AFN. This process ends up with 500 JFN and 500 AFN, which will be analyzed below.

Regarding the methodology, most researchers studying family names often tend to use a certain classification of these names. Atawneh (2005) depended on the categorization of Tushyen and Hamadallah (1992), Antoun (1968), Butkus (1999). Then, he developed his own classification, ending up with seven major categories: physical features, agriculture, temperament, geographical area, trade and industry, financial conditions, and timing and plants.

In this study and based on its purpose, the nature of its population, and the derived sample, the author adopted the categorizations used in the studies mentioned above, especially that of Atawneh's (2005) study, leading to a classification of nine major categories that are adopted in this study. Those are social traits, animals, occupations and professions, physical features, plants, geographical area, natural and timing phenomena, tools and instruments and financial conditions. Regarding Arabic words which appear in this paper, they are transliterated according to the following phonetic system.

TABLE 1
THE TRANSCRIPTION SYSTEM USED IN THE STUDY

Symbol	Description	Symbol	Description
/b/	Voiced bilabial stop	/w/	Voiced bilabial glide
/t/	Voiceless dental stop	/x/	Voiceless uvular fricative
/d/	Voiced dental stop	/gh/	Voiced uvular fricative
/k/	Voiceless velar stop	/ħ/	Voiceless pharyngeal fricative
/f/	Voiceless labio-dental fricative	/ʕ/	Voiced pharyngeal fricative
/θ/	Voiceless inter-dental fricative	/h/	Voiceless glottal fricative
/ð/	Voiced inter-dental fricative	/ʔ/	Voiceless glottal stop
/s/	Voiceless alveolar fricative	/dʒ/	Voiced 3hat33- alveolar affricate
/z/	Voiced alveolar fricative	/m/	Voiced bilabial nasal stop
/sh/	Voiceless 3hat33- alveolar fricative	/n/	Voiced alveolar nasal stop
/ɖ/	Voiceless dental emphatic stop	/l/	Voiced alveolar lateral
/TH/	Voiced inter-dental emphatic fricative	/r/	Voiced alveolar flap
/S/	Voiceless alveolar emphatic fricative	/y/	Voiced palatal glide
/dʕ/	Voiced dental emphatic fricative	/ʔ/	Voiceless 3hat33- alveolar affricate
/q/	Voiceless uvular stop	/g/	Voiced velar stop

IV. RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

The analysis of family names in both societies begins with a thorough review of all family names in the Jordanian and American settings. This review reveals that family names can be classified into two major groups. The first group of family names does not reflect any aspect of the socio-environmental context that is reflected in the nine categories employed in this study. However, the second group of family names is clearly related to one of the nine categories of family names adopted in this study.

Regarding the first group, the findings reveal that (41.6 %) of the family names in Jordan and (54.4 %) in the USA do not relate to any of the nine categories adopted in this study. As for the Jordanian setting, Table 2 shows that 208 (41.6%) of the total family names (N=500) in Jordan do not seem to reflect any of the adopted family name categories used in this study. These family names could have history and stories behind their naming, but they do not explicitly reflect specific characteristics of the socio-environmental context in which these names are used. Examples of these names include Aba ʕa, Fanik, TweeT, and Salman. In our culture, as in other cultures, some name-givers prefer to keep track of ancestors and hand it down to later generations. It is worth noting that this finding (41.6 %) of the JFN is not related to the adopted categories) is close to the findings of Atawneh's (2005) study, where he found that 38% of the family names in Palestine are not related to environmental or behavioral characteristics prevailing in Palestine.

As for the American setting, Table 2 shows that 272 (54.4%) of the family names do not relate to any of the adopted family name categories used in the study. Examples of such family names include Jones, David, Simon, and Wilson.

These overall findings reflect a difference between family naming practices in both settings (41.6%) and (54.4%) of the JFN and AFN, respectively. That is, there are more family names in the American setting compared to the Jordan setting that do not reflect specific socio-economic, environmental, and geographical aspects. This is understandable because Americans, in general, have more freedom in their practice of naming. Therefore, they are less affected by the social context in which they live compared to that of the Jordanians.

TABLE 2
DISTRIBUTION OF FAMILY NAMES IN JORDAN AND THE USA ACCORDING TO THE ADOPTED CATEGORIES IN THE STUDY

Category of family names	JFN		AFN		JFN & AFN	
	Frequency	Percentage	Frequency	Percentage	Frequency	Percentage
Not Related to adopted categories	208	41.6	272	54.4	480	48
Related to adopted categories	292	58.4	228	45.6	520	52
Total	500	100%	500	100%	1000	100%

N = 1000 family Names, 500 JFN and 500 AFN.

Having analyzed the first group of JFN and AFN that do not reflect any of the adopted family name categories used in this study, the focus of the analysis turns now to the second group of family names (i.e., 292 JFN and 228 AFN) that are related to one of the nine family name categories adopted in this study. Table 3 below shows the distribution of family names in Jordan and the USA according to the family name categories adopted in this study.

TABLE 3
THE DISTRIBUTION OF FAMILY NAMES IN JORDAN AND THE USA ACCORDING TO THEIR CATEGORIES

Category of family names	JFN		AFN		JFN & AFN	
	Frequency	Percentage	Frequency	Percentage	Frequency	Percentage
Social Traits	61	20.89	36	15.78	97	18.65
Animals	50	17.12	23	10.08	73	14.03
Occupations and Professions	42	14.38	38	16.66	80	15.38
Physical Features	39	13.35	26	11.40	65	12.50
Plants	30	10.27	22	9.64	52	10.00
Geographical Area	28	9.58	24	10.52	52	10.00
Natural and Timing						
Phenomena	17	5.82	27	11.84	44	8.46
Tools and Instruments	15	5.13	19	8.33	34	6.53
Financial Conditions	10	3.42	13	5.70	23	4.42
Total	292	100%	228	100%	520	100%

N = 292for JFN and 228 for AFN

A. Social Traits: JFN (20.89%), AFN (15.78 %)

Family names expressing social traits and values of the Jordanian society are well reflected in JFN. As shown in Table 2, 20.89% of the 292 JFN reflects social traits. These traits include generosity, purity, giving, helping, peace, supporting, serving, affection, and determination. The following family names show several values and social traits in the Jordanian society:

/masaʕdih/	'helper'	/alsoxni/	'of heat'	/abo-hazeem/	'of defeated'
/Masalmih/	'peaceable'	/sroor /	'pleasant'	/abo-shareeʕah/	'of law'
/moʕalla/	'highness'	/rawashdih/	'advisors'	/barakat/	'of blessing'
/manaseer/	'supporter'	/ʕabbaad/	'worshipped'	/bsharaat/	'of happiness'
/manaaʕ/	'preventers'	/ʕazaam/	'determined'	/sʕood/	'pleasant'
/naji/	'survivor'	/ʕaɖiatt/	'given'	/sarhan/	'absent-minded'
/naSrawi/	'of victory'	/ʕlmaat/	'knowing'	/bani-saʕeed/	'of delightful'
/nʕemaa/	'of paradise'	/ʕamayrih/	'builders'	/kassab/	'winner'
/madanee/	'civilian'	/gharaybih/	'strangers'	/bani-ʕada/	'of giving'
/foqhaʕ/	'scholars'	/frihaat/	'happiness'	/al- dʒazzi/	'rewarder'
/darweesh/	'dervish'	/shhadaat/	'request'	/hasasneh/	'advantage'
/bdoor/	'complete'	/karaimih/	'generous'	/al-helo/	'sweet'
/kaayid/	'machination'	/kawamlih/	'perfect'	/hanoon/	'affectionate'
/jahamnih/	'tremendous'	/laɖaifih/	'kind'	/dahboor/	'of circle'
/halawani/	'of sweet'	/mahasnih/	'merits'	/xammash/	'scratchy'
		/maxadmih/	'served'	/ dʒasasreh/	'brave'
		/madadhah/	'of praise'	/dalloʕ/	'of molly-coddle'
/saakit	'silent'	/radʕwaan/	'gratification'		
/abo-mahfooTH/	'of preserved'	/mahafTHa/	'of maintenance'		
/abo mTaawiʕ/	'obedient'	/abo- lubaad/	'slow'		
/nSiraat/	'plural of victory'	/mhaawish/	'fighter'		
/ʕalawnih/	'of superiority'	/al-fayiz/	'winner'		
/kareem/	'generous'				
/naqawah/	'purity'				

Regarding the USA, the values and the social traits category are also well reflected in AFN. Table 2 shows that 15.78 % of the 228 AFN reflect social traits. This means that 15.78 % of the family names in America are also derived from their values and social traits. The following list shows the family names reflecting this category.

Bright	Duke	Gay	Good	Hale	Savage
Hardy	Holder	Huff	Knight	Little	Warner
Madden	Moody	Petty	Prince	Rich	Bryant
Sharp	Short	Stout	Strong	Sweet	Mann
Wilder	Wise	Young	Gross	Long	Manning
Maynard	Terrell	Goodman	Noble	Lang	Grant

It is obvious that the values and social traits are reflected in both the JFN and the AFN. However, it seems that the values and the social traits reflecting family names in Jordan are relatively more positively and socially preferred than the case in the USA, where some social traits include both positive as well as negative traits.

B. Animals: JFN (17.12%), AFN (10.08%)

In societies where the means of production were and still are traditional, people depend on animals to live. Animals, especially the tame ones such as goats, sheep, hens, horses, camels, cats, dogs, cows, and doves, among others, were and are still used for food, ploughing, riding, protection, and clothes. As for the Jordanian society, they depended in the past on these animals in their daily life, which was reflected in their family names. The findings also show that few Jordanian family names are derived from wild animals such as lions, tigers, and leopards. This can be attributed to the fact that these family names reflect the strength and courage associated with such animals. In this study, Table 2 shows that 17.12 % of the 292 family names are found to be names of animals. Consider the following list:

/aljawamees/	'buffalos'	/abo-namoos/	'of mosquito'	/abo-baqar/	'of cow'
/habashnih/	'of birds'	/al-assad/	'lion'	/abo-jamoos/	'of buffalo'
/ʕaqarbiḥ/	'of scorpion'	/al-bess/	'cat'	/abo-ḥajal/	'of hop'
/baTaāt/	'ducks'	/abo-ʕanzih/	'of goat'	/abo-ḥassonih/	'of birds'
/al-hsan/	'horse'	/abo-ghanamih/	'of sheep'	/abo-ḥsan/	'of horse'
/naʕamnih/	'of ostrich'	/al- dʒedi/	'Capricorn'	/al-bghaal/	'mules'
/namaarnih/	'of tiger'	/dʒarabʕah/	'animals'	/jahawshih/	'clot'
/dʒaradeen/	'rats'	/dʒararwah/	'puppies'	/fahdaat/	'leopards'
/ḍnibaāt/	'tails'	/dʒaradat/	'locust'	/dʕerghaam/	'lion'
/Thebian/	'of gazelle'	/al-dʒjarwo/	'puppy'	/bani-laith/	'of lion'
/ʕaSfoor/	'bird'	/ḥaʕalbiḥ/	'fox'	/alfaar/	'mouse'
/ghazalaat/	'deer'	/al- dʒamal/	'camel'	/al- nahlih/	'bee'
/zghelaat/	'of birds'	/xerfaan/	'of sheep'	/ʕnsoor/	'eagles'
/ʕshbilaat/	'of lion'	/xanazriḥ/	'of pigs'	/ḥSeeni/	'hippocampus'
/ʕSqoor/	'falcon'	/deek/	'rooster'	/ḥamarnih/	'of donkey'
/daboort/	'swap'			/ḥwaraat/	'son of camel'

In the USA, too, though to a lesser extent, the study finds that names of animals are also used as family names. As shown in Table 2, 10.08% of the 228 family names are found to be names of animals. However, given the nature of the lifestyle in the USA, the names of animals used as family names are, to a certain degree, different from those in Jordan. Most of the names of animals used as family names are of both wild and domestic natures. In addition, in the American setting, more family names reflect names related to sea and water.

Bird	Buck	Bullock	Crane	Seal
Finch	Fox	Griffin	Hart	Salmon
Herrings	Horn	Lamb	Roach	Falcon
Slater	Wolf	Bass	Everett	
Dove	Lopez	Ham	Leonard	

C. Occupations and Professions: JFN (14.38%), AFN (16.66%)

The nature of societies in terms of their means of production has always colored the kind of occupations and professions prevailing in those societies. Having this in mind and given the importance of occupations and/or professions in people's lives, one can easily argue that the kind of occupations and/or professions of people have always been reflected in their family names, whether in Jordan, the USA, or other societies.

In Jordan, as the society has been more agriculturally oriented than industrially, the nature of professions and/or occupations that people have significantly influences the naming of their families. This is clear in Table 2, where 14.38% out of the 292 family names are found to be occupationally and/or professionally oriented names. These professions and/or occupations and the associated family names are needed for a simple life. Such professions and/or occupations are either food-related or semi-industrial types that would help in making clothes or other needed services for simple societies. The following list clearly shows some examples.

/shammaʃ/	‘chandler’	/al- xateeb/	‘the speaker’	/Sabbagh/	‘pigment’
/Sayiad/	‘fisher’	/alxaiyaaT/	‘tailor’	/ḥayek/	‘weaver’
/ḍabaaʃ/	‘printer’	/dabbagh/	‘dyer’	/ḥadaad/	‘smith’
/ḍaḥaan/	‘miller’	/saraaj/	‘of horse’	/ḥaTaab/	‘wood cutter’
/ʃallaaf/	‘of feed’	/samman/	‘of margarine’	/ḥallaiqah/	‘barbers’
/ghaTaas/	‘diver’	/sankari/	‘plumber’	/alḥallaaq/	‘barber’
/al- ḍalaad/	‘hangman’	/falahaat/	‘farmer’	/Sonaʃ/	‘makers’
/qaḍaan/	‘cotton man’	/qheawi/	‘of coffee’	/laḥameen/	‘butchers’
/qahwaji/	‘of coffee’	/laḥaam/	‘butcher’	/qamaash/	‘of cloth’
/quddah/	‘judges’	/kaḥallih/	‘of kohl’	/Sayigh/	‘of jewelry’
/al- ḍundi/	‘soldier’	/ʔmbaydeen/	‘painters’	/ʃaTaar/	‘spice man’
/al-ḥaaris/	‘guard’	/qadi/	‘judge’	/naToor/	‘guard’
/al-bawaab/	‘doorman’	/mallaaḥ/	‘navigator’		
/naḥass/	‘copper’	/najaar/	‘carpenter’		
/qaSaar/	‘of mending walls’	/al-mʃallim/	‘teacher’		

In the USA, as in JFN, the names of professions and/or occupations have been frequently used as family names. As shown in Table 2, 16.66% of the 228 family names are found to be derived from professions and/or occupations. These family names reflect the nature of the American society, which has been industrially oriented. The following American family names are examples of some professions and/or occupations.

Baker	Barber	Bowman	Brewer
Butler	Carpenter	Carter	Collier
Cook	Cooper	Craver	Dyer
Farmer	Fisher	Foreman	Fuller
Gardener	Hunter	Mayer	Mercer
Miller	Palmer	Porter	Potter
Sawyer	Shepherd	Smith	Wright
Tanner	Weaver	Steward	Parker
Booker	Faulkner	Wagner	
Chandler	Archer	Chambers	

D. Physical Features: JFN (13.35%), AFN (11.40%)

Physical features are considered essential factors in the identity of individuals and then in shaping their personalities. Physical features in terms of height, size, color, and shape serve to give the first impression about individuals and then impact the nature of the interaction between individuals. Furthermore, it is widely believed that physical features play an important role in naming, whether a first name or a family name. Usually, physical features influence the practice of naming the new person, giving him/her a certain identity based on these features, later handed down to the descendants as a family name. Accordingly, physical features play a crucial factor in the practice of family names in both settings.

In this study, as shown in Table 2, 13.35% of the 292 family names are found to be related to physical features. Mainly, these family names reflect the physical features of body organs, color, and defective organs. The following examples of the main physical features reflected in these family names are provided.

(a). Body Organs

/abo raass/	‘of head’	/abo-reden/	‘of sleeve’
/abo- ʃain	‘of eyes’	/abo- elʃeneen/	‘of eyes’
/abo-kaff/	‘of hand’	/shawarbih/	‘mustaches’
/abo- iSbiʃ/	‘of finger’	/xSilaat/	‘curl of hair’
/ḍeenat/	‘ears’	/ḍraaʃ/	‘arm’
/kaʃabnih/	‘heels’	/alrousaan/	‘of heads’
/abo- ḍerʃaan/	‘of arms’	/abo-alshaʃir/	‘of hair’
/baTaynih/	‘of belly’	/ʃaTHamaat/	‘bones’
/xaSaawnih/	‘of testicle’	/ʔkfoof/	‘hands’
		/abo-rokbah/	‘of knee’

(b). Colors

/al- aswad/	‘the black’
/abo-xider/	‘of green’
/abo-zreeq/	‘of blue’
/xdʕeraat/	‘of greens’
/zreeqaat/	‘blues’

/shiabb/	‘white hair’
/alaṣfarr/	‘the yellow’
/samarnih/	‘tanned’
/albenni/	‘the brown’
/shqairaat/	‘blonds’
/alasmaṛ/	‘the tanned’

Defective Organs

/qorṣaan/	‘bald’
/qaSeer/	‘short’
/ʔerfooṣ/	‘thin’
/ṣumian/	‘blind’
/Turshaan/	‘deaf’
/ṣarrian/	‘nude’
/abo-Taweelih/	‘of long’
/al-Taweel/	‘the long’
/al-Sagheer/	‘the little’

It is worth mentioning that nowadays, the listeners to these family names derived from defective organs do not necessarily associate the family name with the inherent meaning of the word. Family names, such as /ṣumian/ ‘blind’ or /Turshaan/ ‘deaf’ do not in this context evoke the image of someone unable to see or a person who is unable to hear, but rather of family names which are known to most of the population in Jordan. Therefore, the words /ṣumian/ and /Turshaan/ have been extended in meaning to encompass a new semantic category, namely, naming.

Regarding the USA, physical features are also reflected in the American family names. As shown in Table 2, 11.40% of the 228 family names are found to be related to physical features. The findings show that colors and some body organs are the main physical features reflected in the names of family names in the USA, while there are no family names related to defective organs, as is the case in Jordan. The following examples present the family names of this category.

White	Black	Blackburn	Lemon
Golden	Yellow	Beard	Nail
Brown	Browning	Colon	Heart
Gray	Green	Head	Greene
Red	Silver	Body	Orange
Whiting	Blackman	Kidney	
Chin	Liver	Finger	

E. Plants: JFN (10.27%), AFN (9.64%)

Societies, whether industrial or agricultural, depend on farming to meet the feeding needs of their people. In traditional societies, plants are of essential concern for people and have a tremendous impact on their activities, behaviors, and lifestyles. Life in traditional societies is almost centered around land and plants and therefore, the process of giving names as a human practice is influenced by farming and the plants associated with it. Jordan, as one of these traditional societies, has been influenced by this process. Consequently, this study shows that several family names in Jordan are derived from specific existing plants. Table 2 indicates that 10.27% of the 292 family names are directly related to plants, and most of these names reflect the nature of plants existing in Jordan, such as vegetables, fruit trees, herbs, flowers, and beans. Consider the following examples that illustrate family names related to plants.

/baTeexi/	‘of watermelon’	/abo-bandoora/	‘of tomato’
/reeḥanni/	‘of flowers’	/abo-jazarr/	‘of carrot’
/toffaḥah/	‘apple’	/abo-ḥasheesh/	‘of grass’
/debess/	‘pin’	/abo-roumaan/	‘of pomegranate’
/sukkar/	‘sugar’	/abo-zeit/	‘of oil’
/ʔṣdoos/	‘lentils’	/abo-zaytoon/	‘of olives’
/karasniḥ/	‘kenoh’	/zaṣareer/	‘hawthorn’
/ʔṣshibaat/	‘of grass’	/abo-sameedih/	‘of semolina’
/lawzi/	‘of almonds’	/abo-Snoobar/	‘pine’
/hailaat/	‘of spicy’	/abo-alṣassal/	‘of honey’
/abut-teen/	‘figs’	/abo-ṣenaab/	‘of jujube’
/albṣool/	‘of onions’	/abo-alfool/	‘of bean’
/abo-alssamin/	‘of margarine’	/abo-karsaaniḥ/	‘of barley’
/ḥalawah/	‘sweetness’	/abo-kishik/	‘of yogurt’
/naṣanṣha/	‘mint’	/ṣanaaniḥ/	‘grapes’

In the USA, some family names are also derived from plants. The findings in Table 2 show that 9.64% of the 228 family names are directly related to plants. Examples of some American family names related to plants are shown as follows.

Bean	Bush	Cherry	Lily	Bloom
Fields	Flowers	Meadows	Oates	Lavender
Perry	Rice	Rose	Rosa	
Wild	Curry	Wood	Plumtree	
Cotton	Pepper	Sage	Blossom	

F. Geographical Area: JFN (9.58%), AFN (10.52%)

The phenomenon of immigration and/or emigration from one country to another or within the same country has been known throughout history. These phenomena have significantly impacted people and cultures in general and the issue of naming in particular. A significant number of family names have been derived from the names of countries people immigrated/emigrated from or from the names of places people migrated from within the same country. In Jordan, as shown in Table 2, 9.58% of the 292 family names are derived from geographical areas, whether foreign countries or local places. The following list illustrates such family names derived from different geographical areas.

/maSarwah/	‘from Egypt’	/hjazaat/	‘from Hejaz’
/maSri/	‘from Egypt’	/halabi/	‘from Aleppo’
/hindi/	‘from Hind’	/dagestaani/	‘from Dagestan’
/remoni/	‘from Raymoon’	/ʕraqi/	‘from Iraq’
/bormawi/	‘from Burma’	/ghazawi/	‘from Gaza’
/Salḍi/	‘from Salt’	/nabulsi /	‘from Nablus’
/malkaawi/	‘from Malka’	/maghrebi/	‘from Morocco’
/maʕaani/	‘from Maʕaan’	/iskandarani/	‘from Alexandria’
/ʕajlooni/	‘from Ajloun’	/irani/	‘from Iran’
/karaki/	‘from Karak’	/tamemi/	‘from Tamim’
/shaḍnaawi/	‘from Shaḍana’	/xalylih/	‘from Khaleel’
/hawarnih/	‘from howrann’	/alsoudi/	‘from Saudi Arabia’
/kurdi/	‘from Kurdistan’	/shaami/	‘from Sham’
/boxari/	‘from Bucharest’	/fayuomi/	‘from Faiyoom’

The same logic applies to the USA, where many family names are derived from the names of the original countries people emigrated from or the names of places people migrated from. Table 2 shows that 10.52% of the 228 family names are derived from geographical areas. Consider the list of these family names regarding this category.

Alexander	Beaches	Beck	English	York
Church	Cleveland	England	Valenzuela	German
French	Holland	Norman	Jordan	London
Kirkland	Lane	Park	Washington	Ireland
Rivera	Roman	Valencia	West	

G. Natural and Timing Phenomena: JFN (5.82%), AFN (11.84%)

This category of family names is related to unique natural phenomena that people usually experience in their lives or in the daily, weekly, monthly, or seasonal phenomena they live through. The time of birth for someone was likely associated with such natural and timing phenomena and named accordingly. The name was handed down, at a later stage, to the descendants and had become a family name. In Jordan, according to this study, it was found that 5.82% of the 292 family names are associated with what is categorized as natural and timing phenomena. A list of such family names related to this category is presented as follows:

/rʕood/	‘thunder’	/burqaan/	‘lightning’	/shihabaat/	‘meteors’
/ḍummʕah/	‘Friday’	/al-rabbiʕ/	‘spring’	/alSaifi/	‘summer’
/ghadeer/	‘beck’	/ghodraan/	‘becks’	/maTar/	‘rain’
/waadi/	‘valley’	/wedian/	‘valleys’	/helalaat/	‘crescent’
/Ramadʕan/	‘a month in Islam’	/shaʕbaan/	‘a month in Islam’	/ḥalji/	‘snowy’
/al-nahaar/	‘daytime’	/ʕtmaat/	‘of darkness’		

Family names categorized as natural and timing phenomena are also found in the USA family names. As shown in Table 2, 11.84% of the 228 family names are found to be family names derived from natural and timing phenomena. The following list of such family names illustrates this category.

Day	Gamble	May	Cloud	Rock
Moon	Morrow	Snow	Stone	Pool
Summers	Ware	Winters	Sun	Frost

Spring	Water	Winter	Flood
Weeks	Rivers	Way	Light
Hills	Shell	Hall	Gale

H. Tools and Instruments: JFN (5.13%), AFN (8.33%)

In their daily lives, people often use specific tools and/or instruments; through time, they might become associated with them or become rather skilled in using them. This perhaps partially explains why we sometimes find family names related to the names of certain tools and/or instruments. In Jordan, the findings presented in Table 2 show that 5.13 % of the 292 family names are names of tools and/or instruments. Consider the list below of such family names taken from the names of tools and instruments.

/al-xiTaan/	'strings'	/xanjar/	'dagger'	/maxareez/	'cones'
/al-syouf /	'swords'	/al-SaTil/	'bucket'	/abo-saif/	'sword'
/mesmaar/	'nail'	/mehbaash/	'hammer'	/qaSaaS/	'scissors'
/abo- gazlih/	'spinning'	/alSahin/	'dish'	/abo-dalo/	'bucket'
/alramahi/	'spear'	/hadeed/	'iron'	/abo- sekeenih/	'knife'

In the USA, it was found, according to Table 2, that 8.33% of the 228 family names carry the names of tools and/or instruments. Such family names are listed as follows:

Ball	Bell	Bond	Clay
Cannon	Cross	Gates	Hook
Glass	Hoover	Key	Ring
Reed	Shields	Smith	Spears
Walls	House	Shaver	

I. Financial Conditions: JFN (3.42%), AFN (5.70%)

In any society, poverty and wealth are always present. As such, poor and rich people have different lifestyles, different views of life and different behaviors and exchanges. Language deals with all aspects of life and has always been used to help people to express their interests and concerns. As a linguistic act, naming, whether a first or a family name, finds its way to financial conditions. The findings of this study, as presented in Table 2, show that 3.42% of the 292 family names in Jordan are associated with financial conditions. Examples of such family names are as follows:

/rbiḥaat/	'winners'	/ryialaat	'coins'
/ghnimaat/	'prizes'	/foqara	'poor'
/mallaak/	'landlord'	/āḥabi/	'golden'
/abo- alāḥab/	'of gold'	/abo-ganeemih/	'trophy'
/shḥadaat/	'beggars'	/al-maSarwah/	'money'

In the USA, the study, as shown in Table 2, found that 5.70% of the 228 family names are associated with financial conditions.

Banks	Cash	Gains	Silverman
Grant	Price	Stocks	
Gold	Silver	Rich	
Royal	King	Diamond	

V. CONCLUSION

Family names in Jordan and the USA are, in part, found not to be related to any aspect of human life. That is, (41.6%) of JFN and (54.4%) of AFN are unrelated to any aspect of human life reflected in the nine categories adopted in this study. This implies that some name givers in Jordan and the USA prefer to keep track of ancestors and hand it down to later generations without being affected by the social, economic, geographical, and/or environmental circumstances in which they live. On the other hand, the other part of these family names reflects the social, economic, geographical, and environmental circumstances in which these names were embedded. That is, (58.4%) of JFN and (45.6%) of AFN explicitly reflect various aspects of human life.

These findings signify important similarities in family naming patterns as a linguistic act in Jordan and the USA, where family names are derived from similar aspects of human life. However, the differences in these patterns are found to be only a matter of degree in terms of the frequencies of the family name categories adopted in this study. For example, while the frequency of family names derived from the social traits category is ranked first compared to other categories in JFN, it is ranked second in AFN. In contrast, the frequency of family names derived from the occupations and professions category ranked first in the AFN; it ranks third in the JFN. Interestingly, the frequency of family names derived from the financial conditions category ranks last among the other categories in both Jordan and the USA.

Finally, it can be concluded that family names in the Jordanian and the American societies reflect the lifestyle of people in terms of their social, economic, and environmental backgrounds and from geographical locations with

historical or social significance. In addition, the findings of this study can lead to new thinking in the field of Onomatology. This thinking argues that although cultures are different, the family naming patterns in these cultures can have common principles.

REFERENCES

- [1] Abd-el-Jawad, H. (1985). Linguistics and socio-cultural study of personal names in Jordan. *Anthropological Linguistics*, 28, 80-94.
- [2] Adomako, K. (2015). Truncation of some Akan personal names, GEMA Online ® *Journal of Language Studies*, 15(1), 143-162, <https://doi.org/17576/GEMA-2015-1501-09>. Retrieved on July 12, 2021.
- [3] Agyekum, K. (2006). The sociolinguistics of Akan personal names. *Nordic Journal of African Studies*, 15(1), 206-23.
- [4] Akinnaso, F. N. (1980). The sociolinguistic basis of Yokuba personal names. *Anthropological Linguistics*, 22(7), 275-305.
- [5] Alford, R. (1988). *Naming and identity: across – cultural study of personal naming practice*. New Haven, CT: Human relations area files.
- [6] Al-Qawasmī, A. & Al-Haq, F. (2016). A sociolinguistic study of choosing names for newborn children in Jordan. *International Journal of English Linguistics*, 6(1), 177- 186.
- [7] Al-Quran, M & Al-Azzam, B. (2014). Why named? A socio- cultural and translational view of proper names in Jordan. *International Journal of Humanities and Social Sciences*, 4(5), 103-113.
- [8] Aljbour, A. (2022). A sociolinguistic study of the implications of masculine personal names among Urban Communities in Jordan. *Language in India*, www.languageinindia.com. ISSN 1930-2940 22:4. Retrieved on January 20, 2023.
- [9] Aljbour, A. & Al-Haq, F. (2019). An investigation of feminine personal names in the Beni Sakhr tribe of Jordan: A Sociolinguistic Study. *International Journal of Linguistics*, 11(6), 41-66.
- [10] Al-Rawabdeh, A. (2010). *Maʿjam Alʿashaʿer Alurduneeh*. [Lexicon of Jordanian Clans]. Jordan: Jordan Journalism Foundation.
- [11] Al-Zumor, A. (2009). A socio-cultural and linguistic analysis of Yemen Arabic personal names. *GEMA Online Journal of Language Studies*, z, 15-27.
- [12] Antoun, R. (1968). On the significance of names in an Arab village. *Ethnology*, 7, 158-170.
- [13] Atawneh, A. (2005). Family names in Palestine: A reflection of culture and life. *Names: A Journal of Names*, 53(3), 147-167.
- [14] Baker, H. (1939). The family names of American Negros. *American Speech*, xiv: 3, 163-174.
- [15] Bani-Melhem, H. (2002). *Diversity of personal male nicknames in northern Jordan*. Master Thesis, Yarmouk University, Jordan.
- [16] Bardsley, C. (1915). *English surnames: Their source and signification*. London: Chatto Windus.
- [17] Bilcher, J. (2016). Names, bodies, and identities. *Sociology*, (50), 764-779. Doi: 10.1177/0038038515582157.
- [18] Bisilki, A. (2018). A study of personal names among the Bikipakpaam (the Konkomba) of Ghana: The linguistic, typology and paradigm shift. *Language Sciences*, 66:1557, <https://doi.org/10.1016/J.LANGSCI.2017.12.001>. Corpus ID: 149267846.
- [19] Bochstruck, L. (2013). *The names are the games: Onomatology and the genealogist*. Clearfield: Baltimon, Maryland.
- [20] Butkus, A. (1999). An outline and classification of Lithuanian nicknames. *Names: A Journal of Names*, 47, no. 2: 125-138.
- [21] *Cambridge Advanced Learner's Dictionary & Thesaurus*. (2019). Cambridge University Press.
- [22] Chetcuti, K. (2014). *Why most Maltese share the same 100 surnames*. [http://www.times of malta.com/article/view/2014020g/local/why-Most-Maltese-Share-The-same -100- Surnames](http://www.timesofmalta.com/article/view/2014020g/local/why-Most-Maltese-Share-The-same-100-Surnames). Retrieved on March 22, 2017.
- [23] Creider, L. (2007). Family names and cataloger. *Journal of library resources and technical services*, 51(4), 254-262.
- [24] Elias, N. (1991). *The society of Iparis*: s. Oxford: Blackwell.
- [25] Eslami- Raseken, A. & Ahmadvand, M. (2012). “What is in a Name? A short survey on the sources and factors affecting the act of name-giving”. *Journal of Sociological Research*, 3(2), 124-133.
- [26] Hanks, P & Hodges, F. (1988). *A dictionary of surnames*. Oxford: Oxford University Press.
- [27] Hazaymeh, O, Almutlaq, H & Al-Jawarneh, A. (2019). Typology of male forenames in Jordan: A sociocultural study”. *International Journal of Humanities and Social Science*, 9(8), 53-57.
- [28] Kandt, J. & Longley, P. (2018). Ethnicity estimation using family naming practices, *PloS ONE*, 13(8), e0201774. <https://doi.org/10.1371/journal.pone.0201774>. Retrieved on May 13, 2020.
- [29] Kaye, I. & Lance, D. (2002). Personal names in Palestine and Jordan: 1850-1996. *Onomastics*, 36, 25-48.
- [30] Koehn, S. (2015). Use of self-selected nicknames by female Kuwaiti students and their perceptions of the impact of nicknames upon their learning in the classroom. *Near and Middle Eastern Journal of Research in Education*, 2, 1-6.
- [31] Koul, O. (1995). *Personal names in Kashmiri*. In Omkar Koul (ed). *Sociolinguistics: Southern Asian perspective*. New Delhi: Creative Books.
- [32] Lewis, W. (2010). *What is your surname, the fascinating story of British surnames*. United Kingdom: Brazen Head Publishing.
- [33] Pappas, S. (2013). *Baby names reveal parents' political ideology*. Live Science Contributor.
- [34] Patterson, C. & Farr, R. (2017). What shall we call ourselves? Last names among lesbian, gay and heterosexual couples and their adopted children. *Journal of GLBT Family Studies*, 13, 97-113. Doi:10.1080/1550428x.2016.1169239. Retrieved on May 24, 2020.
- [35] Portner, P, H. (2005). *What is Meaning*. Blackwell Publishing Ltd. Library of Congress Cataloging in-Publication Data.
- [36] Rasul, k and Sherwani, K. (2014). Sectarian identity manifestation in Iraqi personal names”. *Journal of International Scientific Publications*, 8, 182-192.
- [37] Rosenhouse, J. (2002). Personal names in Hebrew and Arabic: Modern trends compared to the past. *Journal of Semantic Studies*, (7), 97-114.
- [38] Saadi, Z. (2006). *Behind the names: Etymology of Arabic names*. [http://www.basis –tech.com/knowledge-center/Arabic/behind –the Arabic-name.pdf](http://www.basis-tech.com/knowledge-center/Arabic/behind-the-Arabic-name.pdf)., Retrieved on February 24, 2007.
- [39] Tahat, A. (2014). *A socio-semantic study of family names in Jordan*. Master Thesis, Yarmouk University, Jordan.

- [40] Tahat, A. (2019). Parents' attitudes toward the practice of personal naming: A mixed method comparative study between urban and rural societies in northern Jordan. *E-Bangi Journal of Social Sciences and Humanities*, 16(8), 1-13.
- [41] Tahat, A. (2020). Morphological patterns of personal naming practice: A case study of non- concatenative Arabic language. *International Journal of Academic Research in Business and Social Sciences*, 10(6), 572-585.
- [42] Tushyeh, H., Lawson, E. & Rishmawi, G. (1989). Palestine first names: An introduction. *Names*, (37), 245-264.
- [43] Tushyeh, H. & Hamdallah, R. (1992). Palestinian surnames derived from nicknames. *Names*, 40(4), 237-252.
- [44] Tum, G. (2021). Turkish patronymic surnames ending with –oglu “son of”: A corpus linguistic investigation. *Names: A Journal of Names*, 69(2), 21-32.
- [45] Wardat, M. (1997). Nicknaming in Jordanian Arabic: A sociolinguistic perspective. *Interface: Journal of Applied Linguistics*, 12(1), 45-58.
- [46] Whissell, C. (2001). Sound and emotion in given names. *Names: A Journal of Names*, 49(2), 97-120.
- [47] Zhu, H. (2010). A cultural comparison of English Chinese family. *Asian Social Science*, 6(11), 227-251.



Muneera M. Jaradat is an Assistant Professor in the Department of English Language and Translation at Jadara University, Jordan. She holds a PhD in linguistics from the University of Jordan and a Master's in linguistics from Yarmouk University. Dr Jaradat's research interests include sociolinguistics, discourse analysis, gender and language, and phonology. At the university, she has taught English University Requirement Courses and Specialized English Courses of 200, 300, and 400 levels for students majoring in English. Regarding academic activities, she participated in several conferences, workshops, and seminars. Concerning publications, she has published six academic studies in referred Journals.

Female Existentialism in *Monkey Grip* by Helen Garner

Burhanuddin Arafah

English Department, Faculty of Cultural Sciences, Hasanuddin University, Makassar, Indonesia

Delukman Asri

Polytechnic of LP3I Makassar, Indonesia

Waode Hanafiah

English Education Study Program, Universitas Dayanu Ikhsanuddin (Unidayan) Baubau, Indonesia

Ruslin

English Study Program, State Islamic University of Datokarama Palu, Indonesia

Nur Ilmi

Akademi Sekretari dan Manajemen (Aksema) Atmajaya Makassar, Indonesia

Alifiah Pratiwi

English Education Study Program, Faculty of Teacher Training and Education, Sembilanbelas November University of Kolaka, Indonesia

Susi Astiantih

English Education Study Program, Faculty of Teacher Training and Education, Sembilanbelas November University of Kolaka, Indonesia

Abstract—This study aimed to analyze female existentialism in Helen Garner's "Monkey Grip" using a descriptive qualitative method. In this context, the data obtained were carefully reviewed, presented, and analyzed through stylistic analysis. The results showed that female existentialism was expressed in two patterns. Firstly, the female speech was similar to the male, accompanied by the open expression of sexual desires and male circle words. Secondly, female actions contained the feminine movement to overcome discrimination problems and interact with many males. The results showed that the female character was considered a feminist representative against male stereotypes.

Index Terms—man, woman, existentialism, sentence, stylistics

I. INTRODUCTION

The social phenomena of language are connected to many facets of human life due to its relation to several symbols, opinions, and other relevant properties (Jourdan & Tuite, 2006, p. 17). The existence of characters is closely related to the cultural aspects of social life (Hasyim et al., 2023; Takwa et al., 2024, p. 763). According to Arafah and Hasyim (2019, p. 571), a language system and linguistic functions were investigated, with the primary focus being on the interaction of conversations (speech actions) between the sender (speaker) and receiver (interlocutor) in the context of emoji pragmatics. This explorative analysis included how people read, interpret, and react to a linguistic or text (Arafah & Hasyim, 2023a, p. 20). Since language is connected to many facets of human life, communication, interpretation, and thinking usage can increase effectively (Arafah & Hasyim, 2023b, p. 3944; Arafah et al., 2023, p. 113). Furthermore, communication using spoken and unspoken language has changed in line with the existence of digital media (Hasyim & Arafah, 2023a, p. 96). This shows that internet users can exchange messages easily through chats as a communication medium (Hasyim & Arafah, 2023b, p. 220; Yudith et al., 2024, p. 826).

Gender discrimination or sexist language is also observed when society implements dialect to pressure females, a phenomenon not equally applied to males. Since language is considered a carrier of ideas, it is essential in overcoming ineffective communication. This proves that the solution to inefficient interactions emphasizes the mutual understanding of speakers and listeners by adhering to agreed logical rules (Yulianti et al., 2022, p. 189). Language must also comply with grammatical standards and context to prevent misunderstandings and misinterpretations (Anggrawan et al., 2019, p. 1; Kuswanty et al., 2023, p. 1474). In this context, culture is significant in ensuring a shared understanding of the spoken language tradition between the speaker and the listener (Arafah et al., 2023, p. 168;

Kaharuddin et al., 2021, p. 79).

Based on Robin Lakoff in Cuellar (2006, p. 1), a hypothesis was explored, with females traditionally dominated in the environment due to linguistic rules. These rules included the expectations that daughters do not ask (should obtain things) and are forbidden to be rough (should speak politely). In this case, the existence of females emphasized the awareness of the societal position. Sartre (2007, p. 4) also formulated awareness into two types, namely *lecture-en-soi* (being in itself) and *l'etrepour-soi* (being for itself). From this context, *letra-en-soi* prioritized inanimate nouns, such as animals and trees, which should not express activeness, negativity, or resistance against the primary societal roles.

Meanwhile, the concept of *l'etrepour-soi* focused on the self-development of human lives. For example, the existence of an individual was purposeful when considered a tree among other plantations, indicating the absence of issues due to being smoothly integrated into the world. Regarding the expression of a self-aware human being, the individual is situated in this world despite the present state (Sartre, 2007, p. 77). Simone de Beauvoir (1989, p. 1), in *Second Sex*, also argued that female existentialism focused on the relevant actions of females, emphasizing the following question, "What is a female?". This proved that the interactions between males and females showed existentialism activities by implementing stylistics. Many issues, including domination, sex, liberty, inequality, independence, slavery, female rights, and male wishes, were connected to females (Afiah et al., 2022, p. 214).

Contextual stylistics analysis subsequently identified more than a text, focusing on the similarity with several aspects of human life, such as gender. This was in line with Bradford in Nurgiyantoro (2017, p. 83), where cultural perspective and ideology were essential in stylistics. Feminists also proved that text (language) characters exhibited a sociocultural hierarchy dominated by males capable of controlling style and meaning (Nurgiyantoro, 2017, p. 82). Furthermore, stylistics analyzes literary works, where sentences commonly portray reality. In this context, the implemented type often interested readers (Asriyanti et al., 2022, p. 790; Ismail et al., 2020, p. 293). This style commonly prioritizes using signs and symbols or figurative language, such as metaphor (Baa et al., 2023, p. 132; Kaharuddin et al., 2022, p. 50). The implementation of characters subsequently focuses on representing various meanings perceived by interpreters (Hasjim et al., 2020, p. 2271; Iksora et al., 2022, p. 2461). This explains that the reference to specific symbols is embedded in the mental connection of the interpreter to the object, event, or fact indicated by a sign (Takwa et al., 2022, p. 983). Signs and symbols in semiotics also serve as the distinctive branding or identity of specific sociocultural environments (Hasyim et al., 2020, p. 4). Moreover, the connotation is a social or symbolic meaning constructed by the public (Arafah et al., 2020). In this case, literature portrays language as a significant component of an artwork using aesthetic elements (Manugeran et al., 2023, p. 1321).

Letters, languages, and actions are also explained by literature (Fadillah et al., 2022, p. 66), which focuses on writing about new and old cases within a literary composition (Yudith et al., 2023, p. 108). According to Pradopo in Mursalim (2019, p. 271), literary writings were commonly performed by writers closely related to society and culture. This was due to the expression of culture through language as a part of human life records (Arifin et al., 2022, p. 2696). The cultural values in every literary work were also a guideline for an excellent attitude to the readers (Takwa et al., 2022, p. 1602). Moreover, literature can connect with various elements, enabling the incomprehensibility of the real meaning. This was in line with Connors (2010, p. 57), where literature often shared its secret quickly. Literary works are also connected to the social conditions in human life (Suhadi et al., 2020, p. 1216), possessing a societal purpose where life is portrayed within public reality (Arafah et al., 2023, p. 1414). These works commonly express the actual and non-actual reality of human life in fiction (Mutmainnah et al., 2022, p. 350; Sunyoto et al., 2022, p. 2551), playing an essential role in showing the cultural values of society influencing other people during reading activities (Mokoginta & Arafah, 2022, p. 691). Furthermore, anthropological linguistics believes a sentence or discourse will have meaning and precise information with the presence of its condition (Arafah et al., 2020, p. 1594). This was similar to Arafah and Kaharuddin (2019, p. 504), where the connections between sentences and society were expressed, analyzing the patterns by which norms and habits increased cultural interaction. In this case, literature was considered a source of cultural norms describing reality (Sunardi et al., 2018, p. 318).

Monkey Grip is subsequently considered a novel prioritizing the status of women in the family, with the main character experiencing discrimination. This was explained by Pierce (2009), whereas Helen Garner's (1977) *Monkey Grip* was commonly considered a symbol of the feminist movement. The novel was also sold to construct a female life and was eagerly read by many people, advocating for the positions of identificatory people (Webby, 2000, p. 199). In this context, Garner *Monkey Grip* literature had several positive factors for the reader's knowledge as an ordinary mirror of human life (Arafah et al., 2021, p. 936). This was due to forcing the writer to be more imaginative in developing novels connected to real problems within the community (Siwi et al., 2022, p. 1279; Kaharuddin, 2022, p. 274) while describing female interaction (Asri et al., 2023, p. 1656). Therefore, this study aims to examine female existentialism using stylistic analysis, specifically in Australian literature. Language (or a style) is also implemented to describe females because feminism and dialect, as communication tools, are both societal issues.

II. LITERATURE REVIEW

A. Existentialism

According to Sartre (2007, p. 40), the statement of Descartes about human existentialism was protested, leading to the following remade idea, "*I exist and I am thinking*". This explained that the existence of humans was considered due to the

ability to "think", showing that people only lived when thinking was implemented. Despite the explanation, existence was impossible when humans were considered non-believers (Yunus, 2011, p. 268; Usman et al., 2024, p. 889). This concept of "thinking" only focused on the function of humans, whose existence ceased when the ability to think was absent. It also narrowed various relevant definitions, leading to the following questions: (1) What is thinking? and (2) What should thinking be? In addition, the concept was designed by societal perceptions, prioritizing a sign that humanity was not accessible.

Existence also allowed humans to be authentic, regarding the exploitation of individual perception. From this context, the impact of humans, concerning essence, focused on the correlation with societal norms. Based on Sartre (2007, p. 481), the necessity for appropriate consciousness was evaluated, prioritizing the independent positions of people. In the book *Being and Nothingness*, Sartre stated, "*I exist in my body: this is the first dimension of being*" (1956, p. 351). This showed that every individual should exist or be first before the consideration and understanding of authenticity.

Discrimination was subsequently considered the primary challenge of freedom and humanism. Amartya Sen explained this in the book entitled "*Inequality Reexamined*", where the following concepts of freedom were mentioned: (1) the extent of attainment and (2) the capacity to reach (Sen, 1992, p. 31). From this context, the people with no adequate capabilities needed more space, accompanied by considering opportunities enabling people to determine their lives without any external intervention (Sen, 2002, p. 10). Therefore, people without adequate capabilities or knowledge were not accessible due to their inability to make good decisions. In this case, consciousness was similar to capability in Sen concept, as described by Sartre. This showed that both ideas focused on the foundation of humans, as freedom was commonly achieved with the existence of freedom.

B. Feminism

The cooperation of females and males was expected to maintain society without gender dominance. This suggestion was considered due to the typical domination of females by males.

According to Mill in Arivia (2003, p. 54), justice was often absent when one community or gender dominated another. From this context, people were expected to advocate for equality between males and females during the demand for liberty. Purwaningsih et al. (2020, p. 1) also stated that each perspective related to the psychology of relation between males and females was influenced mainly by ego and social interaction. In this case, women and men should learn to work together, specifically in a big or small community. Furthermore, Taylor argued that sameness was significant for evaluating the female position (Rowbotham, 1992, p. 68). This emphasized the importance of identifying the different rights of both genders, which should not be wrongfully equated.

Women were commonly framed as flawed characters in several literary activities, with only a few participating in literary events. For example, Anne Bradstreet (1612-1672) was the only female author who wrote about the feelings of females in poetry during the early days of American literature. However, the female community could not be represented because the published poems focused on loving the husband (Miller et al., 1979, p. 119). Jane Austen (1775-1817) was a famous female writer whose literary works connected reality and love.

C. Stylistics

Language was highly considered a communication tool and social function, although Lecercle argued that no individual understood or cared about stylistics (1993, p. 14). This was because only several students were initially interested in implementing styles, with the situation changing periodically. The shift of needs in learning stylistics also academically increased due to the era development and the existence of easily acquired compatible materials (Arafah et al., 2023, p. 17). The absence of a positive learning attitude causes students to lose motivation in learning and developing skills (Kaharuddin et al., 2023, p. 436). Furthermore, only a few university students strongly desired to pursue the analysis of stylistics (Simpson, 2004, p. 2). It can be caused by the fact that academic students are required to write intellectual essays where language style is unnecessary (Mardiana et al., 2023; Kaharuddin et al., 2024, p. 270). This led to the writing constraints of students needing more relevant strategies (Arnawa & Arafah, 2023, p. 690; Arafah et al., 2024, p. 249). The statement of Lecercle was also wrong at the beginning of the twentieth century, as various higher institutions taught and analyzed stylistics in language or literature studies (Simpson, 2004, p. 2; Halil et al., 2024, p. 963). Besides emphasizing diction or language style, stylistics could also exhibit social problems. This was in line with the evaluation of a statistician, where sentences or phrases were identified as essential items of the text function from several parts, systems, and linguistic features. In this context, the text was portrayed as a step implemented for appropriate interpretation (Simpson, 2004, p. 2). Various linguists also argued that stylistics only analyzed the structure of literary works without considering relations with other aspects.

III. STUDY METHODOLOGY

A descriptive qualitative method was experimentally implemented to deeply identify an object (Arafah & Hasyim, 2019). In this analysis, the 245-page *Monkey Grip* novel written by Helen Garner and published by McPhee Gribble in 1977 was analyzed. Based on the data collection process, the information related to feminism and existentialism issues was recorded from the selected databases. Stylistics analysis was subsequently conducted on the obtained data, accompanied by a library survey, where several books, journals, and articles were consulted to acquire supplementary

information (Abidin & Kaharuddin, 2021, p. 7).

A primary data source was also implemented to acquire information, with the Monkey Grip novel repeatedly read and analyzed. The aspect of female freedom was highly assessed from a stylistic perspective during the reading process. In the acquisition of data, the following procedures were conducted:

1. Reading the Monkey Grip novel many times to understand the issues of females.
2. Presenting the data through the stylistics analysis.
3. Analyzing the data obtained, existentialism and feminism were used to determine the movement of females toward the achievement of existence in the novel.
4. Implementing the stylistics analysis to define female existentialism, emphasizing the patterns by which females were asserted during male discrimination. The description method of female existentialism problems was also determined through stylistics, a linguistic style.

IV. FINDING AND DISCUSSION

A. Results

1. *I had not fucked for a long time* (Garner, 1977, p. 57).

Good female was commonly framed to speak politely and avoided talking about sex freely. However, Nora broke the rule of females by openly speaking on sexual matters without restrictions. This showed that females were limited to speaking freely, compared to males with unlimited freedom.

2. *I'm really pissed off with you. I don't like the way you burst in here tonight* (Garner, 1977, p. 83).

Nora, the female character, bravely spoke to Javo about the grievances experienced, which were not boldly expressed initially due to the fear of losing the man. Despite the woman's high-level love for Javo, several ignorance and violations were always encountered.

3. *I love you a real lot, but I cannot live with you when you are like this* (Garner, 1977, p. 87).

Nora was in a dilemma because she needed to leave the man she loved, Javo. This showed that the woman encountered many bad situations by following her feelings. In this case, leaving was the right way to show that she loved herself more than the man.

4. *Well, fuck him* (Garner, 1977, p. 90).

Nora describes her power in action and sentence by speaking, such as male and deciding to leave Javo.

5. *I miss you, and I miss fucking with you* (Garner, 1977, p. 118).

Nora did not obey the rule of male to be polite, as her demand to *fuck* was openly and freely stated. Although the situation was unusual for many people, the women's demands were still not met.

6. *That is OK. I have enough for both of us* (Garner, 1977, p. 232).

Nora showed bravery in stopping her relationship with her toxic boyfriend, Javo. Despite the initial weakness restraining her freedom to decide, the woman still summoned the courage to speak openly after acquiring much discrimination.

7. *Enough of you, Javo, and your death. I've had enough. Now, if only I can live that out. Enough. I will gather my strength* (Garner, 1977, p. 135).

Nora stopped caring about the death of Javo, due to being sure of living without him by acquiring her strength. In this case, the woman became sufficiently free to leave the man.

8. *Whenever he touched cunt, the clitoris seemed to be in the exact spot where he first came in contact with my flesh* (Garner, 1977, p. 210).

Nora described her feelings when she made love with Javo. Although women were not allowed to talk about sexual activities freely, Nora still openly deliberated on her experience. This showed that the woman was not limited to expressing her desire for sex.

9. *It was the first time I had felt cheerful in days. I sang to myself* (Garner, 1977, p. 224).

After leaving Javo, Nora felt free and enjoyed her days beautifully. However, the feelings did not provide a better life because the man only obtained her money, room, and body without any special friend treatment.

10. *However, I just want to make it clear that it's cool if you don't. I wouldn't freak out if you did not* (Garner, 1977, p. 233).

This conversation showed that Nora did not depend on Javo anymore, as a free woman was expected to avoid the discrimination of a man bravely.

B. Discussions

(a). Female Sentence

Based on the novel, Nora used masculine language when expressing the demand for touching (sex). This language was observed through the following expressions, (1) *I had not fucked for a long time* (Garner, 1977, p. 57), (2) *I miss you, and I miss fucking with you* (Garner, 1977, p. 118), and (3) *Whenever he touched cunt, clitoris seemed to be in the exact spot where he first came in contact with my flesh* (Garner, 1977, p. 210). From this context, the opinions of Nora on sexual activity were freely and openly expressed without restrictions. People also believed that females should speak

politely without sharing the same speaking freedom as males. This belief emphasized the restrictions on females openly speaking about *sexual activities*.

Furthermore, Nora expressed the lack of sexual activity by saying, "*I haven't fucked for weeks.*" In this context, the woman went against the popular belief that female was prohibited from expressing erotic feelings. This was because society believed that male was only allowed to discuss sexual events, compared to females freely. Nora also described the events boldly, accompanied by the continuous admission of several "*fucking*" moments with a friend known as Clive. However, the woman missed Javo in terms of lovemaking by providing the following statement, "*I miss you, and I miss fucking with you*". This opinion was honestly and boldly stated, admitting to craving sexual activities with Javo.

Nora subsequently explained the feelings when touched by a man through the following expression, "*Whenever he touched cunt, the clitoris seemed to be in the exact spot where he first came in contact with my flesh*" (Garner, 1977, p. 210). This opinion was honestly expressed in a society that limited the speaking ability of females. Since the sentence did not belong to the woman, a female character was often framed to ignore sharing the speech capabilities of a man. Therefore, a feminine character (Nora) shows a masculine speaking capability in the *Monkey Grip* novel, using the words, vagina and clitoris to express sexual feelings. This showed that females are likely to openly and freely express emotions similarly to males.

(b). Female Actions

According to the *Monkey Grip* novel, strength and determination were shown by Nora to live without male control. These characteristics were expressed through several steps, such as the desire to leave Javo and fight against gender discrimination. In this novel, Nora, a single mother with one daughter, lives in a house and works for a better life, as the absence of a husband ensures the daily struggle for money. The woman could also survive without a man because her previous love life with a male was experienced without the support and adequate affection. From this context, Nora expressed a vital opinion by being authentic and leaving Javo, maintaining an excellent reputation toward life and circle benefits. Despite being a powerful and independent female, emulating the existence of the masculine gender was still impossible. This was because gender equality did not require women imitating men, as both genders had equal access to a happy life without discrimination. In this case, Nora felt free and happy without loving or having feelings for anyone due to his ability to resist masculine discrimination as a strong woman.

The novel also shows that Nora enjoyed her time alone by *dancing* and *crying (happiness)* at home. Subsequently, the woman was described as not caring anymore, even after the demise of Javo, through the following statement, "*Enough of you, Javo, and your death. I've had enough*" (Garner, 1977, p. 135). "*I will gather my strength*" also showed that Nora fought against the self-weakness portrayed, focusing on the high level of love for Javo and accepting all the attached stereotypes. In addition, the woman expressed freedom and exhibited masculine speaking abilities without male dependence by saying, "*Well, fuck him.*" These characteristics allowed Nora to overcome the self-weaknesses exhibited due to the freedom from Javo's grip and discrimination.

V. CONCLUSION

In conclusion, Nora did not show several limitations when speaking similarly to men in the *Monkey Grip* novel. This was due to the woman's usage of the words implemented by the masculine gender regarding the open and free expression of sexual desires. The novel also showed that Nora was not limited to interacting with other males after leaving Javo. In this case, female language style was observed in both action and sentence during masculine existentialism. This feminine action consists of Nora's movement to overcome the problems encountered by Javo's discrimination.

Meanwhile, the sentence aspect showed the patterns by which the woman used male language style to express personal ideas. The representation of the female character in a feminist movement was also described in two methods: (1) speaking without limitations and (2) standing with no dependence on male existence. In this novel, Nora serves as a feminist representative who challenges male dominance. This result was observed through the implementation of stylistics analysis to identify the specific elements capable of showing the character's speech and actions.

REFERENCES

- [1] Abidin & Kaharuddin. (2021). Analysis of Syariah Credit Card from Islamic Economic Perspective: Evidence from BNI Bank in Indonesia. *Academy of Strategic Management Journal*, 20(4S), 1–11.
- [2] Afiah, N., Arafah, B., & Abbas, H. (2022). Burmese Women Portrait under the British Imperialism in Orwell's Burmese Days. *Journal of Language Teaching and Research*, 13(1), 213-219.
- [3] Anggrawan, A., Yassi, A.H., Satria, C., Arafah, B., & Makka, H.M. (2019). Comparison of Online Learning versus Face-to-Face Learning in English Grammar Learning. *5th International Conference on Computing Engineering and Design (ICCED)*, 1-4.
- [4] Arafah, B., Thayyib, M., Kaharuddin, & Sahib, H. (2020). An Anthropological Linguistic Study on Maccera' Bulung Ritual. *Opcion*, 35(24), 1592-1606.
- [5] Arafah, B., Abbas, H., & Hikmah, N. (2021). Saving the Environmental Lessons in Colin Thiele's February Dragon. *Journal of Language and Research*, 12(6), 935-941.
- [6] Arafah, B. & Hasyim, M. (2019). Linguistic Functions of Emoji in Social Media Communication. *Opcion*, 35(24), 558-574.

- [7] Arafah, B. & Hasyim, M. (2023a). Digital Literacy: The Right Solution to Overcome the Various Problems of Meaning and Communication on Social Media. *Studies in Media and Communication*, 11(4), 19-30.
- [8] Arafah, B. & Hasyim, M. (2023b). Digital Literacy on Current Issues in Social Media: Social Media as a Source of Information. *Journal of Theoretical and Applied Information Technology*, 101(10), 3943-3951.
- [9] Arafah, B., Hasyim, M., Khaerana, A.S.A., Soraya, A.I., Ramadhani, R., Ismail, A., & Takwa. (2023). The Digital Culture Literacy of Generation Z Netizens as Readers, Producers and Publishers of Text on Social Media. *International Journal of Intelligent Systems and Applications in Engineering*, 11(3), 112-123.
- [10] Arafah, B. & Kaharuddin. (2019). The Representation of Complaints in English and Indonesian Discourses. *Opcion*, 35(24), 501-517.
- [11] Arafah, B., Kaharuddin, Hasjim, M., Arafah, A.N.B., Takwa, & Karimuiddin. (2023). Cultural Relations among Speakers of SouthHalmahera Languages. *Theory and Practice in Language Studies*, 13(1), 168-174.
- [12] Arafah, B., Rofikah, U., Kaharuddin, A., Room, F., Takwa, & Purwarno, P. (2023). Evaluating the Suitability of Printed Materialsin the Context of Online Learning. *XLinguae*, 16(2), 16-32.
- [13] Arafah, B., Room, F., Suryadi, R., La Ode Muhammad Idrus Hamid, B., & Juniardi, Y. (2024). Character Education Values in Pullman's The Golden Compass. *Journal of Language Teaching and Research*, 15(1), 246-254.
- [14] Arafah, B., Sirajuddin, J., Thayyib, M., Room, F., Takwa, & Anayati, W. (2023). Emotional Management of Defoe's *RobinsonCrusoe*'s Main Character. *Journal of Language Teaching and Research*, 14(5), 1414-1421.
- [15] Arafah, K., Arafah, A.N.B., & Arafah, B. (2020). Self-Concept and Self-Efficacy's Role in Achievement Motivation and PhysicsLearning Outcomes. *Opción*, 36(27), 1607-1623.
- [16] Arifin, M. B., Arafah, B., & Kuncara, S.D. (2022). Dayak's Sociocultural Situation through Locality in Lumholtz's Through Central Borneo Travel Writing. *Theory and Practice in Language Studies*, 12(12), 2695-2703.
- [17] Trivia, G. (2003). *Filsafat Berperspektif Feminis* [Feminist Perspective Philosophy]. Jakarta: Yayasan Jurnal Perempuan.
- [18] Arnawa, I. G. N. E. V. & Arafah, B. (2023). Students' Self-Regulated Strategies in Approaching Second Language Writing. *Theory and Practice in Language Studies*, 13(3), 690-696.
- [19] Asri, D., Arafah, B., Sahib, H., & Abbas, H. (2023). Male Domination in Helen Garner's Monkey Grip. *Theory and Practice in Language Studies*, 13(7). 1651-1658.
- [20] Asriyanti, S., Arafah, B., & Abbas, H. (2022). The Representation of Women's Dependence on Men in Little Women. *Theory and Practice in Language Studies*, 12(4), 790-796.
- [21] Baa, S., Wardani, S. B., Iskandar, Weda, S., & Arafah, B. (2023). Lexical Metaphors in Westlife's Selected Song Lyrics. *XLinguae*, 16(1), 132-154.
- [22] Beauvoir, D. S. (2010). *The Second Sex*. New York: Vintage Books.
- [23] Connor, C. (2010). *Literary Theory*. England: OneWorld Publications.
- [24] Cuéllar, Sergio Bolaños. (2006). Women's language: a struggle to overcome inequality. *Forma Y Funci ón*, 19, 137-162.
- [25] Fadillah, N., Arafah, B., & Abbas, H. (2022). The Act of Slavery in the 20th Century as Reflected in Samuel Beckett's Waiting for Godot. *Journal of Language Teaching and Research*, 13(1), 66-72.
- [26] Garner, H. (1977). *Monkey Grip*. Australia: Penguin Books Ltd.
- [27] Halil, N.I., Arafah, B., Saputra., G. P. E., Hasyim., R. S., Sarmadan., Takwa., & Karma, R. (2024). Preservation of Tolaki Mekongga Language Through Merdeka Curriculum-Based Local Subject Teaching Modules. *Journal of Language Teaching and Research*, 15(3), 960-971.
- [28] Hasjim, M., Arafah, B., Kaharuddin, Verlin, S., & Genisa, R. A. A. (2020). Principles behind Semantic Relation between Common Abbreviations and their Expansions on Instagram. *International Journal of Criminology and Sociology*, 9, 2270-2276.
- [29] Hasyim, M. & Arafah, B. (2023a). Semiotic Multimodality Communication in the Age of New Media. *Studies in Media and Communication*, 11(1), 96-103.
- [30] Hasyim, M. & Arafah, B. (2023b). Social Media Text Meaning: Cultural Information Consumption. *WSEAS Transactions onInformation Science and Applications*, 20(2023), 220-227.
- [31] Hasyim, M., Arafah, B., & Kuswarini, P. (2020). The New Toraja Destination: Adding Value 'Toraja Coffee' of the Sustainable Tourism Development. *IOP Conference Series: Earth and Environmental Science*, 575(1), 1-10.
- [32] Hasyim, M., Arafah, B., Kuswarini, P., Masdiana, Saleh, F., Lisani, M., & Sukmal, A.F. (2023). Humane Coffee: Meaning Symbolic Interaction of a Cup of Coffee. *Migration Letters*, 20(S5), 1095-1105.
- [33] Iksora, Arafah, B., Syafruddin, S., Muchtar, J., & Lestari, P.A. (2022). Typos' Effects on Web-Based Programming Code Output: A Computational Linguistics Study. *Theory and Practice in Language Studies*, 12(11), 2460-2469.
- [34] Ismail., Sunubi, A. H., Halidin, A., & Kaharuddin, A. (2020). Paraphrasing Technique to Develop Skill for English Writing among Indonesian College Students of English. *Sys Rev Pharm*, 11(11), 291-297.
- [35] Jourdan, C. & Tuite, K. (2006). *Language, Culture and Society: Key Topics in Linguistic Anthropology*. New York: Cambridge University Press.
- [36] Kaharuddin. (2022). E-Learning During the COVID-19 Outbreak: The Effect of the Grammar Translation Method and the Direct Method on Students' English Competence. *Journal of Language Teaching and Research*, 3(2), 271-278.
- [37] Kaharuddin., Ahmad, D., Mardiana, M., & Rusni, R. (2021). Contributions of Technology, Culture, and Attitude to English Learning Motivation during Covid-19 Outbreaks. *Systematic Reviews in Pharmacy*, 11(11). 76-84.
- [38] Kaharuddin, Mardiana, N., Ahmad, D., Sari, A.A.I. (2022). Examining the Skill in Writing Descriptive Text among Indonesian Learners of English: The Effects of Task-Based Language Teaching (TBLT). *Journal of Language Teaching and Research*, 13(1), 46-57.
- [39] Kaharuddin, Ahmad, D., Mardiana., Latif, I., Arafah, B., & Suryadi, R. (2024). Defining the Role of Artificial Intelligence in Improving English Writing Skills among Indonesian Students. *Journal of Language Teaching and Research*, 15(2), 568-678.
- [40] Kaharuddin, Arafah, B., Nurpahmi, S., Sukmawaty, Rahman, I.F., & Juniardi, Y. (2023). Exploring How Reading Aloud and Vocabulary Enrichment Shape English Speaking Skills Among Indonesian Learners of English. *World Journal of English Language*, 13(8), 436-445.

- [41] Kuswanty, W.H., Arafah, B., Budiman, A.N.A., Ali, T., Fatsah, H., & Room, F. (2023). Students' Perception of Explicit and Implicit Methods in Learning Tenses in SMP DDI Mangkoso. *Theory and Practice in Language Studies*, 13(6), 1473-1482.
- [42] Lakoff, R. (1973). *Language and Woman's Place*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.
- [43] Lecercle, J. J. (1993). The Current State of Stylistics. *The European English Messenger*, 2(1), 14-18.
- [44] Manugeran, M., Arafah, B., Purwarno, P., Siwi, P., Ekalestari, S., & Wulan, S. (2023). An Ecoliterature Approach to Environmental Conservation: Take Four Selected Literary Works as Examples. *Theory and Practice in Language Studies*, 13(5), 1318-1327.
- [45] Mardiana, Arafah, B., Ahmad, D., Kaharuddin, Room, F., & Barus, E. (2023). Time Allocation Effect on Test Scores for Academic Writing of Indonesian English Learners. *Journal of Language Teaching and Research*, 14(6), 1628-1636.
- [46] Miller, Jr. et al. (1979). *United States in Literature*. Illinois: Scott, Foresman and Company.
- [47] Mokoginta, K. & Arafah, B. (2022). Negotiation in Indonesian Culture: A Cultural Linguistic Analysis of Bahasa Indonesia Textbooks. *Theory and Practice in Language Studies*, 12(4), 691-701.
- [48] Mutmainnah, Arafah, B., & Pattu, A. (2022). Racial Discrimination Experienced by Black People as Reflected in Langston Hughes's Poems. *Journal of Language Teaching and Research*, 13(2), 350-356.
- [49] Mursalim. (2019). A Sociological Approach of Literature in Short Story Senyum yang Kekal bt Korrie Layun Rampan. *Proceedings of the 28th International Conference on Literature: Literature as a Source of Wisdom, 2019*, pp. 270-276.
- [50] Nurgiyantoro, B. (2017). *Stilistika*. Yogyakarta: Gadjah Mada University Press.
- [51] Pierce, P. (2009). *The Cambridge History of Australian Literature*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.
- [52] Purwaningsih, Y. R., Arafah, B., & Abbas, H. (2020). An ambition of infidelity "Emma Bovary" as wife: Sexuality Problems. *Medicina Cl nica Pr áctica*, 3(S1), 100108. 1-3.
- [53] Rowbotham, S. (1992). *Women in Movement*. New York: Routledge.
- [54] Sartre, J. P. (2007). *Existentialism is a Humanism*. The United States of America: Yale University Press.
- [55] Sen, A. (1992). *Inequality Reexamined*. New York: Oxford University.
- [56] Sen, A. (2002). *Rationally and Freedom*. United States of America: Harvard University Press.
- [57] Simpson, P. (2004). *Stylistics*. New York: Routledge.
- [58] Siwi, P., Arafah, B., Wulan, S., Purwarno, P., Ekalestari, S., & Arafah, A.N.B. (2022). Treatment of Nature: An Ecocriticism Approach in 'Komat Kamit' of Tejo and Kamba's Tuhan Maha Asik. *Theory and Practice in Language Studies*, 12(7), 1278-1285.
- [59] Suhadi, J., Arafah, B., Makatita, F.P., Abbas, H., & Arafah, A.N.B. (2022). Science and Society: The Impact of Science Abuse on Social Life in Well's The Invisible Man. *Theory and Practice in Language Studies*, 12(6), 1214-1219.
- [60] Sunardi, Akil, M., Arafah, B., & Salija, K. (2018). Looking at the Shared Conception of Teaching Literature in an Indonesian ELT Setting. *Journal of Language Teaching and Research*, 9(2), 316-327.
- [61] Sunyoto, F.G., Arafah, B., Yudith, M., Mokodompit, G.P., & Asnawi, A. E. F. (2022). The Native American Father's Parenting Style in John Ernst Steinbeck's The Pearl. *Theory and Practice in Language Studies*, 12(12), 2551-2558.
- [62] Takwa, Arafah, B., Sopiandy, D., Taqfiah, S. J., & Arafah, A.N.B. (2022). Humanistic Values in Metaphoric Expressions of Traditional Marriage in Tolaki Mekongga Kolaka. *Theory and Practice in Language Studies*, 12(8), 1602-1608.
- [63] Takwa, Arafah, B., Kaharuddin, Putra, E., Masrur, & Arafah, A.N.B. (2022). The Shift of Lexicon in Traditional Technology System in Tolaki Community at Konawe District of Southeast Sulawesi. *Theory and Practice in Language Studies*, 12(5), 980-989.
- [64] Takwa., Arafah, B., Hasyim, M., & Akhmar, A. M. (2024). Cultural Imagery of Tolaki Mekongga Community of Kolaka in Mowindahako Ritual. *Theory and Practice in Language Studies*, 14(3), 763-770.
- [65] Usman, S., Arafah, B., Marhum, M., Munir, S., Budi., & Tadeko, N. (2024). The Effect of Technological Pedagogical Content Knowledge (TPACK) on Rural Area Students' English Writing. *Journal of Language Teaching and Research*, 15(3), 884-892. <https://doi.org/10.17507/jltr.1503.21>
- [66] Webby, E. (2000). *Australian Literature*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.
- [67] Yudith, M., Arafah, B., Abbas, H., Jaelani, A., Sunyoto, F.G., Arafah, A., N. B. (2024). Social Issues during the Victorian Era Lead to the Formation of Nice Girl Syndrome in Gaskell's Ruth. *Journal of Language Teaching and Research*, 15(3), 822-832. <https://doi.org/10.17507/jltr.1503.15>
- [68] Yudith, M., Arafah, B., Sunyoto, F.G., Fitriani, Rostan, R.B., & Nurdin, F.E. (2023). The Representation of Animalism Issue in Sewell's Black Beauty. *Theory and Practice in Language Studies*, 13(1), 108-116.
- [69] Yulianti, S., Arafah, B., Rofikah, U., Idris, A.M.S., Samsur, N., Arafah, A.N.B. (2022). Conversational Implicatures on Saturday Night Live Talk Show. *Journal of Language Teaching and Research*, 13(1), 189-197.
- [70] Yunus, F. M. (2011). Kebebasan dalam Filsafat Eksistensialisme Jean Paul Sartre (Freedom in the Existentialist Philosophy of JeanPaul Sartre. *Jurnal Al-Ulum*, 11, 267-282.



Burhanuddin Arafah obtained his PhD in English literature at the University of Newcastle, Australia, in 2003. He earned his Master's degree in American literature at Gadjah Mada University (UGM) Yogyakarta of Indonesia in 1995 and his Bachelor's degree in English literature at Hasanuddin University (UNHAS) in 1988.

He is currently a full professor of English literature at the English Literature Study Program, Faculty of Cultural Sciences of UNHAS, Indonesia. He has published eight books in English and literature and more than 70 research articles ranked in international journals published in English. He also has received 26 Intellectual Property Right Certificates from the Indonesian government.

His areas of interest are English literature, language education, and cultural studies. He was the Dean of the Faculty of Cultural Sciences of UNHAS from 2009-2017. He is actively involved at the National Accreditation Board-Higher Education, Ministry of Education and Culture of the Republic of Indonesia in his position as Assessor.



Delukman Asri obtained his Doctoral degree in Linguistics at Hasanuddin University (UNHAS). He completed her Bachelor's in English Language Education at Alauddin State Islamic University of Makassar (UIN Alauddin Makassar) in 2012. He earned his Master's in English Language Studies at Hasanuddin University (UNHAS) in 2015. His scholarly interests include English Language Teaching, Academic Writing, Semantics, Stylistics, Literature, Culture, and Feminism. His current publications are "Woman Language in *Blue is the Warmest Colour* movie" and "Male Domination in Helen Garner's *Monkey Grip* published in *Theory and Practice in Language Studies* (2023). He is a speaker in some feminist seminars.



Waode Hanafiah obtained her Doctoral Degree in Linguistics at Hasanuddin University (UNHAS) Makassar in 2011; she completed her Magister Degree in English Language Study at Hasanuddin University in 2000 and her Bachelor's Degree in English Language Study, Faculty of Letters at Hasanuddin University in 1986. She is a Professor in English education at Universitas Dayanu Ikhsanuddin (Unidayan) Baubau. She is active in conducting research. She has some international publications, such as *The Impact of CALL on Vocabulary Learning, Speaking Skill, and Foreign Language Speaking Anxiety: The Case Study of Indonesian EFL Learners* (2022) and *Syntactic Configuration of Code-Switching between Indonesian and English: Another Perspective on Code-Switching Phenomena* (2021). Besides, she has also published in accredited national journals, such as *Conventional Teaching and Interactive-Based Teaching Methods to Adjust Learners' Grammar and Speaking Competence in English Classrooms: A Comparative Study for Effectiveness Methods in Learning* (2022).



Ruslin, a PhD holder in educational studies, graduated from the University of Sussex, UK, in 2017. He earned his second master's degree (M.Sc) in social research methods in education at the University of Sussex, Brighton, UK 2009. His Master of Education (M.Ed) in English Language Education was earned at the State University of Malang East Java, Indonesia. His Bachelor's degree in Education (B.Ed) and Diploma III (Diploma) in English Language Education were earned at Tadulako University Palu, Indonesia, in 2000 and 1991, respectively. In 2021, he was appointed the secretary of Islamic Education Management at the Postgraduate Study of the State Institute for Islamic Studies (IAIN) Palu. In January 2022, he was appointed head of the English Study Program at the newly transformed State Islamic University, Datokarama Palu Central Sulawesi, Indonesia. Now, he is teaching English and qualitative research at the university. His research interests entail vocational education and training, professionalism in teaching, work-based learning, and English language education.

Among others of his publications is "Semi-structured Interview: A Methodological Reflection on the Development of a Qualitative Research Instrument in Educational Studies", published in *IOSR Journal of Research & Method in Education (IOSR-JRME)* 12 (1), 22-29, 2022; Insights about Reading Competences of Students in Public Schools in Central Sulawesi, Indonesia published in *International Journal of Research and Innovation in Social Science (IJRISS)*, vol. 6(6), pages 733-740, June 2022; and *Vocational Education and Training* published in Eliva Press, Moldova, January 2023.



Nur Ilmi completed her Bachelor's degree in English Literature at Makassar State University (UNM) in 2009 and her Master's degree in English Language Study Program at Hasanuddin University (UNHAS) Makassar in 2016. She is a lecturer at Akademi Sekretari dan Manajemen (Aksema) Atmajaya Makassar. She also teaches English to nursing students at Sekolah Tinggi Ilmu Kesehatan (STIK) Makassar.



Alifiah Pratiwi was born in Jakarta on March 28th 1988. She completed her Bachelor's Degree in English Literature Study Program at the Faculty of Cultural Sciences, University of Hasanuddin in 2011. After that, she earned a Master's Degree in Linguistics at the University of Hasanuddin in 2012 by earning the Beasiswa Unggulan Calon Dosen DIKTI Scholarship from the Ministry of Research, Technology, and Higher Education and completed it in 2016. She is now working as a lecturer in the English Language Education Study Program at the Faculty of Teacher Training and Educational Sciences, University of Sembilanbelas November Kolaka.



Susi Astiantih teaches at the English Department of the Faculty of Teacher Training and Education, Sembilanbelas November University Kolaka (USN). She completed his Bachelor's degree in the English Department at Hassanuddin University in 2014 and his Master's degree in 2017. In 2022-2023, she published some articles in national journals, such as Improving Reading Comprehension by Using ETR, Using ESA Method in Improving Students' Vocabulary, Linguistic Configuration and Socio-pragmatic Function of Indonesian-English Code Switching. She also has written a book entitled *Cepat Pintar Bahasa Inggris Untuk Pemula*.

The Effects of *Q: Skills for Success (Reading and Writing) Level 2* on Improving EFL University Students' Reading Skills

Saifeldin Adam Abd Alrhman Adam

Preparatory Year Deanship, Prince Sattam Bin Abdul-Aziz University, Alkharj, Saudi Arabia

Abstract—The study aimed to identify the effect of the *Q: Skills For Success Level 2* course book on students learning, elicit the good merits of the book, and discover whether the reading strategies improved the students' reading skills. The data of the experimental study was collected from both pretests and posttests administered to three groups of students: 14 engineering students in the first group and 22 health students in the second and third groups. Results showed that there was a very slight difference between the pretest and posttest scores of the group of engineering students ($t_{13} = -7.214$, $p > 0.005$). Likewise, there was also a slight difference between the pretest and posttest scores of the group of health students ($t_{21} = -13.153$, $p < 0.005$). However, there was a significant difference between the pretest and posttest scores of the third group of health students ($t_{14} = -19.255$, $p < 0.005$). The findings indicated that there were positive effects on students taught from the *Q: Skills for Success Level 2* course book. All in all, students benefitted from learning from the *Q: Skills for Success Level 2* course book. Moreover, the reading strategies taken from the *Q: Skills for Success Level 2* course book moderately improved students learning.

Index Terms—*Q: Skills for Success*, syllabus features, reading strategies

I. INTRODUCTION

Like learning any language, the four language skills of reading, writing, speaking and listening are very essential in learning the English language for both the sake of communication and academic study. "The four language skills are at the heart of current practice in English Language teaching. This focus on skills is the result of a confluence of factors, including communicative competence as the primary goal of language instruction" (Burns, 2018, p. XIII). Possessing reading skills in English is very important in developing students' overall English skills because, along with listening, it is a receptive skill (Widdowson, 1978). The present study tried to investigate the efficacy of learning the different reading skills taught in the *Q: Skills for Success (Reading and Writing) Level 2* course book (hereafter known simply as *Q: Skills for Success*) for one semester by assessing the students' reading proficiency skills both before and after studying the book. At the end of the semester, the students sat for achievement tests to determine whether or not they had shown any improvement in their reading skills after using the methods taught from *Q: Skills for Success*.

Textbooks play important roles in developing students' English language skills, and perhaps the most important of those skills are reading skills because they are receptive skills and have a great effect on other language skills. *Q: Skills for Success* provides students with different merits in reading skills, vocabulary skills, critical thinking strategies and ample textual and online activities. For these reasons, it is important to address the effect of the *Q: Skills for Success* series on developing the student's reading abilities and the presentation of these materials through pretests and posttests for three different groups of EFL university students in Saudi Arabia.

The study aimed to identify the effect of one of the books in the series – the *Q: Skills for Success (Reading and Writing) Level 2* course book - on developing learners' reading comprehension. It also attempted to elicit the good merits of the book and measure the extent to which improvement in the English reading skills of the three participating groups was made. The study is important to English language instructors, syllabus designers, and materials developers who may wish to use the same material.

The study attempts to answer the following research questions:

1. What effect does the book *Q: Skills for Success* have on students' reading comprehension skills?
2. What are the characteristics of the book *Q: Skills for Success* in presenting reading skills?
3. How do the reading strategies in *Q: Skills for Success* book improve the students' learning of reading?

To answer the research questions, the researcher hypothesized that there are certain effects of the *Q: Skills for Success* book on the students' learning, there are many merits in the book *Q: Skills for Success* in presenting reading skills to students and reading strategies in *Q: Skills for Success* book improve the students' learning of reading adequately.

II. LITERATURE REVIEW AND PREVIOUS STUDIES

"Curriculum" is a rather broad term, while "syllabus" is a narrower one. "Curricula" is often used to make common statements about the learning of a language, the purpose of learning, assessment, experience and the relationships between the roles of instructors and students. On the other hand, "Syllabus design is seen as being concerned essentially with the selection and grading of content" (Nunan, 1988, p. 6). However, Richards (2013) mentions that "curriculum" is the word used "to refer to the overall plan or design for a course and how the content for a course is transformed into a blueprint for teaching and learning which enables the desired learning outcomes to be achieved." Richards (2001, p. 2) also states that "a syllabus is a specification of the content of a course of instruction and lists what will be taught and tested." Moreover, Harmer (1991, p. 295) states that "curriculum is the planning, implementation, evaluation, management and administration of education programs...while syllabus design concerns the selection of items to be learnt and the grading of those items into an appropriate sequence".

Brumfit (1984) defines the functions syllabuses have to play in that a syllabus should be linked to a larger curriculum. Furthermore, it is a device for public planning and control, and it must be administratively workable. In addition, it consists of a group of practical sections and includes certain methods. It also carries primary requirements with separate items which are to be chosen, defined, and sequenced with a goal both at the start and at the end. Finally, it should be negotiable both during and after use.

Richards (1990) presents various types and examples of syllabuses used in language teaching including those currently used in modern English courses, namely structural, functional, notional, topical, situational, skills, and tasks. Harmer (1991, p. 297) adds lexical syllabus and multi-syllabus to the list of syllabi.

Moreover, the evaluation of textbooks plays a vital role in English Language Teaching (ELT). Thus, various textbook evaluation checklists have been proposed to evaluate ELT textbooks. Harmer (1991, p. 301) posits that the price of the course book and its components along with its availability, layout and design, instructions, methodology, syllabus types, selection and grading, language study activities, language skill activities, topics, cultural acceptability, usability, and teacher's guide should be included on those checklists.

According to McVeigh and Bixby (2021, p. iv), the *Q: Skills for Success* course book used in this study is a third edition. The book is graded according to the Common Reference of the European Framework for Language (CEFR) as A2. All levels of the (CEFR) are classified as A1, A2, B1, B2, C1 or C2. Furthermore, authors McVeigh and Bixby (2021) say that the A2 (or Level 2) provides critical thinking strategies to help learners analyze, synthesize and develop their ideas. It also provides learners with Bloom's Taxonomy activities, enables learners to use videos to enhance their learning, and includes intensive and extensive reading. At A2, the book also uses vocabulary and grammar activities correlated to CEFR along with online IQ activities.

Widdowson (1978, p. 57) states that "Reading and writing is said to relate to language expressed through a visual medium. Reading is said to be a passive or receptive skill". Hedge (2000) mentions six types of knowledge that help every reader make sense of a text; they are the knowledge of syntax, morphology, common globe, culture of society, issue and field.

Harmer (1991) claims that there are two reasons for reading and listening; instrumental and pleasurable. He further asserts that there are top-down and bottom-up versions of the reasons. A top-down listener/reader understands the common idea of a listening/reading topic. A bottom-up a listener/reader concentrates on specific phrases/words to realize comprehension from a part to the whole.

For general understanding, skimming is running the eyes over a text to quickly grasp the general idea of a text. Scanning, on the other hand, is reading to get specific or detailed information from the text. Other types of reading are intensive and extensive. Nation (2009, p. 25) states that "[i]ntensive study of reading texts can help learners gain a better understanding of language features such as comprehension, spelling sounds, vocabulary, grammar, and cohesion".

Thornbury (2002, p. 70) sees reading aloud as the natural "next step" between writing and speaking. Popp (2005, p. 39) posited that reading aloud has many merits in developing the students' skills and asserts that reading aloud to students is a simple but highly effective way to enrich all learning. Nonetheless, Nation (2009, p. 4) offers a choice by saying that the reading passages can be read either silently or out loud. He goes on to explain that in using independent passages of reading, learners are free to choose the time and place they prefer to read (Nation, 2009, p. 5).

Watkins (2017, p. 47) mentions different activities for developing reading skills such as answering questions about the text using multiple choice, True/False, Yes/No, and interrogative (who, what, when, where, why, and how) questions along with sequencing pictures, inserting sentences/paragraphs into gaps in the text from which they were previously removed, matching pictures to parts of a text, matching sub-headings to parts of a text and correcting errors in a summary of a text.

The researcher reviewed nine previous studies related to this study. According to Yang (2014), most reading skills such as how to deal with unfamiliar words, how to find the main idea, how to read critically, and how to better comprehend can be developed by following techniques such as enlarged vocabulary to help improve comprehension. Furthermore, improving comprehension is done through guessing the meaning from the context, recognizing patterns, distinguishing facts from opinions, and forming good reading habits.

According to Sari (2017), the data analysis revealed that there was an improvement in the reading comprehension of the students with each cycle. It was demonstrated that after applying the above techniques, there was an improvement in

the students' mean of 64.12. After reflection on the first cycle, there was an improvement in the mean of students which was 77.29. Furthermore, 16.67% received a gain of 75 on the pre-test. In posttest one, 27.77% received a gain of 75. In posttest two, 55.55% (20 of 36 students) received a score of 75. The total percentage of development from the pretest to the second posttest was about 55.55%.

Sari et al. (2020) discovered that learning the strategies for reading skills is an important component in improving the understanding of learners. She found that students improved significantly after being tutored on reading strategies. However, a lot of instructors lacked the experience and knowledge to handle teaching the strategies of reading comprehension. Therefore, instructors must be prepared to design effective reading comprehension strategies and teach them to their students.

Elleman and Oslund (2019) explored many forms of comprehension by concentrating on the reading parts explained. To improve the scores of reading, a lot of effort needs to be put in by many different participants in the education process. Improving comprehension needs to develop background knowledge, the learning of vocabulary and increasing the sense of inference among learners.

Kadwa and Sheik (2021) claimed that there was a real requirement to determine the English aptitude of newly registered Saudi Arabian university students on admittance. In evaluating the Q: Skills Placement Test created by the University of Oxford, they critically discussed both the good and bad merits of the test. Though the test provided evidence of validity, it fell short of determining the students' context and was not able to distinguish precisely why some students scored less than 30% out of 100% on the exam.

Wistner et al. (2009) tried to evaluate the degree to which two English as a Second Language (ESL) placement tests using both the Oxford and Michigan placement tests which function as L2 proficiency tests. The findings indicated that the two tests can actually be used in Japan as proficiency tests; however, the Michigan English placement test is not normally used and the reliability is very low.

Farid et al. (2020) discovered that reading strategies were enhanced both inside and outside classes through the use of essential differentiated strategies, metacognitive strategies, cognitive strategies and socio-affective strategies that presented significant and positive pedagogical values.

Amini et al. (2022) discovered that EFL instructors adopted a massive range of strategies in teaching and reading, whereas learners only used a small number of strategies when answering reading comprehension questions. This study stressed the significance of the accord between the strategies taught and those used by L2 readers. Learners' awareness played a central role in filling in this gap.

III. RESEARCH DESIGN

This study was limited to preparatory year engineering and health students taking part in the reading program at Prince Sattam Bin Abudlaziz University and was conducted over two different semesters in the academic year 2022. The subjects of the study consisted of three different groups totaling 51 students. There were 14 engineering students in the first group and the health students were in the second and third groups and numbered 22 and 15, respectively.

The study was experimental. Two tests, a pretest and a posttest, were designed to be answered by the students. The pretest represented the Oxford Placement Test which is systemically applied by the university's English Department in order to place preparatory year students in the correct level according to their scores on the test. The university also uses this test at the end of each semester to track student improvement in English. The test was introduced to the university by OxfordPress book designers to assess the skills of the students before they start to study English using the *Q: Skills for Success* series' books. The second test was the same placement test used to measure the effects of skills gained from participating in learning reading topics of the *Q: Skills for Success* book. The researcher considered the tests appropriate data-gathering tools for the study.

The placement tests were taken by 51 students. After one semester, they sat again for the placement as a posttest to evaluate the effects of the *Q: Skills for Success* course book. The scores of the two tests were then analyzed by SPSS.

IV. DATA ANALYSIS AND RESULTS

A. Group 1 Analysis

TABLE 1
THE PAIRED SAMPLE STATISTICS

Pair 1	Mean	N	Std. Deviation	Mode
Pretest	1.5000	14	1.9115	0
Posttest	7.4286	14	2.3110	6

TABLE 2
THE PAIRED SAMPLES CORRELATIONS

Pair	N	Correlation	Sig.
Pre –Post	14	0.052	0.859

TABLE 3
THE PAIRED SAMPLES TEST

THE PAIRED SAMPLES TEST								
Pair	Mean	The Paired Differences				Df	T	Sig.
		Confidence Interval of the Differences 95%						
		The Std. Dev.	Mean Error of Std.	The Lower	The Upper			
Pre -Post	-5.929	3.075	0.822	-7.704	-4.153	13	7.214	0.00

A paired samples t-test was selected as an appropriate tool of analysis in order to determine if there were any variations in student performance from the tests. As a result, the tables show the value of the Pearson correlation coefficient at 0.052, the value of the t-test at -7.214, and the level of statistical significance sig. at $0.000 < 0.05$. This indicates that there is a slight variation between students' scores both before and after teaching the intervention. Additionally, there was evidence that teaching an intervention improves students' performance.

As seen in Tables 1 and 2, it was found that the T1 and T2 scores were weakly correlated ($r = 0.052$ and $p > 0.005$). Furthermore, there was a very slight difference between T1 and T2 scores ($t_{13} = -7.214$, $p > 0.005$). On average, the scores of the posttests were 3 points higher than the scores of the pretests (95% CI [-7.7041, -4.1531]). Due to the means of the two tests and the direction of the t -value, we can conclude that statistically there was very little improvement in student performance from 1.5000 ± 1.9115 points to 7.4286 ± 2.311 .

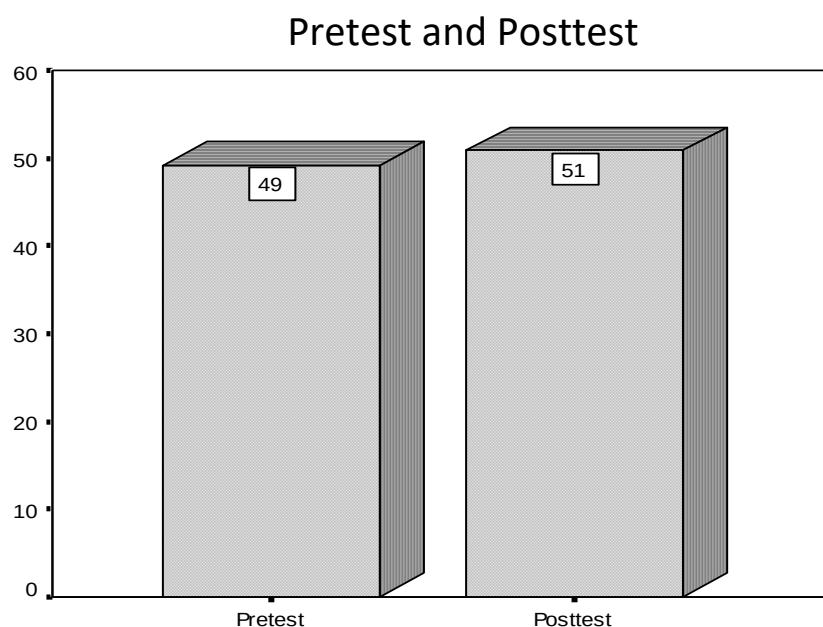


Figure 1. Pretests and Posttests Findings

B. Group 2 Analysis

TABLE 4
THE PAIRED SAMPLE STATISTICS

Pair 1	Mean	N	Std. Deviation	Mode
Pretest	1.955	22	2.193	0
Posttest	10.273	22	2.225	8

TABLE 5
THE PAIRED SAMPLES CORRELATIONS

Pair	N	Correlation	Sig.
Pre -Post	22	0.453	0.034

TABLE 6
THE PAIRED SAMPLES TEST

THE PAIRED SAMPLES TEST								
Pair	Mean	The Paired Differences				Df	T	Sig.
		Confidence Interval of the Differences 95%						
		The Std. Dev.	Mean Error of Std.	The Lower	The Upper			
Pre -Post	-8.318	2.967	0.632	-9.633	-7.003	21	-13.153	0.00

A paired samples t-test was selected as an appropriate tool of analysis in order to determine if there were any variations in student performance from the tests. As a result, the tables show the value of the Pearson correlation coefficient at 0.453, the value of the t-test at -13.153, and the level of statistical significance sig. at $0.000 < 0.05$. This

indicates that there is a slight variation between students' scores both before and after teaching the intervention. Additionally, there was evidence that teaching an intervention improves students' performance.

As seen in Tables 4 and 5, it was found that the T1 and T2 scores were weakly correlated ($r = 0.453$ and $p < 0.005$), and there was a slight difference between the T1 and T2 scores ($t_{21} = -13.153$, $p < 0.005$). On average, the scores of the posttests were 9 points higher than the scores of the pretests (95% CI [-9.6333, -7.0030]). Due to the means of the two tests and the direction of the t -value, we can conclude that statistically there was very little improvement in student performance from 1.9545 ± 2.1926 points to 10.2727 ± 3.2246 .

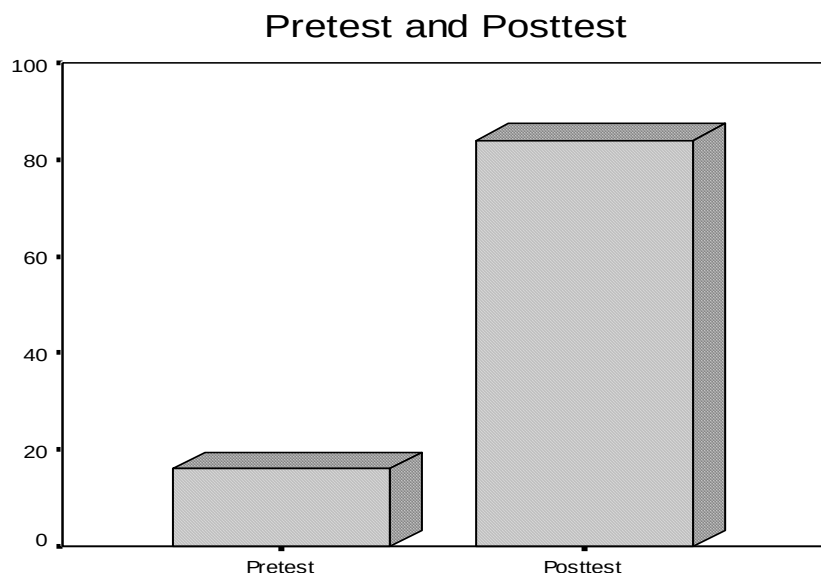


Figure 2. Pretests and Posttests Findings

C. Group 3 Analysis

TABLE 7
THE PAIRED SAMPLE STATISTICS

Pair 1	Mean	N	Std. Deviation	Mode
Pretest	4.867	15	3.889	6
Posttest	13.200	15	4.709	20

TABLE 8
THE PAIRED SAMPLES CORRELATIONS

Pair	N	Correlation	Sig.
Pre -Post	15	0.942	0.000

TABLE 9
THE PAIRED SAMPLES TEST

THE PAIRED SAMPLES TEST								
Pair	Mean	The Paired Differences				Df	T	Sig.
		Confidence Interval of the Differences 95%						
		The Std. Dev.	Mean Error of Std.	The Lower	The Upper			
Pre -Post	-8.333	1.676	0.433	-9.262	-7.405	15	-19.255	0.00

A paired samples t -test was selected as an appropriate tool of analysis in order to determine if there were any variations in student performance from the tests. As a result, the tables show the value of the Pearson correlation coefficient at 0.942, the value of the t -test at -19.255, and the level of statistical significance sig. at $0.000 < 0.05$. This indicated that there was a clear difference between students' scores before teaching the intervention and after teaching it. Moreover, there was strong evidence that teaching the intervention improved students' performance.

As seen in Tables 7 and 8, it was found that the T1 and T2 scores were strongly and positively correlated ($r = 0.942$ and $p < 0.005$) and there was a significant average difference between T1 and T2 scores ($t_{14} = -19.255$, $p < 0.005$). On average, the scores of the posttests were 9 points higher than the scores of the pretests (95% CI [-9.2616, -7.4051]). Due to the means of the two tests and the direction of the t -value, we can conclude that there was a statistically significant improvement in students' performance from 4.8667 ± 3.8889 points to 13.2000 ± 4.7086 .

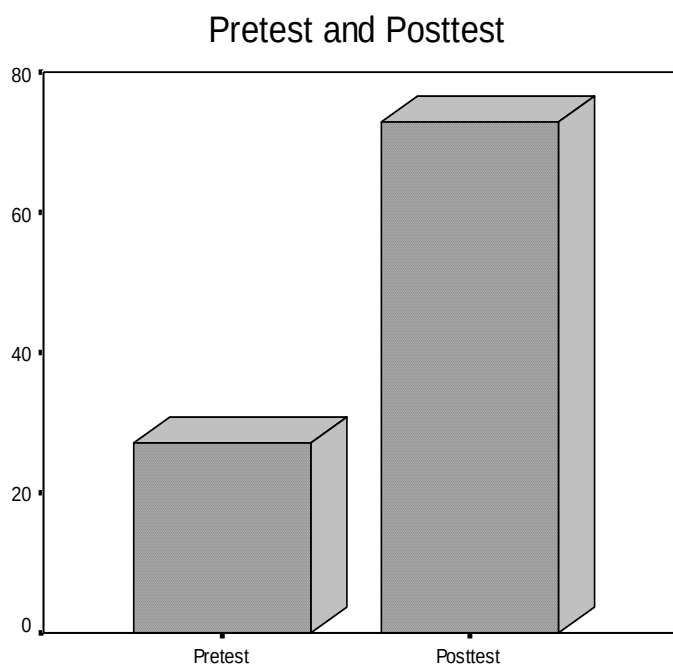


Figure 3. Pretests and Posttests Findings

V. FINDINGS

The findings of the study showed that there were positive effects of teaching *Q: Skills for Success* on students' English reading skills. Moreover, there were good merits in teaching from the *Q: Skills for Success* for students. Furthermore, the reading strategies found in *Q: Skills for Success* moderately improved students learning.

VI. RECOMMENDATIONS

It was recommended that periodical improvements were to be made to the placement test to regard the standards of students and their contexts. Also, teachers should exert efforts in teaching *Q: Skills for Success* to enhance reading skills.

VII. SUGGESTIONS FOR FURTHER STUDIES

Further studies should be conducted in the areas of language teaching skills and English instructors' awareness and proficiency concerning teaching these skills.

VIII. CONCLUSION

The Oxford Placement Test seems to have a very slight, yet significant average difference of effect among the three groups of students. There were some positive effects on those students who made use of the strategies of learning reading. The studies of Yung (2014), Sari (2017), Eleman and Oslund and Ana (2020) coincided with the present study in the light of enhancing the strategies of reading to develop students' comprehension and enlarge the scope of vocabulary usage. Also, Farid et al. (2020) suggested four strategies to improve reading comprehension. Amini et al. (2022) added students' awareness enhanced learning reading. Although the test proved to be valid, improvements need to be made to deal with the real standards of students and context, Katwa and Sheik (2021). This was said to describe the *Q: Skills* Placement Test, but according to Wistner et al. (2009), the Oxford Placement test was valid and had acceptable reliability. Moreover, the Oxford Placement Test bulletin indicated that the test formed a validation perspective and was in line with the relevant CEFR profile. They also stated that the test was adaptive and was always subject to many modifications to match the real standards of the students and their contexts. Hence, the effectiveness of teaching is demanded to ensure the adequacy of knowledge gained by learners (Shivaraju, 2017). It is highly recommended that the teaching staff collaborate to teach effectively to improve student knowledge.

ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

The author is much indebted to the Deanship of Scientific Research at Prince Sattam Bin Abdulaziz University, Saudi Arabia, and the Preparatory Year Deanship English Department. He is also greatly indebted to the students who participated in the pretests and posttests and to the English Department staff.

REFERENCES

- [1] Amini, M., Lee, K., F. & Eng, S., E. (2022). Reading Strategies in Teaching and Learning English as a Foreign Language: A Mixed-Method Study. *Pertanika J. Soc. Sci. & Hum*, 30(2), 475 – 499.
- [2] Sari, K., E., Theriana, A. (2020). *Effective Reading Strategies for Reading skills*. ResearchGate. P. 1-9. DOI: 10.31851/esteem.v1i2.2429. Retrieved on January 5, 2022. 6:12.
- [3] Brumfit, C., J. (1984). *General English Syllabus Design: Curriculum and syllabus design for the general English classroom*. Oxford, UK: Pergamon Press.
- [4] Burns, Anne. (2018). *International Perspectives In Teaching The Four Skills In ELT: Listening, Speaking, Reading, Writing*. Birmingham, UK: Palgrave Macmillan.
- [5] Elleman, M., A. & Oslund, L., E. (2019). *Reading Comprehension Research: Implications for Practice and Policy*. *Behavioral and Brain Sciences* 2019, Vol. 6(1), 3– 11.
- [6] Farid, A., Ishtiaq, M., & Hussain, M. S. (2020). A Review of Effective Reading Strategies to Teach Text Comprehension to Adult English Language Learners. *Global Language Review*, V(III), 77-88. [https://doi.org/10.31703/glr.2020\(V-III\).09](https://doi.org/10.31703/glr.2020(V-III).09).
- [7] Harmer, J. (1991). *The Practice of English Language Teaching* (3rd edn.) Harlow: Longman.
- [8] Hedge, T. (2000). *Teaching and Learning in the Language Classroom*. Oxford, UK: Oxford University Press.
- [9] Kadwa, S., M and Sheik, A. (2021). A Critical Review of the Oxford Q-Skills Placement Test at a Saudi Arabian University. *International Journal of Linguistics, Literature and Translation (IJLLT)*, 2021 | Vol 4| Issue 1. pp. 198-209.
- [10] McVeigh, J. & Bixby, J. (2021). *Q Skills for Success A2: Reading and Writing. Third Edition*. Oxford University Press.
- [11] Nation, I., S., P. (2009). *Teaching ESL/EFL Reading and Writing*. London, UK: Routledge.
- [12] Nunan, D. (1988). *Language Teaching: A Scheme for Teacher Education*: Oxford University Printing Press.
- [13] Popp, M., S. (2005). *Teaching Language and Literature in Elementary Classrooms*. (2nd edn). London, UK: Lawrence Erlbaum publishers.
- [14] Richards, J., C. (1990). *The Language Teaching Matrix*. Cambridge, UK: Cambridge University Press.
- [15] Richards, J., C. (2001). *Curriculum Development in Language Teaching*. Cambridge, UK: Cambridge University Press.
- [16] Richards, J., C. (2013). *Curriculum Approaches in Language Teaching: Forward, Central, and Backward Design*. *RELC Journal*, Vol.44(1) 5-33: Sage pub.
- [17] Sari, L. (2017). *improving reading comprehension through directed reading thinking activity (Drta) strategy for the eighth-grade students of SmpNegeri 17*. Unpublished (MA) thesis, State Islamic University of North Sumatera. URI: <http://repository.uinsu.ac.id/id/eprint/2244>. Retrieved on June 7, 2022, 3:58.
- [18] Shivaraju, T., P. (2017). Evaluating the effectiveness of pre- and post-test model of learning in a medical school. *National Journal of Physiology, Pharmacy and Pharmacology*. 2017 | Vol 7 | Issue 9. pp. 947-951.
- [19] Thornbury, S. (2002). *How to teach speaking*. Harlow: Pearson Longman.
- [20] Watkins, P. (2017). *Teaching and Developing Reading Skills*: CUP.
- [21] Widdowson, H., G. (1978). *Teaching Language as Communication*. Oxford, UK: Oxford University Press.
- [22] Wistner, B., Sakai, H., & Abe, M. (2009). *Bulletin of the Faculty of Letters*, Hosei University, 58, 33-44.
- [23] Yang, Z. (2014). *Effective Methods to Improving Reading Skills in English Study*. International Conference on Education, Language, Art and Intercultural Communication (ICELAIC 2014): Atlantis Press. <https://ataile.atauni.edu.tr/wp-content/uploads/2021/04/oxford-placement-test-the-meaning-of-opt-scores.pdf>. Retrieved on June 15, 2022. 7:13.



Saifeldin Adam Abd Alrhman Adam was born in Wadi Halfa, Sudan in 1964. He obtained a Bachelor Degree in English Language and Arts. College of Education-Arts, Juba University, Juba, Sudan, in 1990. He was granted MA in English Language Teaching (ELT) from International African University, Khartoum, Sudan, in 2005. He was awarded PhD in English Language Teaching (ELT) from the University of Bakhtalruda, Ed Dueim, White Nile State, Sudan, in 2010. He has been teaching at different universities since 2010. Currently, he is an Assistant Professor at the Preparatory Year Deanship, Prince Sattam bin Abdulaziz University, Al Kharj, Saudi Arabia. Dr. Adam's current research interests include ELT, testing and assessment.

Malaysian English Language Teachers' Engagement With Instrumental Support on Facebook

Radzuwan Ab Rashid

Faculty of Languages and Communication, Universiti Sultan Zainal Abidin, 21030 Kuala Nerus, Terengganu, Malaysia;
Applied Science Research Center, Applied Science Private University, Amman, Jordan

Omar Ali Al-Smadi*

School of Distance Education, Universiti Sains Malaysia, 11800 USM, Penang, Malaysia

Marwan Harb Alqaryouti

Department of English Language, Literature and Translation, Zarqa University, Zarqa, Jordan

Ala Eddin Sadeq

Department of English Language, Literature and Translation, Zarqa University, Zarqa, Jordan

Abstract—This study investigates how Malaysian English language teachers utilize networking sites for social support. It focuses on the social and discursive practices of Malaysian English language teachers as they co-construct social support on Facebook Timelines. The data was collected through semi-structured interviews with 20 Malaysian English language teachers to identify the value of social networking sites for teachers' development. The findings revealed that the majority of the teachers interviewed had a positive view of the engagement with instrumental support on Timelines even though some teachers questioned the efficacy of Timelines as a platform for the co-construction of instrumental support. The teachers mainly engaged with informational support on Timelines as they perceived the usefulness of Facebook in facilitating the exchange of informational resources. The teachers associate obtaining informational support on Timelines with the ability to communicate important information, communicate immediately, and participate as a lurker, which is useful when teachers want to obtain informational resources without having to engage in conversation with others. This paper argues that teachers' postings on Facebook serve as tools to obtain desirable support, facilitating the improvement of their practices and helping them navigate daily challenges in the workplace.

Index Terms—English teachers, Facebook, instrumental support, Malaysia

I. INTRODUCTION

Teaching is an inherently demanding profession, requiring educators worldwide to manage numerous routine and unforeseen tasks on a daily basis. Unfortunately, guidance and support for teachers are only sporadically provided adequately (Rashid et al., 2016). The insufficient institutional support, as highlighted by Rashid et al. (2016), prompts some teachers to contemplate leaving the profession. This underscores the importance of providing teachers with adequate support to effectively navigate the daily challenges they encounter, ensuring their retention in the profession. On the contrary, some teachers may seek external sources of support to sustain their careers. The retention and career commitment of teachers have been subjects of investigation by educational and psychological researchers for decades (Korte & Simonsen, 2018). In addition to wages and opportunities for professional development, feelings of support significantly impact job satisfaction, career commitment, and overall well-being among teachers (Kelly & Northrop, 2015; Korte & Simonsen, 2018; Minghui et al., 2018).

Social networking sites (SNS) such as Facebook, Instagram, and Twitter provide a potential source of support for individuals, including teachers (Utz & Breuer, 2017). These platforms enable teachers to communicate swiftly and cost-effectively with members of the online community, in training and professional development programs (Rashid et al., 2016; Bett & Makewa, 2020; Ellison et al., 2014). Teachers' engagement on Facebook showcases their self-determination to participate in training programs for autonomous, rather than controlled, reasons. Additionally, teachers' familiarity with Facebook minimizes the risk of attrition and technological frustration, thereby promoting effective involvement (Rosenberg et al., 2020).

The advantages of support extend beyond mere words of encouragement. Professionals in the educational and medical fields have extensively studied the physiological and psychological benefits of support (Ellison et al., 2014).

* Corresponding Author. Email: o.smadi@usm.my

Social support serves as a catalyst to promote productivity, creativity, and both mental and physical health (Ellison et al., 2014). Perceived support for teachers is fundamental in mitigating undesirable experiences, reinforcing career commitment, fostering a positive working atmosphere, and enhancing self-efficacy (Burke et al., 2015).

In Malaysia, administrators and school colleagues are characterized as unsupportive towards teachers (Rashid et al., 2016). Therefore, it is crucial to thoroughly scrutinize how English language teachers in Malaysia seek instrumental support. Consequently, this study aims to explore the engagement of Malaysian English language teachers with instrumental support on Facebook Timelines. The findings of this study aim to provide insights into the nature of teacher discourse on social networking sites and illuminate why and how teachers utilize SNS technology to seek instrumental support.

II. LITERATURE REVIEW

A. Teachers on Social Media

Social media platforms offer opportunities for teachers' professional development and serve as sources of digital social support among educators. These platforms facilitate connections between teachers, enabling them to acquire new skills and solve problems in non-traditional ways. Internet and related technologies have the power to bring together literature, research, information, and people from around the world (American Psychological Association, 2009). Social media platforms are valuable tools for enhancing synergy among teachers, facilitating the quick and cost-effective dissemination of resources and information (Nguyen et al., 2021). Particularly, Facebook provides an alternative setting for English learning and teaching due to its accessibility, ease of use, and features that enable teachers to share and post materials (Al Qunayeer, 2020). The literature acknowledges Facebook's significant role in improving collaboration, interaction, communication, and information sharing among teachers (Kwon et al., 2019; Lantz-Andersson, 2018). In the context of work, teachers consider how others can support them in achieving personal and professional goals. While knowledge is crucial for goal attainment, social capital reinforces individuals' ability to achieve goals by providing valuable information (Jolly et al., 2021). The frequency and quality of teachers' interactions on social media platforms help them navigate life stressors, engage in beneficial relationships, cope with psychological and work demands, and mitigate the negative impacts of stress (Andrews et al., 1978).

Widely used in Malaysia, Facebook is one of the prominent platforms. The engagement of English language teachers in social media, particularly on Facebook, diminishes professional isolation, facilitates mutual learning, and establishes a valuable foundation of social support (Jolly et al., 2021). Participation on Facebook represents a potential source of material or psychological social support (Jolly et al., 2021), as teachers utilize the platform to seek information, social connections, and instrumental support (Manca et al., 2022).

In traditional workplaces, information-seeking often occurs through face-to-face interactions among staff. Conversely, by using Facebook, teachers' information-seeking becomes immediate and unrestricted by physical limitations. Teachers can access a diverse array of information, such as tips for managing classes, teaching styles, and proper assessment methods, from a broader network of fellow educators (Rosenberg et al., 2020). Furthermore, information-seeking through Facebook can be either explicit or tacit. Teachers may use their real names to pose direct questions to Facebook users, or they can choose to maintain anonymity by being lurkers (Greenhow et al., 2021), granting them autonomy in fulfilling their informational needs.

B. Teachers' Social Support

Social support is the perception or feeling that an individual is admired, cared for, and part of a mutually supportive social network (Taylor, 2011). Adequate social support is necessary to help individuals feel integrated into a social network, representing the perception of being needed by others (Abidah, 2020). In the context of education, social support entails collaboration among administrators, teachers, and peers, fostering a sense of belonging within a specific community, such as a school.

Traditionally, teachers were evaluated based on their experience, certification, and subject knowledge. However, recent studies have confirmed the crucial role of teachers' support in advancing the educational process and achievement. There is no doubt that teacher support is conducive to the personal and professional lives of teachers (Ekstam et al., 2017). According to Münzer et al. (2017), social support reinforces teachers' productivity, life satisfaction, and shields them from negative effects. Tian et al. (2016) found that school-related social support is connected to positive teachers' professional development, short- and long-term work fulfillment, appreciation of school-related work, and academic initiative. Research has also revealed that both formal (e.g., from the school) and informal (e.g., from family) social support are deemed vital for teachers to enhance teaching quality, commitment, and willingness to learn new skills and experiences (Minghui et al., 2018).

According to Jolly et al. (2021), social support significantly impacts teachers' physical and mental well-being and enhances their coping mechanisms in stressful conditions. This support is particularly crucial for teachers who face a constant load of pressure, including challenges in classroom management, the absence or shortage of support in the workplace, and an overwhelming workload. These pressures can lead to feelings of pressure, exhaustion, depression, and workplace stress, sometimes resulting in negative coping responses such as alcohol consumption and smoking

(Jolly et al., 2021). The absence of social support for teachers, as noted by Demir and Leyendecker (2018), poses risks to teachers' mental, emotional, and physical health, influencing their behavioral and social attributes negatively.

Social support, as classified by House (1983), encompasses four types: informational, instrumental, appraisal, and emotional. Informational support is sought when an individual seeks suggestions or advice to overcome challenges. Instrumental support takes the form of tangible items such as resource donations, time, grants, rewards, etc. Appraisal support involves receiving constructive feedback and affirmation, while emotional support encompasses feelings of empathy, trust, love, and concern, demonstrated through caring and active listening.

Ekstam et al. (2017) view social support as most effective when the type received or perceived aligns with the specific need. Emotional support serves a wide range of needs, whereas informational and instrumental supports prove advantageous in relation to specific events or needs.

Social support, as perceived by Andrews et al. (1978), can be subjective or objective. Subjective support is achieved through an individual's social network, while objective support involves assisting a person in overcoming challenging conditions, thereby improving their positive physical and psychological well-being.

Teachers' instrumental support

Instrumental support encompasses the tangible aid or practical assistance that individuals receive while engaging in a specific task, emphasizing the provision of resources, guidance, or hands-on help to enhance their ability to accomplish the task effectively (Schultz et al., 2022). Within educational settings, instrumental support implies providing resources to help a teacher achieve a specific task or solve a problem (Drijvers et al., 2010). This type of support occurs when others offer material or services to accommodate a situation. Colleagues, supervisors, schools, counselors, local community friends, family, research institutions, and social media platforms are potential sources for teachers to obtain instrumental support (Schultz et al., 2022). For example, teachers can be said to engage in instrumental support when they collaborate with more capable peers who assist them in learning, such as how to effectively use a smart board in the classroom.

Empirical studies indicate that teachers' perceptions of instrumental support significantly impact their performance. According to Strati et al. (2017), teachers are more likely to engage with assigned tasks when they receive instrumental support from peers or their school. The correlation between various teaching achievements and instrumental support implies a potential link between academic accomplishments and instrumental support (Strati et al., 2017). As highlighted by Wang et al. (2011), an adequate amount of instrumental support provided to teachers nurtures institutional and occupational outcomes, such as improved education quality, innovation, work engagement, self and work satisfaction, effective problem-solving, enhanced teaching performance, and, ultimately, the minimization of negative experiences. Instrumental support aids teachers in coping with physical and emotional work demands, influencing teacher engagement and efficiency (Minghui et al., 2018). Beyond academic benefits, instrumental support is believed to contribute to teachers' state of mind and overall well-being (Asghar et al., 2021).

Social networking sites play significant roles in education, providing teachers with valuable instrumental support (Greenhow & Lewin, 2015). Platforms like Facebook enable teachers to connect with external sources of support, irrespective of geographical proximity, fostering the creation of new networks and access to resources, applications, and information (Schroeder et al., 2019). Teachers particularly value informally obtained instrumental support on platforms like Facebook, as it contributes to the enhancement of their professional skills and abilities (Davies, 2015).

Kadylak and Makki (2018) highlight the significant role of instrumental support on Facebook, emphasizing its distinct features that empower members to acquire material assistance spanning various aspects of life. For instance, the platform allows for the sending and receiving of money through Facebook Messenger. Furthermore, Facebook members can connect with regional and international colleagues, contacts, friends, and associates to discover resources, activities, and topics related to common interest. The characteristics of Facebook not only enable the direct exchange of material resources but also provide prompt and cost-free means to access valuable information and resources (Kadylak & Makki, 2018).

III. METHODOLOGY

This study scrutinizes the co-construction of social support on Facebook Timelines by Malaysian English language teachers, employing semi-structured interviews as the primary method. Thirty-four participants willingly engaged in these interviews, offering valuable insights into the dynamics of social support within this context.

Participants in this study were categorized into three groups: 20 active users, nine lurkers, and five non-users of Facebook. Initially employing purposive sampling, the researchers specifically selected teachers actively posting teaching-related content on their Timelines to garner rich insights. However, as the study progressed, the inclusion of teachers identified as lurkers became apparent. These individuals, although rarely posting, regularly engage with others' content. To capture nuanced insights into this group, the researchers extended their sample to include teachers who were lurkers, using a convenience sampling technique due to the unpredictability of identifying potential lurkers. Throughout this process, the researchers encountered teachers without Facebook accounts, further diversifying the sample.

Initially planning group interviews, the researchers adjusted to one-to-one semi-structured interviews based on the majority of teachers' preferences. However, some teachers who at the same schools opted for group interviews. The

researchers concluded the interviews after the 34th participant, reaching a saturation point where new data ceased to provide additional insights into the investigated issue.

IV. ANALYSIS AND DISCUSSION

A. Teachers' Views of Instrumental Support on Timelines

To prepare the data for analysis, the researchers transcribed the interview data, and the following codes were assigned to the data gathered. Examples of codes used are: (I15) refers to fifteenth interview, I15/Q2 refers to fifteenth interview and the second question, Hazreen/I3 refers to 'Hazreen' the third interviewee. Hazreen/I3/Q2 refers to 'Hazreen' the third interviewee answering question two. Based on the thematic analysis of data, there appear to be two broad views, one positive and the other negative, held by the teachers about the use of Timeline postings as a mechanism for co-constructing social support in their professional lives. Further analysis of these two opposing views leads to the emergence of three categories of views that the researchers refer to as the '3As' which are the 'Avid (+A)', the 'Analytic (+AC)', and the 'Anxious (+AS)'. The Avid (+A) category refers to the very positive perceptions held by teachers regarding the use of Facebook to seek social support in their professional lives. The teachers are enthusiastic about, impressed by or interested in Facebook and perceive it as useful. The avid view is mostly expressed by teachers who frequently post on Timelines (active users). The Analytic (+AC) category encompasses teachers who are enthusiastic but, at the same time, critical of the use of Facebook to seek social support, feeling that it needs to be used in particular ways. The analytic view is also mostly expressed by teachers who frequently post on Timelines (active users). The Anxious (+AS) category comprises teachers who are enthusiastic about the use of Facebook to seek social support but, at the same time, they worry and fear there may be unintended consequences. The anxious view is mostly expressed by teachers who often read Timeline postings but rarely post (the lurkers).

The majority of interviewed teachers (n=29) expressed a positive perception of their engagement with instrumental support on Timelines, even though some questioned the efficacy of Timelines as a platform for co-constructing instrumental support. Instrumental support encompasses various forms of resources, including equipment, information, and financial assistance, provided to individuals to solve problems or complete specific tasks (Beehr & Glazer, 2001).

Similar to Malaysian English language teachers in Khalid et al.'s (2013) study, the majority of teachers in this study reported that Facebook enabled them to access informational resources by facilitating communication and interaction. Facebook's software plays a crucial role in this facilitation, allowing teachers to exchange text documents, pictures, videos, and share links (Sue/I30/Q2), without incurring any subscription fees, as it is freely accessible (Linda/I15/Q2) and can be used on mobile phones, providing flexibility to log in anytime and anywhere (Eisya/I21/Q5). Furthermore, the absence of word-count restrictions when updating Statuses or posting Comments allows users to create longer posts compared to platforms like Twitter (Murni/I19/Q2).

The technical capabilities of Facebook, as highlighted in the previous paragraph, play a crucial role in facilitating communication and interaction, empowering teachers to acquire informational support. Further analysis reveals that teachers associate obtaining informational support on Timelines with the ability to: 1) communicate important information; 2) communicate immediately; and 3) participate as a lurker. Lurking proves useful when teachers aim to obtain informational resources without engaging in conversation with others.

(a). Communication of Important Information

The communication of important information facilitated by Facebook is illustrated in the following Excerpt.

EXCERPT 1
ONE-TO-ONE INTERVIEW / EISYA

1	Researcher:	Do you think your life will be different if you quit Facebook now? In what ways?
2	Eisya:	Of course it does. Without Facebook, I will be an old boring teacher who does not know what is going on around the world.
3		You are left behind, not knowing the newest trend in teaching method,
4		getting to know lecturers that you can ask for advice
5		If I don't have FB, I will be by myself. I have to work alone.
6		I know we can ask around face-to-face, but it is limited not like FB.
7		We are living in a very fast pace life, even school is pretty hectic, I find myself not having time to read newspaper and watching news
8		so by using FB, when I have time for example when I am taking breakfast
9		I will just log on into FB using my handphone, get to know the latest issue and talk about it in the class.

Eisya's positive viewpoint is evident in her initial response, 'of course it does' (line 2), emphasizing her belief in the significance of Facebook. She expresses the idea that not participating in Facebook would make her feel like an outdated and uninformed teacher, contradicting Basak and Calisir's (2015) suggestion that information seeking is not a significant factor for continued Facebook use. While they propose that the intention to continue using Facebook is primarily influenced by the desire for recognition and entertainment, Eisya, using the modal auxiliary 'will' (line 2), conveys a high certainty that she would be negatively affected if she didn't use Facebook. This assertion indirectly communicates the importance of Facebook in her professional life, serving as a tool to stay updated on global issues,

prevent feeling left behind, stay informed about the latest teaching methods (line 3), and seek advice from expert friends, including lecturers (line 4). Eisyia not only perceives Facebook as a source for staying informed about current issues but also as a means to access valuable information, particularly expert advice from more experienced friends, such as lecturers.

Eisyia highlights Facebook's role in communication and interaction, particularly in sharing important information. She expresses the notion that without using Facebook, she would perceive herself as working alone (line 5), underscoring the platform's importance in connecting with others. Eisyia strongly believes that Facebook serves as a valuable tool for interaction, overcoming the limitations of face-to-face exchanges (line 6). The platform allows her to effortlessly obtain crucial information by reaching out to friends, transcending geographical boundaries.

Moreover, Eisyia views Facebook as a shortcut to information, sparing her from the time-consuming process of reading newspapers and watching the news (line 7). Its convenience is evident as she can log on at her own convenience, even during breakfast (line 8), using her mobile phone to stay abreast of the latest issues for classroom discussions (line 9). This type of information, exchanged on Facebook, is deemed important for teachers' professional lives, enabling them to present themselves as well-informed educators to their students and potentially integrate this knowledge into classroom activities.

(b). *Immediate Communication of Information*

Closely related to the ability to communicate important information is the immediate communication of information illustrated in Excerpt 2.

EXCERPT 2
GROUP INTERVIEW 1/ HAZREEN

1	Researcher:	Do you think Facebook allows teachers to make their professional lives better?
2	Hazreen:	Yes, because information spreads very fast on FB especially if you need to make announcement.
3		So teachers are not left behind.
4		Plus I have a lot of friends, from many fields, so I get rich instant feedback.
5		Status updates and Comments become like a chatting on Facebook because my friends are always online.
6		They give me very quick responses.

Hazreen underscores the swift communication capabilities of Facebook, emphasizing how information spreads rapidly on the platform (line 2). In the context of teachers' professional lives, the immediacy of communication becomes crucial to staying updated and not falling behind (line 3), particularly when following announcements made by friends. Observations from Timelines reveal that teachers often utilize Facebook for announcements, such as filling in transfer forms, available scholarships, and deadlines for tasks like entering student marks for SBA.

Apart from the ability to make announcements, Hazreen also values the platform for its capacity to receive rich and instant feedback (line 4). Facebook connects her with a diverse group of friends from various fields, allowing her to tap into a range of perspectives when addressing teaching-related issues. The immediacy of information exchange is further emphasized when Hazreen compares updating her Status and receiving Comments to synchronous chatting (line 5). The rapid responses from friends are facilitated by the Facebook software, which sends 'Push Notifications' to friends whenever a user updates their Status. Both Hazreen's and Eisyia's feedback illustrates how Facebook facilitates immediate communication of important information while enabling teachers to receive quick and insightful responses, thereby expanding their perspectives on specific teaching-related issues.

However, not all teachers share the enthusiastic view of immediate communication on Facebook. Christine, for instance, presents an 'Anxious' (+AS) perspective, expressing, 'when you sit in for a while, you respond better, after you think about it' (I16/Q2). This suggests that Christine values the quality of delayed responses over immediate ones, emphasizing the importance of thoughtful consideration before crafting Comments in response to any Status update. In essence, Christine appreciates the extended 'wait-time' (Walsh, 2006, p. 134).

It is reasonable to infer that Christine is concerned about the potential for teachers to respond hastily, providing inappropriate advice or using incorrect language, which could potentially tarnish their professional identity. Christine's 'Anxious' (+A) view on the immediacy of communication on Facebook aligns with studies highlighting users' regrets after posting inappropriate content on Timelines, which may adversely impact their image (Wang et al., 2011; Moore & McElroy, 2012).

(c). *Obtaining Instrumental Support by Participating as a Lurker*

The role of Facebook in facilitating instrumental support is intricately linked to the practice of lurking, as exemplified in Excerpt 3.

EXCERPT 3
ONE-TO-ONE INTERVIEW/ JAMAL/I10

1	Researcher:	Do you think Facebook affords teachers to make their professional lives better? Why?
2	Jamal:	Yes, because Facebook enables engagement in interaction without having to expose yourself too much.
3		I often read, rarely post. I dig info rather than giving info.
4		I use their experiences as a way to overcome similar problems that I might face at school.
5		I observe what I want to observe
6		and if I don't agree, just let it be.

Jamal perceives lurking on Facebook as a strategic approach to interaction, emphasizing the opportunity for teachers to engage without overexposing themselves (line 2). He implies that excessive self-exposure on the platform can be detrimental, a concern supported by global cases where teachers faced termination due to their Facebook postings (Kimmons, 2012). To navigate this challenge, Jamal adopts the role of a lurker, actively seeking information without necessarily contributing (line 3). This allows him to make sense of others' experiences and potentially find solutions to similar issues in his school (line 4).

By choosing to be a lurker, Jamal gains the ability to selectively observe content and ignore perspectives with which he disagrees (lines 5-6). Active participation in conversations might inadvertently imply agreement with comments, but lurking affords him the freedom to remain unnoticed and uncommitted. Contrary to the notion that lurking may indicate a lack of psychological confidence in online spaces (Leask & Younie, 2001), Jamal's approach portrays lurking as a strategic form of participation, enabling him to engage in vicarious learning without the potential pitfalls of active involvement.

Teachers possess the autonomy to choose between active participation, contributing to either single or multiple dyadic conversations on Facebook, or adopting a more passive role as lurkers—a dynamic aligning with the flexible participations outlined in Gee's (2005) concept of affinity spaces. The researchers posit that lurking holds significance equal to active participation, as interviewees expressed that even without contributing posts, they actively read through Friends' conversations. Through this lurking practice, teachers gained valuable insights into various topics, subsequently applying the acquired knowledge in their professional lives. This study underscores the idea that Facebook serves as an informal source of Teacher Professional Development (TPD).

Teachers with a positive view of using Timeline postings as a means to seek instrumental support see Facebook as a platform that facilitates the swift communication of crucial information. They find it effective for immediate communication and consider lurking a valuable means to obtain informational support when needed. On the contrary, teachers with a negative view, particularly older teachers who are non-active Facebook users, express skepticism about the quality of information shared on Timelines. They believe that Facebook primarily connects teachers to their peers rather than more experienced educators.

(d). Instrumental Support and Informal Learning

The perspectives of teachers on instrumental support align with the argument that their efforts to seek informational resources, particularly regarding the implementation of educational policies (e.g., SBA) and 'content knowledge' (Shulman, 1987, p. 8) (e.g., grammar rules), reflect a commitment to engaging in informal learning. Teachers actively acquire a broad spectrum of informational resources on Timelines, ranging from straightforward details like exam result release dates to more intricate guidance, such as strategies for conducting SBA in secondary schools. These information-seeking behaviors encompass both 'practical knowledge' (Elbaz, 1983, p. 43) and 'content knowledge' (Shulman, 1987, p. 8), underscoring the teachers' intentional involvement in informal learning.

Excerpt 4 provides a glimpse into teachers' positive views (+A, +AC) regarding the informal learning opportunities presented by informational resources on Timelines. In the context of instrumental support, which encompasses equipment, informational, and financial resources (Beehr & Glazer, 2001), the sharing of experiences, knowledge, and advice on Timelines falls under the informational category. Unlike tangible resources such as equipment or financial support, informational resources are disseminated through narratives, stories, and interactions with more experienced Friends. Teachers, including Barnett, Lina, and Fiza, who expressed positive views, emphasized how the wealth of information shared in their Friends' stories and educational Facebook Pages, as well as insights gained from interacting with knowledgeable peers, facilitated their engagement in informal learning on Timelines.

EXCERPT 4
GROUP INTERVIEW 3/ BARNETT (I12), LINA (I13), FIZA (I14)

1	Researcher:	Do you think that teachers engage in any kind of informal learning on Facebook?
2	Barnett:	I think FB is a great way to learn without having to be there.
3		For instance, when you always teach in an urban area you don't know what it is like in rural area,
4		so, you don't have to be there, check your friends Facebook... you just go online.
5		You can read from the other Friends' experience, how the students react etcetera
6	Lina:	Of course when you check Friends' Timelines, you will see lots of stories.
7		don't take negative things
8		you are mature enough to sort of like pick what is good for you.
9		so read, reflect and adapt to suit our needs.
10	Fiza:	When you follow an educational FB page, their posts will appear on your Timeline.
11		So I often learn new idioms, refresh my grammar knowledge by reading the posts.
12		Sometimes, I notice that my Friends ask about grammar, teaching strategy etcetera, so when other Friends respond, I learn from there too.

Barnett and Fiza express an 'Avid' (+A) perspective on instrumental support through Facebook Timelines, emphasizing the platform's ability to provide valuable support without unintended consequences, showcasing their enthusiasm for utilizing Facebook in seeking instrumental support. Barnett, for instance, views Facebook as an excellent means to learn from others' experiences (line 2), citing an example of how teachers can gain insights into schools in rural areas by reading Status Updates from Friends teaching there. Her use of the adjective 'great' underscores her high regard for Facebook's capacity to offer new and beneficial information to teachers.

In contrast, Lina adopts an 'Analytic' (+AC) stance, suggesting a specific approach to extracting new information from Facebook. Lina advises teachers to be discerning when reading information shared in Friends' stories, cautioning against dwelling on negative content (line 7). Instead, she advocates using maturity to selectively choose what is beneficial (line 8). Lina emphasizes that teachers should not merely read stories on Timelines but reflect and adapt the information to suit their specific needs (line 9). Her response reflects an 'Analytical' (+AC) perspective, acknowledging the potential for exaggeration or unreliable information on Facebook. While she is enthusiastic about leveraging Facebook for informal learning, Lina also underscores the importance of critical evaluation, urging teachers to be selective in choosing reliable information.

In contrast to Lina but aligning with Barnett, Fiza presents an 'Avid' (+A) viewpoint regarding the use of Facebook for instrumental support. Unlike Lina, Fiza does not critique how teachers should filter information or highlight potential unintended consequences. Fiza explores various avenues for obtaining instrumental support, discussing her engagement with educational Facebook Pages, where she gains insights into new idioms and refreshes her grammar knowledge (line 11). Subscribing to these Pages ensures she is promptly notified of any updates in her News Feed.

One noteworthy method highlighted by Fiza involves interacting with more expert Friends on Facebook, providing teachers with an opportunity to acquire new knowledge. Fiza points out that she learns from information shared when her Friends ask about grammar and teaching strategies, and other Friends respond to these inquiries (line 12). This interaction not only benefits the less experienced Friends who pose questions but also extends to Friends who read these conversations as lurkers. Fiza's statement, 'when other Friends respond, I learn from there too' (line 12), underscores the collective learning that occurs within the Facebook community.

Drawing from Fiza and Barnett's insights, it becomes evident that a Community of Practice (CoP), as defined by Lave and Wenger (1991), is present on Facebook. In this virtual community, teachers engage in learning from their peers who possess more expertise and experiences. This aligns with the borderless nature of Facebook, facilitating seamless sharing of new information and knowledge among teachers worldwide.

The peripheral learning observed, where teachers read the stories shared by their Friends before applying that knowledge in their real lives, mirrors the dynamics of a Community of Practice. Facebook's capacity to foster a CoP serves as compelling evidence of its potential as a platform for teachers' informal learning. This observation supports the perspectives put forth by Kadylak and Makki (2018), affirming that Facebook indeed serves as a valuable tool for informal Teacher Professional Development (TPD).

V. CONCLUSION

In conclusion, this study sheds light on the co-constructive nature of social support among Malaysian English language teachers on Facebook Timelines. The theoretical framework, grounded in the discursive practice of making and repairing meaning, provides a robust foundation for understanding the dynamics of social support in this context. The predominant form of instrumental support sought by teachers was informational, highlighting a crucial link between social support and teachers' engagement in informal learning.

Moreover, this study illuminates the significant role of Facebook in fostering immediate communication and interaction among Malaysian English language teachers, thereby facilitating the co-construction of social support. The platform's robust features enable educators to promptly share and access informational resources, contributing to a dynamic exchange of insights. The immediacy of communication on Facebook not only keeps teachers abreast of the latest developments but also transforms the platform into a real-time forum for collaborative learning. As teachers

navigate the complexities of their profession, Facebook emerges as more than a social networking tool; it becomes a dynamic hub for continuous learning. The findings underscore the significance of Facebook as a facilitator of instrumental support, providing teachers with a prompt and accessible avenue for engaging with valuable information, ultimately enhancing their professional development.

While these findings contribute valuable insights, it is essential to acknowledge the study's limitations, such as the focus on a specific social media platform and the sample size. Future research endeavors could explore additional SNS platforms and consider expanding the participant pool for a more comprehensive understanding of social support dynamics among teachers.

REFERENCES

- [1] Abidah, A., Hidaayatullaah, H. N., Simamora, R. M., Fehabutar, D., & Mutakinati, L. (2020). The impact of covid-19 to Indonesian education and its relation to the philosophy of “merdeka belajar”. *Studies in Philosophy of Science and Education*, 1(1), 38-49. <https://doi.org/10.46627/sipose.v1i1.9>
- [2] Al Qunayeer, H. S. (2020). Exploring EFL learners' online Participation in online peer writing discussions through a Facebook group. *Journal of Information Technology Education: Research*, 19, 671-692. <https://doi.org/10.28945/4621>
- [3] American Psychological Association. (2009). How technology changes everything and nothing in psychology. *American Psychologist*, 64(5), 454-463. <https://doi.org/10.1037/a0015888>
- [4] Andrews, G., Tennant, C., Hewson, D. M., & Vaillant, G. E. (1978). Life event stress, social support, coping style, and risk of psychological impairment. *The Journal of nervous and mental disease*, 166(5), 307-316. <https://doi.org/10.1097/00005053-197805000-00001>
- [5] Asghar, M. Z., Arif, S., Barbera, E., Seitamaa-Hakkarainen, P., & Kocayoruk, E. (2021). Support through Social Media and Online Class Participation to Enhance Psychological Resilience. *International journal of environmental research and public health*, 18(22), 11962. <https://doi.org/10.3390/ijerph182211962>
- [6] Basak, E., & Calisir, F. (2015). An empirical study on factors affecting continuance intention of using Facebook. *Computers in Human Behavior*, 48, 181-189. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.chb.2015.01.055>
- [7] Beehr, T. A., & Glazer, S. (2001). A cultural perspective of social support in relation to occupational stress. *Research in Occupational Stress and Well Being*, 1, 97-142. [https://doi.org/10.1016/S1479-3555\(01\)01011-3](https://doi.org/10.1016/S1479-3555(01)01011-3)
- [8] Davis, K. (2015). Teachers' perceptions of Twitter for professional development. *Disability and rehabilitation*, 37(17), 1551-1558. <https://doi.org/10.3109/09638288.2015.1052576>
- [9] Demir, M., & Leyendecker, B. (2018). School-related social support is associated with school engagement, self-competence and health-related quality of life (HRQoL) in Turkish immigrant students. *Frontiers in Education*, 3, 83. <https://doi.org/10.3389/feduc.2018.00083>
- [10] Drijvers, P., Doorman, M., Boon, P., Reed, H., & Gravemeijer, K. (2010). The teacher and the tool: Instrumental orchestrations in the technology-rich mathematics classroom. *Educational Studies in mathematics*, 75, 213-234. <https://doi.org/10.1007/s10649-010-9254-5>
- [11] Edwards, D. (2006). Discourse, cognition and social practices: The rich surface of language and social interaction. *Discourse Studies*, 8(1), 41-49. <https://doi.org/10.1177/1461445606059551>
- [12] Ekstam, U., Korhonen, J., Linnanmäki, K., & Aunio, P. (2017). Special education pre-service teachers' interest, subject knowledge, and teacher efficacy beliefs in mathematics. *Teaching and Teacher Education*, 63, 338-345. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.tate.2017.01.009>
- [13] Elbaz, F. (1983). *Teacher Thinking: A Study of Practical Knowledge* (1st ed.). Routledge. <https://doi.org/10.4324/9780429454615>
- [14] Ellison N. B., Vitak J., Gray R. & Lampe, C. (2014). Cultivating social resources on social network sites: Facebook relationship maintenance behaviors and their role in social capital processes. *Journal of Computer-Mediated Communication*, 19(4), 855-870. <https://doi.org/10.1111/jcc4.12078>
- [15] Gee, J. P. (2005). Semiotic social spaces and affinity spaces: from The Age of Mythology to today's schools. In D. Barton & K. Tusting (Eds.), *Beyond Communities of Practice: Language Power and Social Context* (pp. 214-232). Cambridge University Press.
- [16] Greenhow, C., & Lewin, C. (2015). Social media and education: Reconceptualizing the boundaries of formal and informal learning. *Learning, Media and Technology*, 41(1), 6-30. <https://doi.org/10.1080/17439884.2015.1064954>
- [17] House, J. S. (1983). *Work stress and social support*. Addison-Wesley series on occupational stress.
- [18] Jolly, P. M., Kong, D. T., & Kim, K. Y. (2021). Social support at work: An integrative review. *Journal of Organizational Behavior*, 42(2), 229-251. <https://doi.org/10.1002/job.2485>
- [19] Kadylak, T., & Makki, T. (2018). Facebook as a social support access point: Exploring the solicitation of social support subtypes. *The Journal of Social Media in Society*, 7(2), 18-42. Retrieved July 18, 2022, from <https://thejsms.org/index.php/JSMS/article/view/368/189>
- [20] Kelly, S., & Northrop, L. (2015). Early career outcomes for the "Best and the Brightest": selectivity, satisfaction, and attrition in the beginning teacher longitudinal survey. *American Educational Research Journal*, 52(4), 624-656. <https://doi.org/10.3102/0002831215587352>
- [21] Khalid, F., Joyes, G., Ellison, L., & Karim, A. (2013). Teachers' involvement in communities of practice: An implication with regard to the current approach of teachers' professional development in Malaysia. *Asian Social Science*, 9(16), 102-111. <https://doi.org/10.5539/ass.v9n16p102>
- [22] Kimmons, R. (2012). *Identity and participation in social networking sites amongst pre-service elementary school teachers*. PhD Thesis. University of Texas.

- [23] Korte, D. S., & Simonsen, J. C. (2018). Influence of social support on teacher self-efficacy in novice agricultural education teachers. *Journal of Agricultural Education*, 59(3), 100-123. <https://doi.org/10.5032/jae.2018.03100>
- [24] Kwon, K., Park, S. J., Shin, S., & Chang, C. Y. (2019). Effects of different types of instructor comments in online discussions. *Distance Education*, 40(2), 226-242. <https://doi.org/10.1080/01587919.2019.1602469>
- [25] Lantz-Andersson, A. (2018). Language play in a second language: Social media as contexts for emerging Sociopragmatic competence. *Education and Information Technologies*, 23(2), 705-724. <https://doi.org/10.1007/s10639-017-9631-0>
- [26] Lave, J. and Wenger, E. (1991). *Situated learning: legitimate peripheral participation*. Cambridge University Press.
- [27] Leask, M. & Younie, S. (2013). National models for continuing professional development: the challenges of twenty-first-century knowledge management. *Professional Development in Education*, 39(2), 273-287. <https://doi.org/10.1080/19415257.2012.749801>
- [28] Minghui, L., Lei, H., Xiaomeng, C., & Potmėšile, M. (2018). Teacher efficacy, work engagement, and social support among Chinese special education school teachers. *Frontiers in Psychology*, 9, 648. <https://doi.org/10.3389/fpsyg.2018.00648>
- [29] Moore, K. & McElroy, J.C. (2012). The influence of personality on Facebook usage, wall postings, and regret. *Computers in Human Behavior*, 28(1), 267-274. <http://dx.doi.org/10.1016/j.chb.2011.09.009>
- [30] Münzer, A., Ganser, H., & Goldbeck, L. (2017). Social support, negative maltreatment-related cognitions and posttraumatic stress symptoms in children and adolescents. *Child Abuse Neglect*, 63, 183-191. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.chiabu.2016.11.015>
- [31] Nguyen, M. H., Gruber, J., Marler, W., Hunsaker, A., Fuchs, J., & Hargittai, E. (2021). Staying connected while physically apart: Digital communication when face-to-face interactions are limited. *New Media & Society*, 24(9), 2046-2067. <https://doi.org/10.1177/1461444820985442>
- [32] Rashid, R.A. (2016b). Topic continuation strategies employed by teachers in managing supportive conversations on Facebook Timeline. *Discourse Studies*, 18(2), 188-203. <https://doi.org/10.1177/1461445615623906>
- [33] Rashid, R. A., Yunus, K., & Wahab, Z. (2018). *Supportive conversations on Facebook timelines: Discourse topic management*. Routledge.
- [34] Schroeder, S., Curcio, R., & Lundgren, L. (2019). Expanding the learning network: How teachers use Pinterest. *Journal of Research on Technology in Education*, 51(2), 166-186. <https://doi.org/10.1080/15391523.2019.1573354>
- [35] Schultz, B. E., Corbett, C. F., & Hughes, R. G. (2022). Instrumental support: A conceptual analysis. *Nursing Forum*, 57(4), 665-670. <https://doi.org/10.1111/nuf.12704>
- [36] Shulman, L.S. (1987). Knowledge and teaching: foundations of the new reform. *Harvard Educational Review*, 57(1), 1-23. <https://doi.org/10.17763/haer.57.1.j463w79r56455411>
- [37] Strati, A. D., Schmidt, J. A. & Maier, K. S. (2017). Perceived challenge, teacher support, and teacher obstruction as predictors of student engagement. *Journal of Educational Psychology*, 109(1), 131-147. Retrieved July 18, 2022, from <https://psycnet.apa.org/manuscript/2016-10825-001.pdf>
- [38] Taylor, S. E. (2011). Social support: A review. In H. S. Friedman (Ed.), *The Oxford handbook of health psychology* (pp. 190-214). Oxford University Press. <https://doi.org/10.1093/oxfordhb/9780195342819.013.0009>
- [39] Tian, L., Zhao, J., & Huebner, E. S. (2015). School-related social support and subjective well-being in school among adolescents: The role of self-system factors. *Journal of adolescence*, 45(1), 138-148. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.adolescence.2015.09.003>
- [40] Utz, S., & Breuer, J. (2017). The Relationship Between Use of Social Network Sites, Online Social Support, and Well-Being: Results From a Six-Wave Longitudinal Study. *Journal of media psychology*, 29(3), 115-125. <https://doi.org/10.1027/1864-1105/a000222>
- [41] Walsh, S. (2006). Talking the talk of the TESOL classroom. *English Language Teaching Journal*, 60(2), 133-141. <http://dx.doi.org/10.1093/elt/cci100>
- [42] Wang, Y., Leon, P.G., Norcie, G., Acquisti, A. & Cranor, L.F. (2011). 'I regretted the minute I pressed share': a qualitative study of regrets on Facebook. *Seventh symposium on usable privacy and security*, 10, pp. 1-16. Retrieved July 10, 2022, from https://cups.cs.cmu.edu/soups/2011/proceedings/a10_Wang.pdf

Radzuwan Ab Rashid is an Associate Professor in the Faculty of Languages and Communication, Universiti Sultan Zainal Abidin, Malaysia. He obtained his PhD in Education from the University of Nottingham, United Kingdom and he completed his postdoctoral fellowship at the University of Leeds exploring Applied Linguistics in an educational context. His research interests include teacher education and professional development, and contemporary discourse in online settings. He is the Editor-in-Chief of *Journal of Nusantara Studies (Jonus)*, a social science journal indexed in the Web of Science. He has had research articles published in *Discourse Studies*, *Discourse & Society*, *Policy Futures in Education* and many other Scopus and WoS journals. He is the main author of three books: *The Teaching of Literature to Less Proficient Students* published by UniSA Press (2020), *Supportive Conversations on Facebook Timelines*, published by Routledge (2018), and *New Media Narratives and Cultural Influence in Malaysia*, published by Springer (2019). In 2019, Clarivate Analytics (Web of Science) nominated him for the Malaysia Research Star Award in the category Research and Innovation Excellence, Researcher in Arts and Applied Arts.

Omar Ali Al-Smadi is an academic and researcher in the field of Applied Linguistics at the School of Distance Education, Universiti Sains Malaysia. Throughout his career, He has taken on several academic and administrative roles and has made significant contributions to the academic community through his research. As an editor and a reviewer for various regional and international journals, he remains actively engaged in the scholarly discourse of his field. He aims to expand his expertise in technology-enhanced learning, thereby further enriching his contributions to the field of Applied Linguistics.

Marwan Harb Alqaryouti was born in Zarqa, Jordan in 1969. He received his PhD in English Language Studies / Literature / Universiti Sultan Zainal Abidin / Malaysia. He is currently an Associate professor at the Department of English Language and Literature at Zarqa University, Jordan. His research interest includes Literary Criticism. Dr. Alqaryouti is a member of the Jordanian Translators and Applied Linguists Association and Jordanian Translators.

Ala Eddin Sadeq was born in Zarqa, Jordan in 1971. He received his PhD Degree in Literature from University of Rajasthan, India in 2000. He is currently a Professor at Zarqa University / Jordan. His research interest includes English Literature. Prof. Ala Eddin Sadeq is Vice President of Zarqa University for Academic Affairs. He is a member in Jordanian Translators and Applied Linguists Association and Jordanian Translators Association.

Factors Influencing Preservice EFL Teachers' Technology Integration Into Language Teaching

Tang Junhong

Department of Language and Literacy Education, Faculty of Education, Universiti Malaya, Kuala Lumpur, Malaysia

Jia Wei Lim*

Department of Language and Literacy Education, Faculty of Education, Universiti Malaya, Kuala Lumpur, Malaysia

Meng Yew Tee

Department of Curriculum and Instructional Technology, Faculty of Education, Universiti Malaya, Kuala Lumpur, Malaysia

Abstract—In the 21st century, preservice EFL teachers must be able to integrate technology into language education. However, very little research has been carried out on the specific factors that influence preservice teachers to integrate appropriate technology into their language teaching. This study aimed to explore exactly what influences preservice EFL teachers to choose the appropriate technology to incorporate into their lessons through a two-cycle design-based research study. The findings suggest that preservice EFL instructors' comprehension of language teaching methods and approaches has the greatest influence on technological integration in their classrooms. In addition, the instructor's direct guidance also facilitates their appropriate technology integration into language teaching. As a result, teacher education programs are designed to provide preservice EFL instructors with language teaching methods and approaches before assisting them in learning how to incorporate appropriate technology into specific language teaching methods or approaches. Finally, the researchers suggest that instructors also provide direct advice to preservice EFL teachers as they explore the incorporation of technology into language education.

Index Terms—technology integration, language teaching methods and approaches, guidance, preservice EFL teachers

I. INTRODUCTION

The increasing availability of technology has fundamentally transformed the teaching and learning process nowadays (Akayoğlu et al., 2020; Mishra & Koehler, 2006; Koehler et al., 2014). Indeed, when used appropriately, it can not only enhance teaching and learning (Lee et al., 2014) but can also play a crucial role in modern foreign language education (Park & Son, 2022). As a result, there has been an increasing necessity for preservice teachers to be able to critically analyze instructional technologies in order to teach safely, intelligently, and productively using technology in the classroom. (Akayoğlu et al., 2020; Baran et al., 2019; Tondeur et al., 2012; Tondeur et al., 2018; Tondeur et al., 2020). Teacher education programs must provide preservice teachers with the technical skills and a deeper understanding of how to use technology in language teaching, as it is essential for today's language teachers to integrate appropriate technology into language teaching to foster learning opportunities for language learners (Akayoğlu et al., 2020; Gönen, 2019; Ranellucci et al., 2020).

Still, current research suggests that preservice teachers are struggling with integrating technology into teaching, and they still feel unprepared for technology integration, finding it challenging to identify appropriate technology to support teaching and learning in the classroom (Mouza, 2016; Ranellucci et al., 2020; Wang et al., 2018). Moreover, their frequent use of technology in class did not guarantee successful integration of technology for language learning and teaching purposes (Gönen, 2019). Therefore, there is a need to better understand what factors influence preservice teachers' ability to identify and use appropriate technology to support their language teaching (Park & Son, 2022).

II. COMMUNICATIVE LANGUAGE TEACHING

The effectiveness of a pedagogical approach hinges significantly on its alignment with the specific teaching and learning situation, its objectives, and its learners (Hu, 2005; Wu & Wu, 2014). In an English as a Foreign Language (EFL) learning and teaching context, the classroom is the most important (and perhaps the only) place for students to learn the language (Li, 2016; Shu & Zhuang, 2008; Zhang, 2003). Thamarana (2015) suggests that Communicative Language Teaching (CLT) is one of the best approaches to teaching EFL. CLT is believed to be successful in elevating students' learning performance, especially in the field of EFL (Armnazi & Alakrash, 2021; Han, 2022). Moreover, Liao

* Corresponding Author. Email: jwlim@um.edu.my

(2004) declares that CLT is best for China. In addition, Hammer (2016) suggests that learners of different ages have different needs, competencies, and cognitive skills. Considering the participants in this study are training to be junior high school EFL teachers, their pedagogical content knowledge (PCK) is confined to CLT.

CLT is essentially the fusion of grammatical and functional instruction (Richards & Rodgers, 2014). Littlewood (1981) and Wang (2006) also put forward the idea that paying systematic attention to functional as well as structural aspects of language is one of the most characteristic features of CLT. Liu (2000) also suggests that teaching students how to use the language is considered to be as important as learning the language itself (Liu, 2020). According to Littlewood (1981), as shown in Table 1, CLT classroom activities in EFL learning include pre-communicative activities of structural activities and quasi-communicative activities, as well as communicative activities of functional communication activities and social interaction activities.

TABLE 1
CLT ACTIVITIES IN EFL LEARNING

CLT Activities	
Pre-Communicative Activities	Structural Activities
	Quasi-Communicative Activities
Communicative Activities	Functional Communication Activities
	Social Interaction Activities

In structural activities, the teacher has an overt teaching of language items so that students are able to perceive and understand them. Quasi-communicative activities take account of communicative and structural facts about language (Littlewood, 1981). Furthermore, most of the learning exercises in the pre-communicative activities consist of various drills or question-and-answer practice. The teacher's overall purpose is to prepare learners for later communicative activity with necessary linguistic items and essential links between language structures and meaning (Littlewood, 1981).

In functional communication activities, the teacher organizes the situation so that learners have to overcome an information gap or solve a problem. Instead of only asking and answering questions, learners can now use language for describing, suggesting, asking for clarification, helping each other, and so on. In social interaction activities, the teacher requires the students to go beyond what is necessary in simply "getting meaning across" in order to develop greater social acceptability in the language. It may also involve producing speech that is socially appropriate to specific situations and relationships (Littlewood, 1981).

III. METHODOLOGY

A. Research Design

Design-based research (DBR) emerged in the early 21st century as a practical research methodology. It offers a promising means to bridge the gap between research and formal education practice and is characterized by its interventionist nature (Anderson & Shattuck, 2012; Hoadley & Campos, 2022). Therefore, the modified learning by design (mLBD) approach proposed in this DBR study was the intervention aiming to find out the factors influencing preservice EFL teachers' appropriate technology integration into language teaching. The mLBD approach came from infusing six individual Synthesis of Qualitative Data (SQD) strategies, namely Role Models, Reflection, Instructional Design, Peer Collaboration, Authentic Experience, and Continuous Feedback (Tondeur et al., 2012; Tondeur et al., 2020) into the original learning by design (LBD) approach which is suggested in order to develop teachers' technological pedagogical content knowledge (TPACK) through designing and redesigning curriculum materials (Koehler & Mishra, 2005a; Koehler & Mishra, 2005b; Koehler et al., 2007).

Design-based interventions are seldom executed flawlessly. There perpetually exists an opportunity for enhancements in design (Anderson & Shattuck, 2012; Hoadley & Campos, 2022). As a result, a two-cycle DBR study was chosen for this research to design, implement, evaluate, and refine the mLBD approach to discover what influences preservice EFL teachers in their integration of the appropriate technology into language teaching. The mLBD approach was implemented as part of an English Teaching Methods and Practice course taught by the researcher.

B. Participants

Participation in this study was completely voluntary, and informed consent was obtained before the outset of each DBR cycle. There were 27 participants in the first cycle and 29 participants in the second cycle. Both cohorts of participants enrolled in the aforementioned course that the researcher instructed. They were English education majors in China training to become junior high school English teachers and ranged in age from 19 to 22 years old. Prior to the beginning of the module, they had studied some foreign language teaching methods and approaches, including CLT, which was assumed to form their pedagogical content knowledge (PCK).

C. Data Sources

During the DBR study, triangulated data from audio recordings of group discussions, peer feedback, semi-structured interviews, video recordings of micro-teachings, participants' reflection diary entries, and group lesson plans was collected. Content analysis and constant comparative analysis were used to analyze the data to find out what factors influenced the participants' appropriate technology integration into language teaching.

IV. FINDINGS

This study involves the use of technologies to facilitate CLT activities; therefore, in terms of the appropriateness of the technology, there were three criteria. First, the technology used must aim to facilitate CLT activities. Second, the technology used in CLT activities must be at an English level appropriate for targeted students. Third, the technology used in CLT activities must be context-appropriate for an EFL learning environment.

A. *Inappropriate Technology Integration in the First DBR Cycle*

In the first DBR cycle, each of the five participant groups made an effort to include technology in their micro-teachings. The technology they employed, however, supported their Presentation, Practice, and Production (PPP) model rather than their purported CLT.

One critical reason for the participants' inability to integrate appropriate technology into CLT to support students' meaningful communication was their superficial understanding of CLT. They misunderstood CLT as PPP. Group 3, for example, assumed their communicative function in their micro-teaching was sharing ideas on the advantages and disadvantages of printed books and e-books. They spent almost half of the time making presentations and controlled practice of the sentence pattern "It is/was + adjectives + (for somebody) + to do something" with the help of carefully crafted PowerPoint (PPT) slides and selected micro-lectures.



Figure 1. Carefully Crafted PPT Slide to Support Overt Teaching

As shown in Figure 1, Group 3 meticulously used different colors to present the different parts of the aforementioned sentence pattern. More specifically, they used light blue to present the formal subject of "It", green for the copula of "is (was)", orange for the adjectives, dark blue for "for somebody (sb.)", and purple for "to do something (sth.)". In this way, they helped students see and understand the different parts of the sentence pattern. As a result, the carefully designed PPT slide did support the teacher's presentation of the new sentence pattern.

After the presentation of the sentence pattern, a controlled practice followed with the help of pictures. As shown in Figure 2, the teacher first made a demonstration using "It is right (for us) to give seats to the elderly" to describe the left picture in Figure 2. Then, the teacher asked the students to describe the right picture using the newly learned sentence pattern. The pictures helped the students practice the sentence pattern in a controlled exercise.

As mentioned before, in CLT, the purpose of pre-communicative activities is to prepare learners for later communicative activities by providing them with the necessary linguistic items. However, in Group 3's micro-teaching, the students' acquired and repeated phrase patterns had no bearing on the subsequent "debate", which was supposed to provide chances for students to engage in meaningful conversation. In terms of technology, Group 3 did utilize an online timer to determine the speaking time for each debater, but this did not lead to any productive dialogue. The following debate excerpts demonstrate how each debater expressed their opinions in isolation, one after the other, without consulting one another. All of the debaters read their ostensibly prepared scripts without commenting or reacting to the previous debaters' ideas.

Debater 1: "Compared with e-books, paper books can be read and thought about over and over again. It's also convenient for us to take notes on paper books."

Debater 2: "Compared with paper books, e-books can save paper and reduce the number of trees cut down. It can protect the environment and be low-carbon."

Debater 3: I think paper books can help us concentrate our attention. Reading paper books can help us stop playing games and watching videos. (G3-IMT-DBR1)

Furthermore, despite the teacher's best efforts and nearly half of the micro-teaching time devoted to presenting and practicing the phrase pattern, as the aforementioned samples showed, the debaters' points had no bearing on the previously taught sentence pattern. In addition, the selected video played before the debate, as the following excerpts

showed, was too difficult for junior high school students in Grade 8.

E-books versus printed books: which is really better? Prepare for Round 1. Let's talk about the features. According to 68 percent of young adult readers with devices used for reading, a person can read in any light condition, adjust the text size, highlight text for later reference, store a lot of books on one device, and carry it anywhere. Books offer a physical aspect that an e-book does not. You can flip through its pages and directly write notes on the book itself, giving a more natural experience". (35 seconds, 87 words) (G3-IMT-DBR1)

As seen in the excerpt from the video, EFL students were given just 35 seconds to comprehend 87 words in a language they are just learning. Even more problematic, within this short period of 35 seconds, there were eight unfamiliar words and expressions noted (underlined in the excerpt above). As a result, this video was inappropriate for the English level as it failed to aptly match the students' English proficiency level.

Although the participants in the first DBR cycle used some technology to practice language items through controlled practice and introduce new language items, they neglected to equip their students with the language skills they would need for meaningful conversation in the future. Even more problematic, the technology was neither English-level appropriate nor communicative function appropriate. In a word, the technology they used failed to facilitate CLT and create opportunities for students to have meaningful communication.

B. Appropriate Technology Integration in the Second DBR Cycle

In contrast to the first DBR cycle, all five groups of the second cohort of participants in the second DBR cycle displayed positive technology integration into language teaching. In particular, they used technology to help teach essential language items in a structural activity, to encourage students to practice previously learned words, to help teach phrases and sentence structures in a quasi-communicative question-and-answer session, and to close the knowledge gap so that students could engage in meaningful communication in the communicative activities. More importantly, the teaching and practice of linguistic items prepared students with the linguistic items needed to have meaningful communication in later functional and social interaction activities.

For instance, Group 2 prepared their students with the necessary linguistic resources for later meaningful communication based on their communicative function of describing something or asking somebody to describe something. To illustrate, in the beginning of their micro-teaching, they had a lesson on words, phrases, and sentence patterns such as "celebrate", "During the festival, people often do...", "fall on", "be a symbol of", and "It is one of + the + superlative degree + plural nouns" that can be used to describe the time and date, the activities, as well as the significance of festivals and events. Then, as the following excerpts show, Group 2 resourcefully practiced the learned linguistic items through asking and answering questions related to the text in a quasi-communicative activity.

T: "What is the text about?"

Ss: "Easter."

T: "Easter is an important festival in Western culture. We can use this sentence, "It is one of + the + superlative degree + plural nouns" to describe the festival. Who would like to describe the festival using this sentence pattern?"

S1: "It is one of the most important festivals in Western countries."

T: "There are many customs, especially for children. What do rabbits and eggs symbolize at Easter? Please use this phrase "by symbol of" to answer my question."

S2: "Rabbits and eggs are symbols of new life."

T: "When is Easter? Please use "depend on" and "fall on" to answer when Easter is."

S3: "The date depends on the Moon. But it always falls on a Sunday in March or April."

T and Ss: Easter does not...fall on the same day. It depends on... the Moon. (G2-IMT-DBR2)

The above excerpts showed that the newly learned two phrases "depend on" and "fall on" were not only used and practiced but also served to illustrate communicative facts. When the teacher asked when Easter is, one of the students responded to the teacher and answered the teacher's question using the newly learned language structures of "depend on" and "fall on". More importantly, in order to consolidate students' learning and communicate with more students, the teacher deliberately presented "depend on" and "fall on" in another way by saying "Easter does not" with a pause to wait for the students' response. Most students satisfactorily gave the response "fall on the same day". Similarly, the teacher said "It depends on" with a pause, and the students responded with "the Moon". In this way, not only did the language items get practiced, but they were also used in a more meaningful way. Moreover, during the process of question-and-answer, as shown in Figure 3, the teacher provided the newly learned language items in carefully crafted PPT slides and helped students answer questions in the quasi-communicative activity.

Compared to the aforementioned one-sentence description of the pictures in Group 3's controlled practice in the first DBR cycle, Group 2's question-and-answer process in the second DBR cycle created an opportunity for the students to recognize the communicative function as well as the structure of the linguistic items.

Furthermore, the aim of Group 2's teaching and practice in the question-and-answer portion was to prepare students with the necessary linguistic resources and a sense of linkage between linguistic structures and communicative function for later meaningful communication. Essentially, the learned language items were used in later authentic communication in the functional communication activity. Moreover, in order to create an information gap, Group 2 delivered three video clips to different group members within one group and asked them to watch them before class.

During class, the group members exchanged information and described what they watched. The following were some excerpts from the students' discussion and description of the Spring Festival based on the video clips watched before class.

S18: When is the Chinese New Year (another name for the Spring Festival)?

S23: Every year between late January and...

S22 (interrupting student 23): January and early February. Every year between January and early February. It depends on the Moon.

S19: Chinese New Year is a fresh start, is it?

S21: Yes, it is a symbol of...

S20 (interrupting student 21): a fresh start.

S21: A fresh start. And it falls on the New Moon that appears between January 21 and February 20.

S18: The Chinese also clean their houses and gardens.

S19: During the festival, people often...

S18 (interrupting student 23): Chinese people often clean their homes and gardens.

S22: How to celebrate it?

S19: We can... Family members and best friends can get together. (G4-FA-G2-MT2)

The excerpts showed that two-way, meaningful communication did happen. The students actively took part in describing the Spring Festival. A few students were sometimes in such a hurry to share ideas, and they interrupted the other student's description to give their own. Moreover, each of the six group members asked about or described the Spring Festival.

Most importantly, it is worth mentioning that meaningful communication was resourcefully supported by appropriate technology in the form of video clips. In order to achieve their communicative objective of asking for a description and describing something, they adeptly used video clips to create an information gap for the students. Specifically, they delivered three different video clips to different group members within each group via the online learning application. The three video clips were about what the Spring Festival is, when it is, and how to celebrate it. Each group had five to six group members, and one or two group members received the same video clip but had no idea of the other two video clips. Therefore, the three different video clips helped create the information gap for the students to have group communication. After group communication, each group member was supposed to have all of the available information from the three video clips and prepare to share this information with the whole class. In sum, the participants in the second DBR cycle used appropriate technology such as slideshows and video clips that supported students in having meaningful communication, a key characteristic of CLT.

C. Factors Influencing Appropriate Technology Integration

The first cohort's poor technology integration and the second cohort's positive technology integration resulted from their different levels of CLT understanding and the instructor's different degree of guidance.

(a). Different Levels of CLT Understanding of Participants

As aforementioned, the first cohort of participants used technology to support their PPP model instead of their claimed CLT in the first DBR cycle. In contrast, the second cohort of participants in the second DBR cycle used appropriate technology to support their CLT. One of the reasons they did so was their different level of CLT understanding.

1. The Superficial Understanding of CLT by the First Cohort of Participants

The participants in the first DBR cycle attempted to design CLT lessons and practice them. However, as shown in Table 2, they failed to identify proper communicative functions in their lesson plans. Since each group's micro-teaching was based on their respective lesson plan, they were supposed to implement CLT activities to achieve their targeted communicative functions in their micro-teachings. Nevertheless, three of the five groups forgot their assumed communicative functions in their practice of micro-teaching.

TABLE 2
SEEMINGLY COMMUNICATIVE OBJECTIVES IN CYCLE ONE

Groups	Seemingly communicative functions listed in lesson plans	Seemingly communicative functions listed in micro-teachings
1	Report how people use the internet	None
2	Describe festivals and exchange information about different festivals	None
3	Share ideas on the advantages and disadvantages of printed books and e-books	Share ideas on the advantages and disadvantages of printed books and e-books
4	Express and share ideas	Express and share ideas
5	Share ideas on the advantages and disadvantages of the internet	None

Although only Groups 3 and 4 outlined their initially assumed communicative functions in their practice of micro-teaching, Group 3 limited their communicative function to sharing ideas on the advantages and disadvantages of

both printed books and e-books, which was confined to their specific given text. They did not care about how the students shared ideas about other events.

In the first DBR cycle, the participants used technology such as videos, the internet, and PowerPoint slides to support their presentation of new words, phrases, and sentence patterns along with controlled practice; still, no group recognized that the underlying objective of this technology-supported presentation and practice was to equip students with the necessary linguistic items for later communication. In other words, they had no understanding of systematic attention concerning the structural and functional aspects of language—a key characteristic of CLT. Their lessons were more like a PPP model than a CLT lesson, though they claimed their lessons were CLT lessons. Consequently, their use of technology failed to support CLT activities. The following excerpts from Group 2's discussion on their iterative lesson plan displayed that they had a misunderstanding about meaningful communication.

P7: Perhaps we could have the students start with doing the exercises and then have them discuss and share their answers afterward.

P11: Right, sharing their answers.

P8: Also, when the teacher asked the students to answer the questions, a form of authentic communication happened.

P10: Agreed.

P9: Answering the questions was meaningful communication between the teacher and the students.

(G2-D1-ILP-DBR1)

The above discussion showed that Group 2 misunderstood what meaningful communication was. They thought the one-way ask-and-answer questions that happened in controlled practice were a kind of meaningful communication between the teacher and the students. With this misunderstanding, it was very hard for them to use technology to create opportunities for meaningful communication between students.

As aforementioned, only Group 4 listed the proper communicative function of expressing and sharing ideas in their micro-teaching. However, they just listed. They mistook generalizing the main idea of a specific text as a general expressing and sharing of ideas. The following excerpt from their discussion on redesigning their micro-teaching demonstrated this:

P20: Then, what is our communicative objective?

P21: Generalize the main idea.

P23: Yes. Stating the main idea of the text.

P22: We can ask students to discuss the main idea of the text.

P24: One student may answer "The Internet". Another student may answer "Love". Then we can combine their answers. This is a kind of discussion. (G4-D-IMT-DBR1)

In the iterative micro-teaching, the teacher did say that she would give students 3 minutes to discuss the main idea of the text in pairs. However, it was only after 35 seconds that the teacher declared the time was up and asked students to share their ideas. Undoubtedly, 35 seconds was too short for the students to have any real, meaningful communication, so it did not happen at all.

Clearly, the first cohort of participants not only failed to set up their targeted communicative functions but also misunderstood what meaningful communication was. In addition, they did not have the forethought to prepare students with the necessary linguistic items for later meaningful communication. Even worse, as also mentioned previously, the first cohort of participants did not implement CLT activities but rather a PPP model in their practice of micro-teaching. There was no mention of using technology to support CLT activities and create opportunities for meaningful communication between the students. In short, the first cohort of participants had a very superficial understanding of CLT.

2. The Deeper Understanding of CLT by the Second Cohort of Participants

In contrast to the first cohort's superficial understanding of CLT in the first DBR cycle, the second cohort in the second DBR cycle had a deeper understanding of CLT. As shown in Table 3, each of the five groups of participants identified their targeted communicative functions in both their CLT lesson plans and micro-teachings.

TABLE 3
TARGETED COMMUNICATIVE FUNCTION

Groups	Targeted Communicative Functions in Lesson Plans	Targeted Communicative Functions in Micro-teachings
1	Understand messages or descriptions as well as describe sth or sb.	Understand messages or descriptions as well as describe sth or sb.
2	Ask for a description of something and describe something	Ask for a description of something and describe something
3	Argue or debate	Argue or debate
4	Discuss possibilities, probabilities, or capabilities of doing something	Discuss possibilities, probabilities, or capabilities of doing something
5	Indicating agreement or disagreement	Indicating agreement or disagreement

The participants engaged in pre-communicative activities to provide their students with the language resources needed for meaningful communication in the targeted communicative function later on in the communicative activity.

In addition, they set up their respective targeted communicative functions.

Please read the following prompt:

Do the former structural activities and quasi-communicative activities prepare students for later meaningful communications in functional communication activities and social interaction activities? If yes, please illustrate how they prepare the students for meaningful communication with specific examples. If no, please explain why not and how to improve it.

As shown in the following excerpt from one of the participant's responses to the above reflection prompt, the participant's full awareness that the aim of the pre-communicative activities was to equip students with linguistic items for later authentic communication is clear. Furthermore, it also demonstrated that they paid systematic attention to functional as well as structural language aspects in their teaching.

The main communicative objective of our lesson was to indicate agreement and disagreement. In the structural activity, we explicitly taught words and phrases such as "advantages", "disadvantages", "cause", "properly", "I'm afraid I can't agree", and "As far as I am concerned". These expressions were aimed at indicating agreement and disagreement. Subsequently, during the quasi-communicative activity, we tasked the students with employing the aforementioned vocabulary to respond to questions. This process was designed to help them gain proficiency in using the previously learned expressions and to prepare them for more meaningful communication in later activities. Transitioning to a functional activity, students were prompted to apply the previously learned and practiced vocabulary to convey agreement and disagreement concerning primary school students spending 1.5 hours on the internet each day. (P24-G5-RDE4-DBR2)

The participant mentioned their targeted communicative function at first. This evidently proved that they kept their communicative function in mind in the whole process of designing and implementing each CLT activity, which demonstrated their complete understanding of CLT. To be more specific, they had full awareness that the aim of their teaching the structural activity was to prepare students with the necessary linguistic resources for their targeted communicative function of indicating agreement and disagreement. In the quasi-communicative activity that followed, the newly learned language items were practiced for later meaningful communication on the subject of indicating agreement and disagreement with the fact that primary school students' spend 1.5 hours on the internet each day.

(b). *Instructor's Different Degree of Guidance*

Based on the findings of the first DBR cycle, the instructor conducted after-class seminars, provided discussion and feedback guidelines, and improved the original general and abroad prompts on reflection diary entries into specific and detailed ones in the second DBR cycle.

1. *Just-in-Time and Targeted After-Class Seminars*

During the first DBR cycle, the instructor's feedback on the participants' presented lesson plans and practice of micro-teaching was contained within the 1.5 hour classroom sessions during the allotted seven weeks. It was assumed these sessions would be adequate in guiding participants to effectively integrate technology into CLT activities. However, the findings of the first DBR cycle showed that it was far from enough. Different groups had different issues, and it was difficult for the instructor to conduct targeted and detailed feedback on each group's issues regarding their understanding of CLT and their technology integration into CLT activities within the limited 1.5-hour class session. Regarding this, in the second DBR cycle, the instructor organized just-in-time and targeted after-class seminars and provided targeted and specific feedback to different problems and questions of different participants in terms of CLT activities and technology integration into CLT activities.

For instance, in the initial lesson plan, Groups 2, 3, and 5 confined their communicative functions solely to the context of their respective lessons. For example, Group 2's communicative function centered around asking for a description of festivals as well as describing festivals, which clearly lacked broader real-world applicability. Interestingly, despite this limitation, none of the participants explicitly raised this concern in their feedback during the class session. However, due to time constraints within the class, the opportunity to thoroughly deliberate and identify suitable communicative objectives for these specific groups was restricted. Notably, these communicative functions stood as pivotal pillars underpinning all CLT activities. As a remedial measure, the instructor conducted targeted and timely seminars for each of these three groups after the class to help them understand what communicative functions should be and how to identify their targeted communicative functions. As a result, Group 2 modified their communicative objective by asking for a description of something and describing something.

2. *Directed Feedback, Discussions, and Reflections*

In the first DBR cycle, as the following excerpts demonstrated, the participants' feedback and discussions on designing and redesigning their lesson plans and micro-teachings failed to focus on CLT activities and technology integration into CLT activities.

In the PPT slides, it was very good that they used different colors to highlight different parts of the sentence pattern. It was helpful for the students to master the sentence pattern. The teacher's intonation and pronunciation were very good. The speed was also not too fast or too slow. In addition, it was very good and helpful that the students were first required to find out the sentence pattern by themselves and then watched a

related video to consolidate their mastery of the sentence pattern. As to the shortcomings, there were so many words on the PPT slide of the learning objectives. (P6-G2-G3-IMT-F)

The above excerpts came from Group 1's feedback on Group 3's practice of micro-teaching. In the feedback, they mentioned the advantages of using different colors to indicate different parts of the sentence pattern, the teacher's intonation, pronunciation, speed of speaking English, and even the design of PPT slides. In other words, the feedback did not focus on the supposed CLT activities and technology integration; rather, they talked about whatever came to mind.

In order to direct participants to focus on CLT activities and technology integration, the instructor provided the following discussion and feedback guidelines in the second DBR cycle:

In the process of providing feedback, as well as a group discussion on designing and redesigning lesson plans and micro-teachings, the following points must be kept in mind:

- Did the group set their targeted communicative function? If yes, what is it? If no, what should it be?
- Did the structural activities and quasi-communicative activities really prepare the learners for later communication in functional activities and social interaction activities? If yes, how? If no, how can it be redesigned to prepare learners in pre-communicative activities for later communicative activities?
- Did meaningful communication happen in the class? If yes, where and how? If no, how can it be redesigned to create meaningful communication?
- Were the technologies used in CLT activities English-level (speed, vocabulary, topic, etc.) appropriate, context appropriate, and communicative-function appropriate for the targeted students?

The above guidelines reminded the second cohort of participants that communicative function should be the first thing to consider. In addition, it also alerted the participants to the aim of pre-communicative, structural, and quasi-communicative activities which was to prepare students for later meaningful communication. Moreover, they must keep in mind that the technologies used must be appropriate in terms of English level, learning context, and a targeted communicative function.

As a result, the following excerpts from Group 1's discussion on redesigning their micro-teaching imply that the second cohort of participants' discussion and feedback focused on CLT and technology integration in CLT activities in the second DBR cycle.

P1: So, how can we effectively incorporate technology?

P2: We proposed that students spend 30 minutes surfing the internet the night prior to the class.

P3: The following day, the teacher prompts each student to share their internet activity from the previous night.

P4: This is where meaningful communication would come into play. (G1-D-IMT-DBR2)

The above excerpts showed that Group 1 focused their discussion on using technologies to support CLT activities and created opportunities for students to have meaningful communication.

In addition, the original broad guidelines for reflection diary entries were improved and made into specific and detailed guidelines. For instance, the original "How do you understand technology integration into CLT activities now?" was changed into "How do you understand technology integration into CLT activities to support students' meaningful communication now? Please illustrate with specific examples." With the requirement of illustration with specific examples in the second DBR cycle, the participants had to reflect on their understanding of CLT and review the appropriateness of the use of technologies within their reflection diary entries. As the following excerpts demonstrate, the detailed and specific guidelines for their reflection diaries helped them have a deeper understanding of CLT and technology integration.

During the process of reflection, we consider and come up with ideas beyond what we learned in the previous classes. How can we better modify and enhance our lesson plan and micro-teaching? In that sense, for instance, in the CLT activities, we carefully consider how to reflect and improve our CLT activities more effectively during the process of reflection. And in this way, I think I have had a deeper understanding of CLT and know how to better use appropriate technologies to support CLT activities (P8-G2-Post-I-DBR2).

As participant 8 articulated, they would carefully consider and reflect on how to improve their activities in their process of writing reflection diary entries. Through careful reflection, they gained a deeper understanding of CLT as well as the integration of technology into CLT activities.

V. DISCUSSION

The findings of the first and second DBR cycles demonstrated that a deeper understanding of PCK plays a pivotal role in preservice teachers' appropriate technology integration into language teaching. The inappropriate integration of technology in the first DBR cycle proved Gönen's (2019) suggestion that teachers' frequent use of technology in and out of the classroom does not guarantee successful integration of technology for language teaching purposes (Gönen, 2019). The participants' purpose in this study was to use technology to support CLT activities and create opportunities for students' meaningful communication in English in their respective targeted communicative functions. However, the first cohort of participants in the first DBR cycle only used technology to support their presentation of language structures and controlled practice. Even worse, the language structures presented and practiced had little relation to later supposed communication, while CLT requires former activities to prepare students with the necessary linguistic

resources for later communication. Therefore, the micro-teachings demonstrated in the first DBR cycle were more like a PPP model than a CLT one. Consequently, the participants' superficial understanding of the language teaching approach CLT resulted in their failure to use technology to support students' meaningful communication. As a result, a deeper understanding of language teaching methods and approaches underpins appropriate technology integration into language teaching. This finding is also in agreement with Pamuk's (2012) suggestion that technology can be effective and support learning only if it is meaningfully integrated into teaching. Therefore, teachers must make it a priority to acquire PCK before integrating technology (Pamuk, 2012). Similarly, Farjon, Smits, and Voogt (2019) also claim that technology integration is more than just merging technology into teaching. In order to integrate technology successfully, teachers need to be skilled and well-prepared regarding their PCK (Raygan & Moradkhani, 2020).

The findings of the first and second DBR cycles also implied that the instructor's directed guidance was very helpful for the participants' appropriate technology integration into language teaching. As preservice teachers have little teaching experience, they need additional guidance, in particular, to fully integrate appropriate technology into PCK during their design (Janssen, 2017; Janssen & Lazonder, 2016). As elaborated in the former section of the instructor's different degree of guidance, the second cohort of participants in the second DBR cycle did benefit a lot from the instructor's just-in-time and targeted after-class seminars as well as the instructor's directed guidance on their feedback, discussion, and reflection because careful guidance is helpful for preservice teachers to identify, integrate, and reflect on appropriate technologies to create more learning opportunities (Gönen, 2019). In contrast, the first cohort of participants in the first DBR cycle failed to focus on their PCK and technology integration into PCK because of the lack of the instructor's direct guidance. This finding is in alignment with the researchers' position that learners with little prior knowledge would benefit from the guidance offered during their learning journey (Akayoğlu et al., 2020; de Jong et al., 2023) since preservice teachers with little teaching experience have difficulty integrating appropriate technology into teaching in pedagogically meaningful ways (Valtonen et al., 2019).

VI. CONCLUSION

There are obvious limitations to this study as the participants' PCK is just confined to CLT as the participants were preservice teachers in an EFL context training to be junior high school English teachers. What the influencing factors are for in-service teachers as well as other subjects would bring fresh ideas for technology integration into PCK. Nevertheless, this study explored the process of preservice EFL teachers' discussion, identification, and usage of technology to support their language teaching through careful design-based research. The findings of the two DBR cycles indicate that teacher education programs are supposed to equip preservice EFL teachers with a solid PCK of language teaching methods and approaches first and then support them in learning how to integrate appropriate technology into language teaching. Moreover, as preservice teachers are novice learners with little teaching experience, the instructor should provide direct guidance in their process of exploring appropriate technology integration into their language teaching.

ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

The authors are grateful to all the preservice teachers who took part in the research. This study did not receive any specific grants from funding agencies in the public, commercial, or not-for-profit sectors.

REFERENCES

- [1] Akayoğlu, S., Satar, H. M., Dikilitaş, K., Cirit, N. C., & Korkmazgil, S. (2020). Digital literacy practices of Turkish pre-service EFL teachers. *Australasian Journal of Educational Technology*, 36(1), 85-97.
- [2] Anderson, T., & Shattuck, J. (2012). Design-based research: A decade of progress in education research? *Educational Researcher*, 41(1), 16-25.
- [3] Armnazi, M., & Alakrash, H. (2021). Factors affecting the application of communicative language teaching CLT in Syrian schools. *TESOL and Technology Studies*, 2(1), 1-14.
- [4] Baran, E., Bilici, C. S., Sari, A. A., & Tondeur, J. (2019). Investigating the impact of teacher education strategies on preservice teachers' TPACK. *British Journal of Educational Technology*, 50(1), 357-370.
- [5] de Jong, T., Lazonder, A. W., Chinn, C. A., Fischer, F., Gobert, J., Hmelo-Silver, C. E., Koedinger, K. R., Krajcik, J. S., Kyza, E. A., Linn, M. C., Pedaste, M., Scheiter, K., & Zacharia, Z. C. (2023). Let's talk evidence—The case for combining inquiry-based and direct instruction. *Educational Research Review*, 39, 1-14.
- [6] Farjon, D., Smits, A., & Voogt, J. (2019). Technology integration of pre-service teachers explained by attitudes and beliefs, competency, access, and experience. *Computers & Education*, 130, 81-93.
- [7] Gönen, S.İ. K. (2019). A qualitative study on a situated experience of technology integration: reflections from pre-service teachers and students. *Computer Assisted Language Learning*, 32(3), 163-189.
- [8] Han, G. (2011). *Constructing Pedagogical Content Knowledge in EFL Teachers*. Shanghai Foreign Language Education Press.
- [9] Han, I. (2022). Contextualization of communicative language teaching in Confucian heritage culture: challenging pedagogic dichotomization. *SAGE Open*, 12(1), 1-14.
- [10] Harmer, J. (2016). *The Practice of English Language Teaching* (5th Ed.). Pearson.
- [11] Hoadley, C., & Campos, F. C. (2022). Design-based research: What it is and why it matters to studying online learning. *Educational Psychologist*, 57(3), 207-220.

- [12] Howatt. (1984). *A History of English Language Teaching*. Oxford University Press
- [13] Hu., G. W. (2005). Contextual Influences on Instructional Practices: A Chinese Case for an Ecological Approach to ELT. *TESOL Quarterly*, 39(4), 635-660.
- [14] Janssen, N. (2017). *Supporting teachers' technology integration in lesson plans* (Unpublished doctoral dissertation). University of Twente.
- [15] Janssen, N., & Lazonder, A. W. (2016). Supporting pre-service teachers in designing technology-infused lesson plans. *Journal of Computer Assisted Learning*, 32, 456-467.
- [16] Koehler, M. J., & Mishra, P. (2005a). Teachers learning technology by design. *Journal of Computing in Teacher Education*, 21(3), 94-102.
- [17] Koehler, M. J., & Mishra, P. (2005b). What Happens When Teachers Design Education Technology? The Development of Technological Pedagogical Content Knowledge. *Journal of Educational Computing Research*, 32(2), 131-152.
- [18] Koehler, M. J., Mishra, P., Kereluik, K., Shin, T. S., & Graham, C. R. (2014). The technological pedagogical content knowledge framework. J.M. Spector et al. (Eds.). *Handbook of research on educational communications and technology* (pp. 101-111). Springer.
- [19] Koehler M. J., Mishra P., & Yahya K. (2007). Tracing the development of teacher knowledge in a design. *Computers & Education*, 49, 740-762.
- [20] Lee, Chia-Jung, & Kim C. M. (2014). An implementation study of a TPACK-based instructional design model in a technology integration course. *Education Tech Research Dev*, 62, 437-460.
- [21] Li, H. (2016). *Teacher-Student Negotiation of Meaning in Foreign Language Class: Interaction and Optimization*. Science Press.
- [22] Li, L., & Walsh, S. (2011). Technology uptake in Chinese EFL classes. *Language Teaching Research*, 15(1), 99-125.
- [23] Liao, X. Q. (2004). The need for communicative language teaching in China. *ELT Journal*, 58(3), 270-286.
- [24] Liu, Y. M. (2020). *English Language Teaching Methodology: Theory and Practice*. Science Press.
- [25] Littlewood, W. (1981). *Communicative Language Teaching An introduction*. Cambridge University Press.
- [26] Mishra, P., & Koehler, M. J. (2006). Technological pedagogical content knowledge: A framework for integrating technology in teacher knowledge. *Teachers College Record*, 108(6), 1017-1054.
- [27] Mouza, C. (2016). Developing and Assessing TPACK Among Pre-Service Teachers: A Synthesis of Research. In M. C. Herring, P. Mishra, & M. J. Koehler (Ed.), *Handbook of technological pedagogical content knowledge for educators* (2nd ed., pp. 169-190). Routledge.
- [28] Pamuk, S. (2012). Understanding preservice teachers' technology use through TPACK framework. *Journal of Computer Assisted Learning*, 28(5), 425-439.
- [29] Park, M., & Son, J. B. (2022). Pre-service EFL teachers' readiness in computer-assisted language learning and teaching, *Asia Pacific Journal of Education*, 42(2), 320-334.
- [30] Ranellucci, J., Rosenberg, J., & Poitras, E. (2020). Exploring pre-service teachers' use of technology: The technology acceptance model and expectancy-value theory. *Journal of Computer Assisted Learning*, 36(6), 810-824.
- [31] Raygan, A., & Moradkhani, S. (2020). Factors influencing technology integration in an EFL context: investigating EFL teachers' attitudes, TPACK level, and educational climate, *Computer Assisted Language Learning*, 35(8), 1-22.
- [32] Richards J. C. & Rodgers T. S. (2014). *Approaches and Methods in Language Teaching* (3rd Ed.). Cambridge University Press.
- [33] Shu, D. F., & Zhuang, Z. X. (2008). *Modern Foreign Language Teaching: Theories, Practice and Methods* (Modified Ed.). Shanghai Foreign Language Education Press.
- [34] Thamarana, S. (2015). A Critical Overview of Communicative Language Teaching. *International Journal of English Language, Literature and Humanities*, 3(5), 90-100.
- [35] Tondeur, J., Aesaert, K., Prestridge, S., & Consuegra, E. (2018). A multilevel analysis of what matters in the training of pre-service teacher's ICT competencies. *Computers & Education*, 122, 32-42.
- [36] Tondeur, J., Scherer, R., Siddiq, F., & Baran, E. (2020). Enhancing pre-service teachers' technological pedagogical content knowledge (TPACK): A mixed-method study. *Educational Technology Research & Development*, 68(1), 319-343.
- [37] Tondeur, J., van Braak, J., Sang, G., Voogt, J., Fisser, P., & Ottenbreit-Leftwich, A. (2012). Preparing pre-service teachers to integrate technology in education: A synthesis of qualitative evidence. *Computers & Education*, 59(1), 134-144.
- [38] Valtonen, T., Sointu, E., Kukkonen, J., Mäkitalo, K., Hoang, N., Häkkinen, P., Järvelä S., Näykki, P., Virtanen, A., Pöntinen, S., Kostianen, E., & Tondeur, J. (2019). Examining pre-service teachers' Technological Pedagogical Content Knowledge as evolving knowledge domains: A longitudinal approach. *Journal of Computer Assisted Learning*, 35, 491- 502.
- [39] Wang, Q. (2006). *A Course in English Language Teaching*. Higher Education Press.
- [40] Wang, W., Schmidt-Crawford, D., & Jin, Y. (2018). Preservice Teachers' TPACK Development: A Review of Literature. *Journal of Digital Learning in Teacher Education*, 34(4), 234-258.
- [41] Wu, H. P., & Wu, H. X. (2014). *Foreign Language Teaching Methods and Schools*. Foreign Language Teaching and Research Press.
- [42] Zhang, Z. D. (2003). The Attributes and Contents of English Teaching and Learning in China, *Course, Textbook and Pedagogy*, 5, 34-39.



Tang Junhong is a PhD student at the Faculty of Education, Universiti Malaya. She is also a professor in the College of Foreign Language Education and International Business, Baoding University, Hebei Province, China.

Jia Wei Lim is a senior lecturer at the Faculty of Education, Universiti Malaya. She works in the field of English language education.

Meng Yew Tee is an associate professor at the Faculty of Education, Universiti Malaya. His research areas are in instructional design and practice.

Code Mixing Phenomena in Vietnam Online Newspapers

Le Thi Thuy Vinh

Faculty of Philology, Hanoi Pedagogical University 2, Vietnam

Abstract—Along with the development of society, based on the internet platform, in addition to other types of written and visual newspapers, online newspapers were born, allowing people around the world to quickly access news without delay depends on space and time. To attract readers, the language of online newspapers is also increasingly being innovated to meet readers' tastes. Code mixing is a fairly common phenomenon in online newspapers, giving readers interesting impressions. Therefore, the article "Code mixing phenomena in Vietnam online newspapers" will survey the forms of code mixing in languages in Vietnamese online newspapers, thereby providing comprehensive assessments of this phenomenon on the Internet journalistic language in particular and communication in general.

Index Terms—code mixing, language contact, Vietnamese youth, online newspapers

I. INTRODUCTION

During the process of globalization, economic integration, and cultural exchange, foreign words, especially English-American, have been introduced into Vietnamese in large numbers. Therefore, the issue of language contact is posed as a common, strong, and complex phenomenon in many different fields from business and commerce to journalism and cinema. During this language contact process, the phenomenon of language mixing (code mixing) is objectively seen as a consequence of this process.

Code mixing is "the interaction between two or more languages that affect the structure and vocabulary of one or more languages" (Nguyen Van Khang, 2012, p. 32). This phenomenon is increasingly common in everyday life through speech, typically the speech of young people. Besides, this phenomenon also appears a lot in online newspapers, especially online news for young people.

Along with the development of society, based on the internet platform, in addition to other types of written and printed newspapers, online newspapers were born, allowing people around the world to quickly access news without delay depending on the situation. To attract readers, the language of online newspapers is also increasingly being innovated to meet readers' tastes. Code mixing is a fairly common phenomenon in online newspapers, giving readers interesting impressions.

Therefore, the article "The phenomenon of language code mixing in online newspapers" will survey the forms of code mixing in languages in Vietnamese online newspapers, thereby providing comprehensive assessments of this phenomenon on the Internet journalistic language in particular and communication in general.

II. LITERATURE REVIEW

There are many different definitions of code given by linguists. According to Ronald Wardhaugh, "code is a term taken from information theory" (Ronald Wardhaugh, 2006, p. 88). Codes can be considered as a system consisting of words, letters, symbols... representing other things used for confidential messages or to present or record information most concisely.

Reality shows that, along with the continuous development of life, the phenomenon of interwoven linguistic codes is common. Ferguson (1959) defined this phenomenon of language intermingling as language mixing (diglossia). However, later on, the concept of language mixing was divided by linguists into two categories for easy distinction: code switching and code mixing. From here, the two concepts of code-switching and code-mixing have in common the phenomenon of a linguistic code being interspersed and mixed with several other linguistic elements.

Although they have basic similarities, they still contain distinct points: if code-switching is stable and often repeated, belonging to bilingual or multilingual users, on the contrary, code mixing is a phenomenon monolingualism is immediate and spontaneous. When the phenomenon of code mixing occurs, the native language, also known as the main code, often has a greater advantage than the secondary code (foreign language) and the secondary code is dependent on the main code. In this thesis, for conceptual consistency, we conventionally call native (Vietnamese) units the main code, linguistic units from other languages used to mix codes are mix codes.

Linguists have proposed countless different concepts in classifying code-mixing phenomena. Suwito (1983) based on the origin of code mixing divided code mixing into two types: inner code mixing and outer code mixing (1983, p. 77). Internal code-mixing is the phenomenon of code-mixing that occurs when the speaker mixes the national common

language with the regional language (dialect), for example, "My father is the person I always respect" then "purple" is a Southern word. External code-mixing is the phenomenon of intertwining the mother tongue and foreign languages, for example, "In the Showbiz world, stars constantly shine". Besides, Suwito has researched and proposed 5 code mixing methods based on the characteristics and properties of code-mixing:

1/ Codeword insertion mixing is a method of code mixing in which the speaker mixes into the utterance a code word unit of another language. For example, "Besides, Daesung also takes time to go out shopping".

2/ Phrase insertion code-mixing is a method of code mixing in which the mixed code is composed of phrases. For example, "After an impressive solo debut, Jennie also helped YG put her name on the YouTube map by being titled the solo artist's MV with the most views".

3/ Hybrid code-mixing is a code-mixing method in which the mixed code is viewed, hybridized, and paired between two languages. This case occurs when the mixing codes are transformed according to the pronunciation of Vietnamese.

4/ Repetitive code-mixing is a method of code mixing in which the mixing code is inserted into a repeating utterance.

5/ Verbal or idiom code-mixing is a method of code mixing in which the mixing code is an idiom from another language. For example, "She is the person who walks with me through all the ups and downs in this life" (English idiom meaning ups and downs).

It can be seen that in this division of Suwito, methods (1), (2), and (5) are related to structural characteristics, and methods (3), and (4) are associated with spelling form, the writing of the mixing code.

Contrary to Suwito's classification, Muysken has a completely different division; code mixing will be divided into 3 methods as follows: (1) insertion, (2) alternation and (3) creating congruent lexicalization. Specifically:

1/ Insertion method - is a method of interweaving lexical elements of one language with another, in which the inserted vocabulary can be words, phrases, or other equivalent elements. "Insertion" is considered the most basic and common method of code-mixing.

2/ Alternation begins to appear when the structures of two languages are alternated without distinction at both the lexical and grammatical levels.

3/ Congruent lexicalization is a method that talks about code mixing in which the user can fill the vocabulary with elements from either language. This method can only be implemented when both languages have the same word formation and grammatical structure. Thus, in Muysken's classification, the method of insertion is associated with code-mixing at the word level, and the methods of alternation and congruence refer to the phenomenon of code-mixing at the grammatical level. The insertion method also includes many small types that Suwito offers.

Through a preliminary survey of code mixing in online newspaper articles, we found that most of the mixing code belongs to the phenomenon of external code-mixing and follows the insertion method. Therefore, based on Muysken's classification, this article will aim to clarify the structural features, word types, and semantic characteristics of mixing codes, thereby providing specific assessments on the use of mixing methods currently.

III. RESEARCH METHODS

A. Survey and Statistical Methods

To conclude the characteristics of the phenomenon of language code mixing in online newspapers, we conducted a survey of research data by collecting articles on different online newspaper sites such as Kenh14.vn, Yan.vn, Zing.vn, Thanhnien Online and so on. The criterion for us to choose online newspapers to use as a database is to choose newspapers with a large number of readers who are students.

Our survey method is to randomly select 900 articles during the period from November 2021 - April 2022 in online newspapers on Kenh14.vn, Yan.vn, Zing.vn, Thanhnien Online and so on. On each newspaper page, we conduct statistics on the phenomenon of code mixing in all categories such as stars, music, life, sports, beauty, world, technology, youth, talent, main – business and so on. In each article, the mixed codes used are recorded in the following format:

No.	Mix code	Context	Article name	Publishing time

B. Descriptive Method

This method is used to review and understand the characteristics of mixed codes in terms of structure, word types, and semantics. These are aspects to view mixed code most comprehensively, thereby helping us give directions on the use of mixed code in online newspaper language.

C. Analysis and Synthesis Method

This method is used to analyze specific forms of mixing codes in terms of structure, vocabulary, and semantics.

IV. RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

The statistical result of mixed codes in languages on online newspaper pages that we collected is 692 codes. These mixed codes will be reviewed on three criteria: structural characteristics, word type characteristics, and semantic characteristics.

A. Structural Characteristics of the Mixing Code

In their original form, the mash-up code may appear as a word, phrase, or sentence. Below is a table classifying mixing codes according to structural characteristics.

TABLE 1
CLASSIFICATION OF MIXING CODES ACCORDING TO STRUCTURAL CHARACTERISTICS

Structural units	Quantity	Percentage	Example
Words	573	82,8%	- "Not stopping there, the love <u>scandal</u> and having a child with Thiên An but not fulfilling his responsibilities also made him lose sympathy in the public's heart." (January 11, 2022, Yan.vn) ("Chưa dừng lại ở đó, <u>scandal</u> tình cảm và có con với Thiên An nhưng không làm tròn trách nhiệm cũng khiến anh bị mất thiện cảm trong lòng công chúng". (11/1/2022, Yan.vn)) - "Devil Mother, Angel Father is a <u>remake</u> of the famous Chinese movie Tiger Mother, Cat Daddy starring two talented actors Zhao Wei and Dong Dai Wei." ("Mẹ ác ma, Cha thiên sứ là bản <u>remake</u> từ bộ phim đình đám Trung Quốc Mẹ hổ, Bố mèo do hai diễn viên thực lực Triệu Vy và Đồng Đại Vỹ thủ vai chính") - "The actress is one of the most famous names in the entertainment industry with many events and advertisements." (January 6, 2022, Yan.vn) "Nữ diễn viên là một trong những cái tên đắt <u>show</u> của làng giải trí với nhiều sự kiện, quảng cáo". (6/1/2022, Yan.vn) - "On this guy's <u>profile</u>, there are also several movie titles listed as "lead roles" such as Tranquility in the Abyss, Quynh Doll, Labyrinth, Crocodile Files, Sunflower Against the Sun or most recently Thuong Sunny Day Returns". (November 6, 2022, Yan.vn). "Trên <u>profile</u> của anh này thì cũng có một số tựa phim được ghi là "vai chính" như Lặng Yên Dưới Vực Sâu, Quynh Búp Bê, Mê Cung, Hồ Sơ Cá Sấu, Hướng Dương Ngược Nắng hay gần đây nhất là Thương Ngày Nắng Về". (6/11/2022, Yan.vn). - "Both wear simple costumes and currently the <u>spotlight</u> is all on the child character in the middle." (January 6, 2022, Yan.vn) ("Cả hai diện trang phục đơn giản và hiện tại <u>spotlight</u> đều dành hết cho nhân vật nhí chính giữa". (6/1/2022, Yan.vn)) - "These 14 <u>resorts</u> have in common that they are eco-resorts, located in isolated locations, close to nature and wildlife." (February 4, 2022, Zing.vn) ("14 <u>resort</u> này có điểm chung là các khu nghỉ dưỡng sinh thái, nằm ở vị trí tách biệt, gần gũi với thiên nhiên và động vật hoang dã". (4/2/2022, Zing.vn)) - "BTV points out the 5 best quality affordable <u>skin care</u> products that upgrade your skin and are extremely "friendly on your wallet". (January 23, 2022, Kenh14.vn) "BTV chỉ ra 5 món <u>skincare</u> bình dân chất lượng nhất, nâng cấp da thăng hạng mà cực "êm ái". (23/1/2022, Kenh14.vn)
Phrase	119	17,2%	- "Karina is the most "incompetent" member of Vespa: <u>Main dancer</u> but lost to Winter in dancing, <u>all-rounder</u> is just "false fame" as judged by fans?" (January 25, 2022, Kenh14.vn) ("Karina là thành viên "bất tài" nhất aespa: <u>Main dancer</u> nhưng nhảy thua Winter, <u>all-rounder</u> chỉ là "danh hão" do fan nhận định?" (25/1/2022, Kenh14.vn)) - "In the early days of the year, jeans or khaki shorts are always the top choices of girls because of their youthfulness and dynamism." (February 14, 2022, Yan.vn) ("Trong những ngày đầu năm này, quần <u>short jeans</u> hay kaki luôn là lựa chọn hàng đầu của các cô gái bởi sự tươi trẻ, năng động". (14/2/2022, Yan.vn)) - "This is also an item that is very popular with young people who love street style." (December 1, 2021, Yan.vn) ("Đây cũng là item được các bạn trẻ chuộng <u>streetstyle</u> rất yêu thích". (1/12/2021, Yan.vn)) - "On the evening of Saturday, April 9, IVY moda launched a <u>digital show</u> on the official page and attracted the attention of millions of viewers across online platforms." (April 12, 2022, Kenh 14.vn) ("Vào tối thứ 7 ngày 09 tháng 04 vừa qua, IVY moda đã trình làng <u>digital show</u> trên fanpage chính thức và thu hút được sự đón xem của hàng triệu khán giả trên khắp các nền tảng online". (12/4/2022, Kenh 14.vn)) - "Stepping into the plane, she changed into a <u>casual style</u> that couldn't be more comfortable: sweatshirt + jogger pants + flip-flops." (April 11, 2022, Kenh 14.vn) ("Bước vào máy bay, cô đã thay sang <u>style casual</u> không thể thoải mái hơn: áo ni + quần jogger + dép xỏ ngón". (11/4/2022, Kenh 14.vn)) - "Our work is quite busy, so on holidays, we just want to rest and relax, not having to wear clothes and <u>check-in</u> everywhere." (April 8, 2022, Zing.vn) ("Công việc của hai đứa khá bận rộn nên mấy ngày lễ, chúng mình chỉ mong được nghỉ ngơi, thư giãn chứ không có nhu cầu phải quần áo là lượt đi <u>check-in</u> khắp nơi". (8/4/2022, Zing.vn)) - "Accordingly, <u>boy groups</u> often wear outfits with pastel tones, or sometimes combining floral patterns." (December 18, 2021, Yan.vn) ("Theo đó, <u>boygroup</u> thường diện những outfit có tông màu pastel, hoặc đôi khi kết hợp họa tiết hoa lá". (18/12/2021, Yan.vn)) - "But the fans were still "overjoyed", thinking they would welcome a special <u>comeback</u> from the 4 girls." (December 11, 2021, Yan.vn) "Thế mà người hâm mộ còn "mừng hụt", cứ tưởng sẽ được chào đón màn <u>comeback</u> đặc biệt nào từ 4 cô gái". (11/12/2021, Yan.vn)
Total	692	100%	

From Table 1, considering the structure of the mixing code in the language of online newspapers, we draw the following conclusions:

The form of word formation is the form that accounts for a large proportion of 573 (accounting for 82.8%) compared to phrase units of 119 (accounting for 17.2%) and there is no mixing code for sentence units. The reason stems from the flexibility of the word: the short, flexible form is used in many different contexts, is easy to understand, easy to remember, and ensures the conciseness and comprehensiveness of the article, so the code is mixed in the form of words that are always used a lot in online newspaper language.

Contrary to word formation, mixing codes in phrase form appear less and are mainly in the form of 2 elements such as: rich kid, top trending, freestyle, hot boy, check-in, hot trend, eat clean, top trending, girl groups, boy groups, beauty blogger, local brand, street style, cut - out, ... for example: "Dong Nhi's song is attracting a large number of fans, quickly reaching the top trending YouTube" (March 31, 2022, Kenh14.vn); "In the past, Vietnamese local brands were often "inferior" to international brands, then these brands are increasingly asserting their heat. Standing next to big names from abroad, these brands are still not inferior." (December 31, 2021, Yan.vn); "Presenting at events in the land of golden pagodas, the Saigon-born beauty has a lot of love for outfits with bright colors, high slits or cut-out details that help thoroughly show off her advantages. shape." (January 7, 2022, Yan.vn); "Not only this girl, but Mr. Bong Tim (Chinh Nghia) also made people laugh when he parked his car to check-in outside the gas station with a sad face because of the increase in gas prices." (March 16, 2022, Yan.vn) ...

In addition, cases where the phrase appears with more than 2 elements are usually very few such as: beauty - fashion reviewer (Not only beautiful, our country's beauty - fashion reviewers also have extremely "huge" profiles that no one can look at. must also wish. January 23, 2022, kenh14.vn); mix&match (Famous as Vietnam's top fashionista, Quynh Anh Shyn always makes people admire with impressive mix&match performances. January 6, 2022, Yan.vn); basic short jeans (the most inferior in this clash is Mai Davika. Also walks on the beach, but the mix-and-match method of "Thailand's most beautiful witch" is so simple that it couldn't be simpler, she coordinated with basic jeans shorts. April 12, 2022, Kenh14.vn); rich kid Vbiz (Birthday party of rich kid Vbiz. April 13, 2022, Kenh14.vn); teaser concept poster (In the photo she posted, Thanh Tam cosplayed the first teaser concept poster that BLACKPINK revealed for her comeback. April 12, 2022, Yan.vn) ...

Besides, many mixed codes are phrases with extremely flexible structures and even deviate from the English structure. For examples: "After an impressive solo debut, Jennie also helped YG put her name on the YouTube map by being titled the solo artist's MV with the most views" (December 21, 2021, Yan.vn) ("Sau màn debut solo đầy ấn tượng, Jennie cũng đã giúp YG ghi tên mình lên bản đồ YouTube bằng danh hiệu MV của nghệ sĩ solo có nhiều lượt xem nhất" (21/12/2021, Yan.vn); "Female idol debuted with this company's legendary group Wonder Girls in 2007" (December 5, 2021, Yan.vn) ("Nữ idol debut cùng nhóm nhạc huyền thoại Wonder Girls của công ty này vào năm 2007" (5/12/2021, Yan.vn); "Phi Phuong Anh has a whole collection of bikinis from online shops and local brands with extremely cheap prices that even my sisters can buy." (February 18, 2022, Kenh14.vn) ("Phi Phương Anh có hẳn một BST bikini đến từ các shop online và local brand với giá cực "iu" mà chị em mình cũng có thể "tậu" được." (18/2/2022, Kenh14.vn); "At 0:00 on January 28 (Korean time), JYP suddenly launched a debut trailer for the company's new girl group - NMIXX" (January 28, 2022, Kenh14.vn) ("Vào 0h ngày 28/1 (giờ Hàn), JYP bất ngờ đánh úp tung ra trailer debut cho nhóm nữ mới của công ty – NMIXX" (28/1/2022, Kenh14.vn); "Looking at Hanbin's debut trailer, Vietnamese fans can't help but be happy because his debut date is near" (January 20, 2022, Yan.vn) ("Xem qua trailer debut của Hanbin, người hâm mộ Việt không khỏi vui mừng vì ngày anh chàng ra mắt đã sắp đến gần" (20/1/2022, Yan.vn); "Accordingly, MiiNa's debut concept was accused of having many similarities with Rosé when the female idol went solo with the album -R-." (April 13, 2022, Yan.vn) ("Theo đó, concept debut của MiiNa bị tố nhiều điểm tương đồng với Rosé trong lần nữ thần tượng solo với album -R-." (13/4/2022, Yan.vn); "Continuously posting "tight-cut" photos with make-up layouts that dominate the bride's every time she attends a wedding, but fans discovered that the beauty born in 2002 also often goes bare-faced, even filming with a regular camera in front of fans." (April 8, 2022, Yan.vn) ("Liên tiếp đăng ảnh "chặt chém" với layout make up lần lượt cả cô dâu mỗi khi dự đám cưới, nhưng fan phát hiện người đẹp sinh năm 2002 cũng thường xuyên để mặt mộc, thậm chí quay bằng camera thường trước fan." (8/4/2022, Yan.vn) and so on.

This impertinent behavior originates from the application of grammatical rules of the original Vietnamese code. From the survey, we found that these usages of mixed code are in part due to online articles in youth-oriented newspapers are aimed at young readers with some knowledge of English to know and understand the content of articles when using mixed codes, so usually the mixed codes comply with the rules of the foreign language.

B. Characteristics of Word Types of Mixed Codes

Class words are "words that have similar grammatical characteristics" (Bui Minh Toan, 2000, p. 58). In each language, word types are divided differently. For example, Vietnamese includes word types such as nouns, verbs, adjectives, adverbs, modals, pronouns, numbers, and relations.

Here, we focus on reviewing basic word types such as nouns, verbs, and adjectives. In addition, there are noun phrases/verb phrases/adjective phrases.

TABLE 2
CLASSIFICATION OF MIXING CODES ACCORDING TO WORD TYPE CHARACTERISTICS

No.	Word Type	Quantity	Percentage	Example
1	Noun/ Noun Phrase	438	63,3%	“XOXO has a revenge <u>concept</u> but still has bright, mischievous and sweet colors. Besides the familiar powerful <u>producers</u> of The Black Label.” (December 15, 2021, Yan.vn) “XOXO mang <u>concept</u> trả thù nhưng vẫn có màu sắc tươi sáng, tình nghịch và ngọt ngào. Bên cạnh dàn <u>producer</u> quyền lực quen thuộc của The Black Label.” (15/12/2021, Yan.vn) - “Devil Mother, Angel Father is a <u>remake</u> of the famous Chinese movie Tiger Mother, Cat Daddy starring two talented actors Zhao Wei and Dong Dai Wei.” (January 6, 2022, Yan.vn) “Mẹ ác ma, Cha thiên sứ là bản <u>remake</u> từ bộ phim đình đám Trung Quốc Mẹ hồ, Bỏ mèo do hai diễn viên thực lực Triệu Vy và Đồng Đại Vy thủ vai chính.” (6/1/2022, Yan.vn) - “In the current <u>girl group</u> lineup, TWICE is the girl group that is praised for possessing uniform visuals. In addition, the way of choosing <u>outfits</u> for the group also has many unreasonable points.” (December 18, 2021, Yan.vn) “Trong dàn <u>girlgroup</u> hiện tại, TWICE là nhóm nữ được khen ngợi sở hữu visual đồng đều. Thêm vào đó, cách chọn <u>outfit</u> cho nhóm cũng có nhiều điểm bất hợp lý.” (18/12/2021, Yan.vn) - “In terms of fashion, actor Anh Dung diligently promotes a variety of styles, from elegant gentlemen to youthful <u>street style</u>.” (January 6, 2022, Yan.vn) “Về thời trang, diễn viên Anh Dũng chăm chỉ lăng xê nhiều phong cách đa dạng, từ quý ông lịch lãm đến <u>streetstyle</u> trẻ trung.” (6/1/2022, Yan.vn) - “He also revealed that he stayed up many nights to propose the boy band to apply for sponsorship, and also spent nearly tens of millions to create <u>concepts</u> and <u>storyboards</u>.” (December 7, 2021, Yan.vn) “Anh cũng tiết lộ đã thức nhiều đêm để làm <u>proposal</u> cho nhóm nhạc nam đi xin tài trợ, cũng đã bỏ ra gần chục triệu để lên <u>concept</u> và <u>storyboard</u>.” (7/12/2021, Yan.vn) - “Not stopping there, the love <u>scandal</u> and having a child with Thien An but not fulfilling his responsibilities also made him lose sympathy in the public's heart.” (January 11, 2022, Yan.vn) “Chưa dừng lại ở đó, <u>scandal</u> tình cảm và có con với Thiên An nhưng không làm tròn trách nhiệm cũng khiến anh bị mất thiện cảm trong lòng công chúng.” (11/1/2022, Yan.vn) - “Recently, the production crew once again made Vietnamese netizens restless when they posted the official <u>poster</u> and <u>trailer</u> at the same time.” (April 13, 2022, Yan.vn) “Mới đây, ekip sản xuất lần nữa khiến netizen Việt đứng ngồi không yên khi đăng tải đồng thời <u>poster</u> và <u>trailer</u> chính thức.” (13/4/2022, Yan.vn)
2	Verb/ Verb Phrase	178	25,7%	- “At that time, she unfollowed TWICE's Instagram account.” (November 5, 2021, Yan.vn) “Khi ấy, cô nàng đã hủy <u>follow</u> tài khoản Instagram của TWICE.” (5/11/2021, Yan.vn) - “But the fans were still “overjoyed”, thinking they would welcome a special <u>comeback</u> from the 4 girls.” (December 11, 2021, Yan.vn) “Thế mà người hâm mộ còn “mừng hục”, cứ tưởng sẽ được chào đón màn <u>comeback</u> đặc biệt nào từ 4 cô gái.” (11/12/2021, Yan.vn) - “Most artists' <u>livestream</u> screens display poor resolution, blurry images, and uncharacteristic sound.” (April 9, 2022, Zing.vn) “Phần lớn màn hình <u>livestream</u> phát biểu của nghệ sĩ đều hiển thị độ phân giải kém, hình ảnh mờ và âm thanh không đặc sắc.” (9/4/2022, Zing.vn) - “When covering (re-singing) a famous song is increasingly chosen by many singers to reach the audience, asking permission from the author/owner of the song is also more adhered to by artists.” (April 5, 2022, Thanhnien online) “Khi <u>cover</u> (hát lại) một ca khúc nổi tiếng ngày càng được nhiều ca sĩ lựa chọn để tiếp cận khán giả, việc xin phép tác giả/chủ sở hữu ca khúc cũng được người làm nghề tuân thủ hơn.” (5/4/2022, Thanhnien online) - “Besides, the <u>makeup</u> style, clothing style, and photography

				concept are also completely different from before." (April 4, 2022, Yan.vn) "<i>Bên cạnh đó, cả kiểu <u>make up</u>, phong cách ăn mặc, concept chụp ảnh cũng một trời một vực so với trước đây.</i>" (4/4/2022, Yan.vn) - "The Lie Behind the smile is a song from the project I'm 20 - an album that K - ICM has cherished for a long time, only released in limited edition and also quickly "sold out." (December 23, 2021, Thanhnien online) "<i>Lời nói dối sau nụ cười là ca khúc thuộc dự án Tã 20 - album mà K - ICM đã ấp ủ một thời gian dài, chỉ phát hành phiên bản giới hạn và cũng nhanh chóng "sold-out."</i> (23/12/2021, Thanhnien online) - "Suggested outfits to flirt with your crush" still attracts many participants because of its humor and does not require investing in costumes or elaborate editing. (March 10, 2022, Yan.vn) "<i>Gợi ý outfit tán đổ crush</i>" vẫn thu hút nhiều người tham gia vì sự hài hước và cũng chẳng cần đầu tư trang phục và <u>edit</u> kỹ công. (10/3/2022, Yan.vn) - "NCT DREAM officially broke their previous achievement with their first full album Hot Sauce with <u>pre-orders</u> of about 1.71 million copies." (March 19, 2022, Yan.vn) "<i>NCT DREAM chính thức phá vỡ thành tích trước đây của mình ở full album đầu tiên Hot Sauce với lượng pre-order khoảng 1.71 triệu bản.</i>" (19/3/2022, Yan.vn) - "But fans were still "overjoyed", thinking they would welcome a special <u>comeback</u> from the 4 girls." (December 11, 2021, Yan.vn) "<i>Thế mà người hâm mộ còn "mừng hụt", cứ tưởng sẽ được chào đón màn comeback đặc biệt nào từ 4 cô gái.</i>" (11/12/2021, Yan.vn)
3	Adjectives/adjective phrases	71	10,3%	- "Even names with top <u>visuals</u>, it is difficult to avoid wearing outfits that are "scrutinized" by the online community." (January 7, 2022, Yan. Vn) "<i>Dù là những cái tên có visual đỉnh cũng khó tránh nổi việc diện trang phục bị cộng đồng mạng "soi".</i>" (7/1/2022, Yan.vn) - "Duong has "gone through puberty" extremely successfully when both of them have had a spectacular "transformation" that is completely different from their "<u>cute</u>" image of years ago." (April 13, 2022, Kenh14.vn) "<i>Dương đã "dậy thì" vô cùng thành công khi cả hai đã có màn "lột xác" ngoạn mục khác hẳn hình ảnh "cute" năm nào.</i>" (13/4/2022, Kenh14.vn) - "The outfit that made her <u>crush</u> fall made netizens laugh until they cried." (March 10, 2022, Yan.vn) "<i>Outfit khiến crush gục ngã của cô nàng làm cư dân mạng được phen cười ra nước mắt.</i>" (10/3/2022, Yan.vn) - "The group officially returned with their second full album titled Glitch Mode on March 28." (March 29, 2022, Yan.vn) "<i>Nhóm nhạc đã chính thức trở lại với full album thứ 2 của họ mang tên Glitch Mode vào ngày 28/3.</i>" (29/3/2022, Yan.vn) - "Faced with the increasing demand for cosmetics among women, there are many people taking advantage of customers' cheap mentality to sell <u>fake</u> and mixed fake products to make a profit." (March 18, 2022, Kenh14.vn) "<i>Trước nhu cầu mua sắm mỹ phẩm ngày một cao của hội chị em, có nhiều đối tượng lợi dụng tâm lý ham rẻ của khách hàng để bán hàng fake, hàng trộn fake nhằm chuộc lợi.</i>" (18/3/2022, Kenh14.vn) - "<u>Oversized</u> suit like Hai Tu is one of the items you should have in your fall-winter wardrobe, ladies." (November 12, 2021, Kenh14.vn) "<i>Oversized suit giống Hải Tú là một trong những item nên có trong tủ đồ thu đông đó các nàng ơi.</i>" (12/11/2021, Kenh14.vn)
4	Another type	5	0,7%	"There are many couples in Vbiz that make the audience laugh "<u>up</u> and <u>down</u>" at their "muddling" when they are not afraid to post the other half's "difficult" moments on social networks." (April 1, 2022, Yan. vn) "<i>Có rất nhiều đôi vợ chồng ở Vbiz khiến khán giả phải cười "xiu up xiu down" trước độ "lầy lội" của họ khi không ngại đăng tải những khoảnh khắc "khó đỡ" của nửa kia lên mạng xã hội.</i>" (1/4/2022, Yan.vn) - "After a period of passionate love, the couple began to turn

				"on-off" status when they continuously broke up and got back together." (April 14, 2022, Kenh14.vn)- - "Sau một thời gian mặn nồng, cặp đôi bắt đầu bất trạng thái "on - off" khi liên tục chia tay rồi quay lại." (14/4/2022, Kenh14.vn)

Looking at Table 2, we see that the mixed code in online newspaper language in the form of nouns/noun phrases accounts for the largest proportion of 63.3%, followed by verbs/verb phrases, and adjectives/phrases. Adjectives and finally the mixing codes of other word types such as "up/down/on-off..." are given as an example in Table 3. This accurately shows the characteristics of mixing codes in general, often These words reflect things and phenomena because they reflect the multifaceted characteristics of young people's lives. This result is completely consistent with author Nguyen Van Khang when he conducted statistics on 1000 commonly used English words in Vietnamese and obtained the following result "Currently, the English words used in mixed code in Vietnamese are mainly nouns, followed by verbs and adjectives" (Nguyen Van Khang, 2012, p. 234).

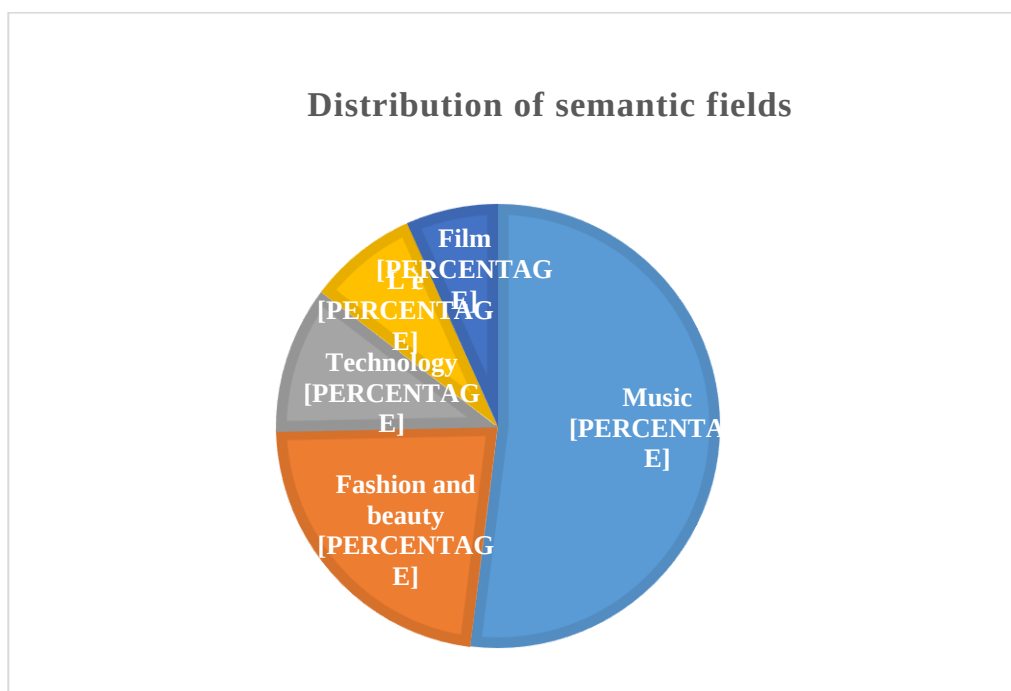
C. Semantic Characteristics of Mixing Codes

Through the process of researching the nature of semantics, we found that the mixed code in the language of online newspapers is differentiated into different semantic fields. The special thing is that these schools of meaning all bear the mark of contemporary life associated with the development of information technology and are suitable for young people's lives. Based on statistical data, we see that there are 5 prominent semantic fields: music, life, movies, fashion and beauty, and technology.

TABLE 3
CLASSIFICATION OF MIXED CODES ACCORDING TO SEMANTIC FIELDS

No.	Semantic field	Quantity	Percentage	Words
1	Music	360	52%	Boygrou, girlgroup, idol, top – trending, visual, debut, debut solo, cover, anti – fan, solo, MV, spotlight, fame, follow, video teaser, fan club, hot girl, hot boy, out top, reaction, comeback, fan, comment, view, showbiz, live, show, lyrics, main vocal, center, album, sexy, main vocal, ...
2	Life	56	8%	Resort, order, combo, view, voucher, bar, pub, countdown, checkin, backgroud, stress, nightlife, gym, tour, ...
3	Film	47	7%	Poster, scandal, series, drama, hot, zombie, rating, trailer, happy ending, ...
4	Fashion and beauty	152	22%	Review, items, fake, local brand, cut – out, skincare, Mix, basic, outfit, bikini, fashionista, layout make up, body, skincare, nail, routine skincare, hack, local brand, ...
5	Technology	77	11%	Intermet, online, test, post, game, game online, facebook, hacker, blog ...

Based on collected data we have the following chart:



Looking at the chart, we see that: The musical semantic field is the semantic field with the largest number of words appearing, 360 words (accounting for 52%). This stems from many different causes. Firstly, music belongs to the entertainment field, having the earliest access to the innovations of the era. Second, music is a suitable field for young people. Therefore, using mixed codes in this area will help express the new perspective of journalists and create attraction for readers (young people). Here are some examples:

-“I am a big fan of Taylor Swift, so if I have the opportunity to collaborate with her, it would be a dream come true... I also collaborated with the group Tomorrow x Together (TXT) and covered the song Anti-Romantic on their album” (April 14, 2022, Zing.vn).

“Tôi là fan cứng của Taylor Swift, nên nếu có cơ hội được hợp tác cùng chị ấy, đó đúng là giấc mơ thành hiện thực ... Tôi cũng từng hợp tác với nhóm Tomorrow x Together (TXT) và cover ca khúc Anti-Romantic trong album của họ” (14/4/2022, Zing.vn).

-“Sitting in the audience, the female idol didn't need to do anything but still had a viral moment when the camera lens captured the beautiful image. Fans continuously leave comments admiring Miyeon's visual” (April 15, 2022, Yan.vn).

“Ngồi ở hàng ghế khán giả, nữ thần tượng chẳng cần làm gì vẫn có khoảnh khắc viral khi ống kính camera bắt trọn hình ảnh xinh đẹp. Người hâm mộ liên tục để lại những bình luận trầm trồ về visual của Miyeon” (15/4/2022, Yan.vn).

-“After that, the keyword “Jisoo solo this year” topped the top trending on Twitter. The above incident explains that BLINKs are intentionally pressuring YG about the group's comeback... She has dabbled in acting but still wants to work solo on music projects. As the main vocal of BLACKPINK, Rosé possesses a special and inspiring voice (January 29, 2022, Yan.vn).

“Sau đó, từ khoá “Jisoo solo this year” đã đứng đầu top trending trên Twitter. Sự việc trên được lí giải rằng các BLINK đang cố tình gây sức ép với YG về việc nhóm comeback ... Cô đã lấn sân sang diễn xuất nhưng vẫn muốn hoạt động solo trong dự án âm nhạc. Là main vocal của BLACKPINK, Rosé sở hữu chất giọng đặc biệt và truyền cảm” (29/1/2022, Yan.vn).

-“However, in K-pop, there is a male idol who is not afraid of “turbulence” but mistakenly follows others 5 times 7 times, making fans “laugh and cry” (December 14, 2021, Yan.vn).

“Tuy nhiên, tại K-pop, lại có một nam thần tượng không hề sợ “sóng gió” mà 5 lần 7 lượt ấn nhầm follow người khác, khiến người hâm mộ “dở khóc dở cười”” (14/12/2021, Yan.vn).

-“Accordingly, even though she chose a simple black dress, with her beautiful appearance and bright white skin, the hot girl takes the spotlight of the main character” (November 25, 2021, Kenh14.vn).

“Theo đó, dù đã chọn mẫu váy đen đơn giản nhưng với vẻ ngoài xinh đẹp, làn da trắng sáng nên hot girl lại chiếm spotlight của nhân vật chính” (25/11/2021, Kenh14.vn).

According to the survey data, in the music semantic field, besides the mixing codes that have a specific mark for the field such as *idol*, *solo*, *debut*, *MV*, *lyrics*, and *cover* there are also mixing codes that are used for many Other semantic fields such as movies, life such as *fan*, *view*, *showbiz* and so on. Mixing codes specific to fields such as *MV*, *idol*, *debut*, *view*, *showbiz*, *visual*, *live shows*, *fans* are also mixing codes that have The frequency of appearance is relatively high in articles in the field of music. The reason for that phenomenon is that these words are specific musical terms, short, and it is difficult to find replacement Vietnamese words.

The second semantic field with many words appearing is the semantic field about fashion and beauty (152 words, accounting for 22%). The meaning field includes words that are quite familiar to young people, especially those who are passionate about fashion and beauty. For example:

-“Below is how Kimehwa mixes clothes with very basic items that women can learn from... Cute outfit with Korean style when combining a long checkered skirt with a short-sleeved shirt” (March 23, 2022, Kenh14.vn).

“Dưới đây là cách Kimehwa mix đồ với những items hết sức basic mà chị em có thể học theo... Outfit dễ thương mang đậm phong cách Hàn Quốc khi phối chân váy caro dài với áo sơ mi cộc tay” (23/3/2022, Kenh14.vn).

-“Faced with the increasing demand for cosmetics among women, there are many people taking advantage of customers' cheap mentality to sell fake and fake mixed goods to make a profit” (March 18, 2022, Kenh14.vn).

“Trước nhu cầu mua sắm mỹ phẩm ngày một cao của hội chị em, có nhiều đối tượng lợi dụng tâm lý ham rẻ của khách hàng để bán hàng fake, hàng trộn fake nhằm chuộc lợi” (18/3/2022, Kenh14.vn).

-“However, even though they both love sandals, the way Meghan Markle and Princess Kate perfect their style is still different” (April 14, 2022, Kenh14.vn).

“Tuy nhiên, ngay cả khi cùng yêu thích sandal, cách hoàn thiện style của Meghan Markle và Công nương Kate vẫn có sự khác biệt” (14/4/2022, Kenh14.vn)

-“Miss Em Trendy is the nickname of fashionista Khanh Linh, one of the most successful pink shadows after stepping out of The Face 2017” (April 14, 2022, Yan.vn).

“Cô Em Trendy là biệt danh của nàng fashionista Khánh Linh, một trong những bóng hồng thành công nhất sau khi bước ra khỏi chương trình The Face 2017” (14/4/2022, Yan.vn).

-“Everywhere on sunny beaches, we can see the sexy silhouettes of women in the hottest bikini models this summer. The cutout details on the monobikini are enough to make you sexy and maximize your figure” (April 13, 2022, Thanhnien Online).

"Trên các bãi biển ngập nắng đâu đâu cũng thấy thấp thoáng những bóng hình gợi cảm của phái đẹp trong những mẫu bikini hot nhất mùa hè này. Những chi tiết cut out trên monobikini cũng đủ để bạn gợi cảm tận óc đáng tối đa" (13/4/2022, Thanhnien Online).

"In 2022, the Covid-19 epidemic situation is still prolonged and complicated, greatly affecting daily life, as well as skincare trends" (February 23, 2022, Thanhnien Online).

"Năm 2022, tình hình dịch Covid-19 vẫn kéo dài và phức tạp, ảnh hưởng nhiều đến cuộc sống thường nhật, cũng như xu hướng skincare" (23/2/2022, Thanhnien Online).

The technology field is the third field with 77 mixed codes (accounting for 11%). In this field of meaning, mixed codes bear the school's characteristic mark, closely linked to the development of science and technology. It reflects new concepts of scientific and technological achievements. For example: *Internet* (In addition, there are 4 security vulnerabilities rated high impact (CVSS score from 7.2 to 8.1) with the similarity of allowing elevation of privilege attacks, and execution of remote code, some vulnerabilities already have exploit code publicly available on the internet. April 15, 2022, Thanhnien Online); *Facebook* (Facebook (now renamed Meta) has filed a trademark registration application for a number of new products related to blockchain in Brazil. January 30, 2022, Zing.vn); *Game* (Meanwhile, high-end fashion brand Balenciaga has cooperated with the game Fortnite to launch a virtual outfit with its brand. January 26, 2022, Zing.vn); *Hacker* (This company and the digital wallet address used by the hacker are included in the US special embargo list. April 15, 2022, zing.vn); *Blog* (Ronin Network writes on the project blog. April 15, 2022, Zing.vn) and so on.

The two semantic fields with the least number of words appearing are the semantic field about life with 56 mixed codes (accounting for 8%) and movies with 47 mixed codes (accounting for 7%). The field of life meaning includes mixed codes typical of the school and widely used in life: *review*, *bar*, *background*, *stress*, *order*, *voucher* and so on.

"According to online reviews from many other young people, the girl invited her friends to try it out to satisfy her curiosity... The check-in corners were not very eye-catching, the walls were stained, the ornamental plants were withered, not properly cared for" (April 15, 2022, Zing.vn).

"Theo lời review trên mạng của nhiều bạn trẻ khác, cô gái rủ hội bạn đi thử để thỏa lòng hiếu kỳ ... Những góc check-in cũng không bắt mắt mấy, các mảng tường thì hoen ố, cây cảnh héo tàn, không được chăm sóc cẩn chu" (15/4/2022, Zing.vn).

"Beautiful, airy bars are popular with many young people, and choose to visit during the holidays... Tu Uyen's group of friends spends a lot of time taking pictures with beautiful views and backgrounds of famous buildings" (April 11, 2022, Zing.vn).

"Các quán bar view đẹp, thoáng mát được nhiều bạn trẻ ưa thích, lựa chọn ghé chơi trong kỳ nghỉ lễ... Nhóm bạn của Tú Uyên dành nhiều thời gian chụp hình với view đẹp và background là các tòa nhà nổi tiếng" (11/4/2022, Zing.vn).

"I like to choose this place to have fun, relieve stress, and meet people" (April 10, 2022, Zing.vn).

"Anh thích chọn nơi này để vui chơi, xả stress, gặp gỡ mọi người" (10/4/2022, Zing.vn).

"Singapore's Ministry of Health explains why it has not been able to revive the nightlife industry" (March 25, 2022, Zing.vn).

"Bộ Y Tế Singapore giải thích lý do chưa thể hồi sinh ngành nightlife" (25/3/2022, Zing.vn).

"At evening rush hour, Mr. Quoc Dat (30 years old), manager of the Homemade vermicelli noodle shop, is busy taking orders and arranging seats to catch new batches of customers" (April 11, 2022, Zing.vn).

"Giờ cao điểm buổi tối, anh Quốc Đạt (30 tuổi), quản lý quán bún đậu Homemade, tất bật nhận order, sắp xếp chỗ ngồi để kịp đón các đợt khách mới" (11/4/2022, Zing.vn).

In the field of feature films, there are also unique mixed codes as *teasers*, *trailers*, *posters* and so on.

"As soon as the first teaser was released, people were excited and eagerly looking forward to it." (March 24, 2022, Yan.vn) ("Teaser đầu tiên ngay khi được tung ra đã khiến dân tình "sục sôi", háo hức trông đợi" (24/3/2022, Yan.vn).

"The trailer is very long, nearly 3 and a half minutes and the film crew has revealed a lot of "key" details about the latest season of the show." (April 13, 2022, Thanhnien Online) ("Trailer có thời lượng rất dài, gần 3 phút rưỡi và ê-kíp làm phim đã hé lộ rất nhiều chi tiết "đỉnh" về mùa mới nhất của phim" (13/4/2022, Thanhnien Online).

"Recently, the production crew once again made Vietnamese netizens restless when they simultaneously posted the official poster and trailer." (April 13, 2022, Yan.vn) ("Mới đây, ekip sản xuất lần nữa khiến netizen Việt đứng ngồi không yên khi đăng tải đồng thời poster và trailer chính thức" (13/4/2022, Yan.vn).

"The ending of A Business Proposal is predictable, even a happy ending, but it causes a feeling of dissatisfaction, even boredom." (April 6, 2022, Kenh14.vn) ("Vốn cái kết của A Business Proposal là điều dễ đoán trước, thậm chí là happy ending nhưng lại gây cảm giác không hài lòng, thậm chí là phẫn nộ" (6/4/2022, Kenh14.vn).

In terms of meaning, mixed codes are used with the original meaning or with a terminological meaning. Mixed codes used with the original meaning appear commonly in online newspaper language such as the words *clip*, *solo*, *idol*, *show*, *bar*, *view*, *top*, *trailer*, *scandal*, *stress*, and *hack*. In contrast to the cases of mixed codes Used with a shifting meaning, the term's meaning appears less frequently. Eg:

Live means (to continue) to be alive or have life but is used a lot in the music field to mean "perform direct operations" (Minh Kha - team Xuan Lan at The Next Gentleman had 3 consecutive live performances to show off her real voice. April 15, 2022, Kenh14.vn).

Visual means "sight". This is a word commonly used by young people in K-pop groups to refer to members with beautiful, outstanding faces that leave an unforgettable mark in the hearts of readers and fans. Therefore, the visual member, the representative face of the group, is responsible for promoting the image and media-related fields (Sitting in the audience, the female idol doesn't need to do anything to still have a viral moment. when the camera lens captured the beautiful image. Fans continuously left comments admiring Miyeon's visual. April 15, 2022, Yan.vn).

Spotlight's original meaning is "spot of light/specialized light" for an object or person that is receiving attention. In the entertainment industry, it is used to refer to people whose appeal attracts the most attention, usually showbiz idols or outstanding products (rarely "presented" in music products but Every time Touliver appears, he takes the spotlight because of his cool appearance. March 15, 2022, Kenh14.vn).

Drama's original meaning is "tragedy, comedy or will include both tragic and comedic elements", including dramatic details, creating climax emotions for the audience. Usually, drama is used to refer to long-running films. However, the current drama mixing code, especially in the journalism industry, is mainly used in a slang sense to refer to ironic, unexpected situations, mixed with humorous elements. Besides, it can also refer to noisy incidents, scandals, and scandals that many people are interested in... (The movie "Love on a Sunny Day" part 2 will air tonight, April 4. Previously, the film crew released the main poster of part. 2 is the picture of Mrs. Kim Nhung and Van Trang. They are mother and daughter but will have confrontations full of "drama" ... before accepting their friendship. April 4, 2022, Thanhnien Online).

V. CONCLUSION

The phenomenon of mixing language codes in online newspapers is a common phenomenon that represents the general development trend of today's era. The article has surveyed and compiled mixed codes on the following aspects: structure, word types, and semantics, thereby drawing necessary conclusions.

The mixing of language codes used in online journalism demonstrates the new and modern thinking of journalists who have caught up with world trends. In addition, the presence of code mixing phenomenon creates an impression and attraction for readers, especially young people. In general, the phenomenon of mixing language codes in online newspapers will certainly continue to develop and spread to suit the world and the tastes of young people.

However, in our opinion, this phenomenon still has many limitations in its use. We need basic "orientations" to minimize the abuse of code-mixing, causing direct impacts on the purity of the code Vietnamese today. Preserving the purity of Vietnamese is the way to educate the language for all people. Prime Minister Pham Van Dong pointed out three steps to develop the country's language: "Firstly is to preserve and develop the capital of our language; Secondly, speak and write according to the rules of our language; Thirdly is to preserve the identity, essence, and style of our language in all literary genres (artistic, political, scientific, technical). That is the characteristic that newspapers need, especially online newspapers because most of them are aimed at young people" (Pham Van Dong, 1981, p. 13).

REFERENCES

- [1] Dong Pham Van. (1981). *Preserving the purity of the Vietnamese language*. Preserving the purity of the Vietnamese language in terms of words. Social Sciences Publishing House, Hanoi
- [2] Giap Nguyen Thien. (2008). *Linguistics textbook*. Hanoi National University Publishing House.
- [3] Hao Cao Xuan. (2003). *Vietnamese Literature*. Tre Publishing House.
- [4] Huyen Nguyen Thi. (2017). *The phenomenon of English code-mixing in Vietnamese communication*. Doctoral thesis. University of Social Sciences and Humanities. Hanoi National University
- [5] Khang Nguyen Van. (2007). *Foreign words in Vietnamese*. Ho Chi Minh City General Publishing House.
- [6] Khang Nguyen Van. (2012). *Sociolinguistic*. Vietnam Education Publishing House.
- [7] Ly Tran Thi Phuong. (2020). Research on the structure of Vietnamese-English language code mixing in communication and exchange of small traders at Ben Thanh market. City. Ho Chi Minh, *Journal of Inquiry into Languages and Cultures*. Saigon University.
- [8] Ronald Wardhaugh. (2006). *An introduction to sociolinguistics*. Blackwell Publishing, 2006.
- [9] Suwito. (1983). *Pengantar awal sociolinguistic: Teori dan problema*. UNS press.
- [10] The Bui Khanh. (2017). *Vietnamese people's linguistic behavior towards elements of Chinese origin*. Ho Chi Minh City University of Social Sciences and Humanities.
- [11] Thoa Nguyen Thi. (2011). *Linguistic contact on the vocabulary level between Vietnamese and Khmer*, Master's thesis in linguistics. Tra Vinh University.
- [12] Toan Bui Minh. (2000). *Vietnamese Grammar*. Hanoi University of Education Publishing House
- [13] Trang Do Thuy. (2015). *English words in Vietnamese newspapers*. Academic research article, Quang Binh University.
- [14] Y Nguyen Nhu. (2001). *Dictionary explaining linguistic terms*. Education Publishing House.



Le Thi Thuy Vinh is an outstanding language development scholar who earned her Ph.D. in Linguistics from Hanoi University of Education, Vietnam. She currently holds the position of Deputy Dean at Hanoi Pedagogical University 2, Vietnam.

Her research interests are deeply rooted in exploring human language use practices. This will make her research highly practical. Her notable publications include Le Thi Thuy Vinh (2020). “*Motivation to create words and create meanings of economic words in modern Vietnamese*” (Social Science Publishing House).

Dr. Vinh has actively contributed to the academic community by publishing and presenting his research results at many international conferences. His contributions in his field have been recognized and appreciated, playing a key role in promoting understanding in the development of the Vietnamese language.

Trauma, Guilt, and Narrative: An Analysis of E. Lockhart's *We Were Liars* and *Family of Liars*

Nisrein M. Abu Sawa

Language Center, The Hashemite University, Zarqa, Jordan

Abstract—The present article examines E. Lockhart's novels *We Were Liars* (2014) and the prequel *Family of Liars* (2022); it employs the notions of "trauma" and the "sense of guilt" and draws upon the view that narration can be a therapeutic tool. Accordingly, the article argues that the narratives which Cadence in *We Were Liars* and Carrie in *Family of Liars* form out of flashbacks as well as imaginary conversations and events help them deal with trauma and guilt respectively. It is argued that Cadence overcomes the traumatic memory of accidentally causing the death of the Liars through the fragmented narrative she constructs, and Carrie's shaped narrative helps her deal with the internalized sense of guilt she develops on account of murdering Pfeff. At the beginning of their narratives, both Cadence and Carrie are burdened with grief, repressing their tragic memories; however, through the gradual development of the narratives they form, they eventually take responsibility for causing the death of their victims. In fact, Cadence and Carrie manage to cope with grief by shaping narratives in which they ensure that they are forgiven, and their victims are in peace after passing, asserting at the end of their narratives that they can endure such pain. Therefore, the present article posits that the shaped narratives in Lockhart's selected novels function as an outlet, as the narratives help give Cadence and Carrie new perspectives on the tragic incidents and enable them to move on with their lives.

Index Terms—*Family of Liars*, guilt, narrative, trauma, *We Were Liars*

I. INTRODUCTION

Emily Jenkins, who was born in 1967 and writes under the name of E. Lockhart, is best known for writing children's picture books as well as young adult novels. Her young adult novel and psychological thriller *We Were Liars* (2014) is narrated by Cadence, the eldest grandchild of the Sinclair family, and its prequel *Family of Liars* (2022) is narrated by Caroline (Carrie) who tells her story to her dead son Johnny. The present article examines the role which narratives play in helping Cadence in Lockhart's *We Were Liars* deal with trauma and helping Carrie in Lockhart's *Family of Liars* deal with her sense of guilt. The article shows how both characters eventually come to terms with their grief through the gradual development of the narratives they shape.

In her book *Shattered Subjects: Trauma and Testimony in Women's Life-Writing* (1998), Suzette A. Henke employs the term "scriptotherapy" which she used in a paper delivered in the 1985 Convention of the Modern Language Association in Chicago to refer to "the process of writing out and writing through traumatic experience in the mode of therapeutic reenactment," contending that "the authorial effort to reconstruct a story of psychological debilitation could offer potential for mental healing and begin to alleviate persistent symptoms of numbing, dysphoria, and uncontrollable flashbacks" (p. xii). Thus, Henke stresses that life-writing can be used as a therapeutic tool for victims of anxiety and post-traumatic stress disorder.

Post-traumatic stress disorder is a disorder which develops in some individuals after being exposed to traumatic events. According to Breuer and Freud (1956), trauma refers to "any experience which calls up distressing affects—such as those of fright, anxiety, shame or physical pain" (p. 6), and from a Lacanian perspective, it "implies an encounter with *the Real*" which is "a fearful dimension which has to be confronted ... It is a psychological dimension that symbolizes the ultimate nightmare, the deepest fear that may dissolve an individual's psychic integrity" (Wood, 2014, p. 20). The American Psychological Association (2017) also defines trauma as "events or experiences that are shocking and overwhelming, typically involving major threat to the physical, emotional, or psychological safety and well-being of the individual victim(s) and loved ones and friends ... Its original occurrence is usually sudden and unexpected" (p. 6). Examples of traumatic experiences include "military combat, acts of terror ... disasters and accidents, sudden or violent death of loved ones ... losses (including neglect and abandonment); hostage-taking; torture; slavery; and certain types of disability, illness, and medical treatment, especially for life-threatening conditions" (p. 6). Cadence in Lockhart's *We Were Liars* has a traumatic brain injury after she has accidentally burned the Liars, Gat, Johnny, and Mirren. The present study argues that the narrative which Cadence shapes out of flashbacks as well as imaginary conversations and events helps her cope with trauma. Carrie in Lockhart's *Family of Liars* also constructs a narrative based on imaginary conversations and events, and it is argued that her narrative helps her deal with the sense of guilt she develops after she kills Pfeff.

Freud (1957) defines the sense of guilt as "the expression of the conflict of ambivalence, the eternal struggle between Eros and the destructive or death instinct" (p. 121). He links the individual's sense of guilt with aggressiveness which opposes civilization since civilization "obtains the mastery over the dangerous love of aggression in individuals by

enfeebling and disarming it and setting up an institution within their minds to keep watch over it, like a garrison in a conquered city" (p. 105). Freud regards the sense of guilt "as the most important problem in the evolution of culture" since "the price of progress in civilization is paid in forfeiting happiness through the heightening of the sense of guilt" (p. 123). In order to be civilized, this aggressiveness is sent back to the individual's ego, and hence the sense of guilt in the individual develops. The present study argues that Carrie in *Family of Liars* develops an internalized sense of guilt, which she manages to deal with through the narrative she shapes. Therefore, the present paper emphasizes the role which the narratives in Lockhart's selected novels play in helping the main characters deal with the tragic incidents behind their grief.

II. TRAUMA, GUILT, AND NARRATIVE IN LOCKHART'S FICTION

Cathy Caruth (1996) describes trauma "as the response to an unexpected or overwhelming violent event or events that are not fully grasped as they occur, but return later in repeated flashbacks, nightmares, and other repetitive phenomena" (p. 91). After summer fifteen, Cadence in Lockhart's *We Were Liars* has a traumatic brain injury after causing the death of the Liars, an accident she does not initially remember, and that makes her experience symptoms of post-traumatic stress disorder (PTSD) like migraine and amnesia. Individuals who experience traumatic experiences usually repress the traumatic memory, and in this case such a memory "acts like a foreign body which long after its entry must continue to be regarded as an agent that is still at work" (Breuer & Freud, 1956, p. 6). The patient's lack of ability to deal with the traumatic experience may lead to a traumatic neurosis, and in such experiences "the protective shield against external stimuli is broken through and excessive amounts of excitation impinge upon the mental apparatus" (Freud, 1961, p. 44).

Cadence's traumatic memory of the death of the Liars is repressed, and as a Sinclair Cadence is brought up to repress all her sad feelings as well. She says: "We do not discuss our problems in restaurants. We do not believe in displays of distress" (Lockhart, 2014, p. 38). Freud (1961) argues that in order to deal with the trauma, "the ego, which experienced the trauma passively, now repeats it actively in a weakened version, in the hope of being able itself to direct its course" (p. 81). For example, traumatic experiences like wars and fatal accidents are repeated by the traumatized patients in dreams or reactions; "the patient does not *remember* anything of what he has forgotten and repressed, but *acts* it out. He reproduces it not as a memory but as an action; he *repeats* it" (Freud, 1914, p. 150).

Cadence does not remember the last part of summer fifteen, and she mentions that she goes on a trip with her father to Europe during summer sixteen, assuming that the Liars in Beechwood do not answer her emails because of the poor reception there. Since Cadence is not told by anyone about what happened in summer fifteen, her return to Beechwood in summer seventeen and the construction of her narrative can be considered as an unconscious attempt of reenacting the trauma. She says: "I resolve that everything I learn in the next four weeks will go above my Windemere bed. I will sleep beneath the notes and study them every morning. Maybe a picture will emerge from the pixels" (Lockhart, 2014, p. 77). However, Cadence counts on imaginary conversations with the Liars in her narrative so that she can feel she has mastery over the past events that happened in summer fifteen.

van der Kolk (2014) argues that "it is enormously difficult to organize one's traumatic experiences into a coherent account—a narrative with a beginning, a middle, and an end" (p. 43); initially, trauma is not remembered in a coherent narrative, but rather in fragmented images and sensations. In addition, trauma narratives are not always reliable and consistent; Caruth (1995) argues that "the transformation of the trauma into a narrative memory that allows the story to be verbalized and communicated, to be integrated into one's ... knowledge of the past, may lose both the precision and the force that characterizes traumatic recall" (p. 153). Herman (1992) also states that "people who have survived atrocities often tell their stories in a highly emotional, contradictory, and fragmented manner which undermines their credibility ... When the truth is finally recognized, survivors can begin their recovery" (p. 1). Therefore, victims can heal and cope with trauma only if they manage to come to terms with the tragic incidents behind their grief and pain of loss.

Cadence and the other Liars, Mirren, Johnny, and Gat have decided to burn down the house of Cadence's grandfather, but Cadence has accidentally burned the other Liars. However, Cadence's way of remembering this incident through the narrative is gradual; she does not remember the death of the Liars until the end of the narrative. In fact, her narrative consists of fragments and imaginary conversations between her and the Liars who console her throughout the narrative. She has conversations with the other Liars, and they all justify burning down the family house. Johnny says that the sisters have argued and screamed at each other over the inheritance; the sisters even embroil their children in their heated arguments, so the Liars have thought that by burning the house they will bring the family together. In addition to justifying the fire in her narrative, Cadence imagines that the Liars apologize to her for not contacting her. Cadence starts writing about the fire towards the end of her narrative, but at first she remembers that the dogs have died in the fire. The fact that she remembers causing the death of the dogs helps pave the way for remembering the tragic incident of burning the other Liars. Towards the end of her narrative, Cadence feels that she can talk about the truth of the fire in which Gat, Mirren, and Johnny have perished. She mentions that she has thought that the Liars have been outside the house worrying about her. She goes to the house to save them but could not because the house is engulfed in flames. Cadence expresses her remorse:

I shouldn't have soaked the kitchen first. I shouldn't have lit the fire in the study. How stupid to wet the books so thoroughly. Anyone might have predicted how they would burn. Anyone. We should have had a set time to light our kindling. I might have insisted we stay together ... If only I'd gone back to Clairmont faster, maybe I could have gotten Johnny out. Or warned Gat before the basement caught. Maybe I could have found the fire extinguishers and stopped the flames somehow ... I wanted so much for us: a life free of constriction and prejudice. A life free to love and be loved. And here, I have killed them. My Liars, my darlings. (Lockhart, 2014, pp. 208-209)

Ever since the accident happened, Cadence had not had the chance to mourn the death of the Liars, but her narrative has her claim responsibility for the Liars' death as well as her family's sadness. Cadence cries because the Liars have been deprived of realizing their dreams; nevertheless, she reminds herself that she is loved and forgiven by the Liars.

van der Kolk (2014) posits that "our autobiographical self, creates connections among experiences and assembles them into a coherent story. This system is rooted in language. Our narratives change with the telling, as our perspective changes and as we incorporate new input" (p. 236). One's perspective on the traumatic experience changes thanks to the narrative, and thus the traumatic narrative has a crucial role "in remaking the self" since "working through, or remastering, traumatic memory ... involves a shift from being the object or medium of someone else's (the perpetrator's) speech (or other expressive behavior) to being the subject of one's own" (Brison, 1999, p. 39). Through narrating the trauma, the traumatic memory is transformed "into a coherent narrative that can then be integrated into the survivor's sense of self and view of the world" (p. 39), as "the goal of recounting the trauma story is integration, not exorcism" (Herman, 1992, p. 181).

Trauma narratives do not represent the trauma; rather, they are "accounts of recovery, of dealing with the effects of a traumatic experience" (Castle, 2013, p. 216). Cadence manages to survive the trauma by forming a narrative in which she makes sure that the Liars are comfortable after death, and she is forgiven by them. She imagines Johnny telling her that they go to the "same place as when you're not here. Same place as we've been ... It's like a rest. It's like nothing, in a way. And honestly, Cady, I love you, but ... I just want to lie down and be done" (Lockhart, 2014, p. 216). When Cadence apologizes to Johnny, he says: "Not your fault ... I mean, we all did it, we all went crazy, we have to take responsibility. You shouldn't carry the weight of it ... Be sad, be sorry—but don't shoulder it" (p. 216). Mirren apologizes to Cadence too, and Cadence also imagines that she makes her peace with Gat and that the Liars leave into the beach happily.

Brison (1999) argues that "memories of traumatic events can be themselves traumatic ... They are experienced by the survivor ... as flashbacks to the events themselves"; however, narrating memories "empowers survivors to gain more control over the traces left by trauma," thereby "giving shape and a temporal order to the events recalled, establishing more control over their recalling, and helping the survivor to remake a self" (p. 40). Therefore, narrating memories can contribute to the recovery from trauma. By telling the trauma narrative, the survivor manages "to integrate the traumatic episode into a life with a before and after" and "gain control over the occurrence of intrusive memories" (p. 46). Narrating the traumatic memories helps give Cadence new perspectives on the tragic incident, and hence she is eventually capable of dealing with trauma. She ends her narrative by saying that in a beautiful family "something bad happened, something stupid, criminal, terrible, something avoidable, something that never should have happened, and yet something that could, eventually, be forgiven" (Lockhart, 2014, pp. 222-223); however, she affirms that she will endure the pain, saying: "MY FULL NAME is Cadence Sinclair Eastman. I suffer migraines. I don't suffer fools. I like a twist of meaning. I endure" (p. 225). Herman (1992) affirms that narrating the trauma story helps alleviate the pain; she maintains:

After many repetitions, the moment comes when the telling of the trauma story no longer arouses quite such intense feeling. It has become a part of the survivor's experience, but only one part of it. The story is a memory like other memories, and it begins to fade as other memories do. Her grief, too, begins to lose its vividness. It occurs to the survivor that perhaps the trauma is not the most important, or even the most interesting, part of her life story. (p. 195)

Like Cadence, Carrie in Lockhart's *Family of Liars* tells a narrative which is also based on imaginary conversations and events as well as flashbacks. They both arguably manage to narrate their traumatic memories in a way that helps them eventually cope with their grief. They are both in control of the traumatic memories which they narrate; the control of "certain aspects of the narrative" helps lead "to greater control over the memories themselves, making them less intrusive and giving them the kind of meaning that enables them to be integrated into the rest of life" (Brison, 1999, p. 47). Like Cadence who manages to shape a narrative which helps her deal with trauma, Carrie shapes a narrative which helps her deal with her sense of guilt. Carrie's sister Rosemary drowned when Carrie was sixteen, and Carrie feels guilty because of living a normal life without Rosemary. Consequently, in her narrative Carrie imagines seeing and talking to Rosemary. Carrie tries to make Rosemary happy, telling her stories like the story of Cinderella. Carrie is aware of her grief and the need to deal with it; by imagining talking to Rosemary who enjoys listening to stories told by Carrie, Carrie attempts to lighten the load.

Carrie's sense of guilt is highlighted in the novel. According to Freud (1962), the sense of guilt results from "the tension between the demands of conscience and the actual performances of the ego" (p. 27) as well as "the tension between the strict super-ego and the subordinate ego" and "it manifests itself as the need for punishment" (Freud, 1957,

p. 105). The unconscious sense of guilt hinders one's recovery from many neuroses; "this sense of guilt expresses itself only as a resistance to recovery which it is extremely difficult to overcome. It is also particularly difficult to convince the patient that this motive lies behind his continuing to be ill" (Freud, 1962, p. 40). By developing a sense of guilt or a "moral" factor," the patient "refuses to give up the punishment of suffering" (p. 39), and the sense of guilt "does not tell him he is guilty; he does not feel guilty, he feels ill" (p. 40). Freud (1957) argues that:

The individual's aggressiveness is introjected, 'internalized'; in fact, it is sent back where it came from, i.e. directed against the ego. It is there taken over by a part of the ego that distinguishes itself from the rest as a super-ego, and now, in the form of 'conscience', exercises the same propensity to harsh aggressiveness against the ego that the ego would have liked to enjoy against others. (p. 105)

Carrie's narrative arguably helps her deal with the heightened internalized sense of guilt she develops. Carrie has killed Pfeff by hitting him with a board; in her narrative she portrays him as a bad person. Although Pfeff makes advances to Carrie's sister Penny, he does not have any feelings of guilt, and because of him Carrie loses confidence in herself and gets into arguments with her sisters. Carrie's portrays Pfeff as a cheater in an attempt to justify the murder she commits. Even though Carrie depicts Pfeff as a person who deserves to be killed, initially in her narrative she does not admit that she is responsible for Pfeff's death. Rather, she imagines that her sister Bess has killed Pfeff after he has tried to rape Penny. Carrie asserts that she covers up Pfeff's murder in order to protect her sisters. Carrie feels guilty because she has not kept Rosemary safe, but she will protect Penny and Bess. Consequently, Carrie and her sisters take a boat trip and make sure that Pfeff's body sinks and will never be found. Carrie notices that the board, which is the murder weapon, is missing, and it turns out that Carrie's father hides it.

Carrie does not fear authority represented by her father and the police; instead, she develops an internalized sense of guilt. Freud (1957) argues that the sense of guilt arises either from the fear of authority or from the super-ego, as the individuals who do something fear to be punished by the authority they are dependent on and fear to lose the love of the authority. Thus, they allow themselves to do bad things as long as they are not blamed by the authority. The super-ego is established when "the authority has been internalized;" the individual becomes anxious as "the super-ego torments the sinful ego with the same feelings of dread and watches for opportunities whereby the outer world can be made to punish it" (p. 108). The sense of guilt and the need for punishment caused by the fear of the super-ego lead to "a lasting inner unhappiness" (p. 112). Carrie starts developing a sense of guilt, feeling the need to tell her mother, but she asserts that she does not want to distress her mother. Since Carrie's mother will not be told about the murder, her father hides the board and later burns it in the bonfire, and the police presume Pfeff dead, Carrie does not have to fear authority. Nonetheless, she later develops a sense of guilt, and it can be argued that it is internalized.

Carrie feels pangs of guilt when she is told by Yardley that she has hurt Pfeff; Carrie says: "*I don't think you should have to pretend you would never, ever hurt anybody*. All those words of Yardley's, they ring in my ears now. They jumble and tangle as I tell this story to my son Johnny" (Lockhart, 2022, p. 282). Yardley's words have made Carrie think that since she has hurt Pfeff, she is punished with the death of her son. She eventually feels apologetic about murdering Pfeff, pointing out: "I think he could have become a good man ... I do not think he deserved to die. I know he was capable of terrible things. But so was I" (p. 295). In addition, Carrie's sense of guilt heightens since she kills Pfeff while he is angry with his parents who are divorcing, so in her narrative she imagines Pfeff saying: "I saw my mom ... I wanted her to know I loved her and stuff. I was worried she didn't know, because we'd kind of been in a fight all summer" (p. 274). Herman (1992) maintains: "Because the truth is so difficult to face, survivors often vacillate in reconstructing their stories. Denial of reality makes them feel crazy, but acceptance of the full reality seems beyond what any human being can bear" (p. 181). So, Carrie's inability to accept the fact that Pfeff and his parents are not reconciled makes her imagine in her narrative that Pfeff comes after dying to make peace with his mother.

Carrie also imagines in the narrative that Pfeff apologizes to her. He says: "I really am sorry. That I hurt your feelings ... I was wrong ... Can we say sorry to each other and set it to rest?" (Lockhart, 2022, p. 275). Carrie also assures herself that Pfeff is comfortable after dying. She imagines that Pfeff tells her that he does not remember how he has died, saying: "I was on the dock with Penny. And I felt a sharp pain in my head. I might have screamed ... everything went dark and very quiet. Like a long sleep. It was comfortable after that, actually. Like a rest" (p. 274). In an attempt to deal with her heightened sense of guilt, Carrie imagines that Rosemary and Pfeff are in peace after death. Carrie even assures herself that Rosemary still loves her even though she is a murderer. Carrie's perspective does change because of the narrative; she writes to Rosemary:

Relief floods through me, even as I weep, because I can see my own letters, and that means I can see a future beyond this island, beyond this addiction. Although I will never, ever escape what I have done, and although I might never forgive myself ... I will, in a small way, in a limited way, move on. (p. 312)

Carrie confirms that she will move on, believing that she is forgiven by her son on account of the narrative she has shaped and thus she will heal. Carrie feels ready to move on after she is done with the narrative; she says:

I killed a man and threw his body in the ocean ... But now that I have told that story, I think I may be able to tell a new story about myself ... this is the worst I have seen and the worst I have done. Please bear witness. I do not want such horrors to determine my future. (pp. 320-321)

Like Cadence, Carrie affirms at the end of her narrative that she is ready to move on. Herman (1992) asserts that "when the 'action of telling a story' has come to its conclusion, the traumatic experience truly belongs to the past," and

hence “the survivor faces the tasks of rebuilding her life in the present and pursuing her aspirations for the future” (p. 195). Both Cadence and Carrie eventually come to terms with their grief through shaping narratives in which they make sure that they are forgiven, and their victims are comfortable after passing, which stresses the role of shaped narratives in giving the individual new perspectives on tragic incidents and traumatic experiences.

III. CONCLUSION

The present paper has highlighted the role of narratives in helping Cadence in Lockhart’s *We Were Liars* as well as Carrie in *Family of Liars* deal with traumatic memories and the sense of guilt respectively. Both narratives shaped by the main characters of the selected novels are based on flashbacks as well as imaginary conversations and events. Carrie tells her story to her dead son Johnny, and Cadence writes her memories down because as Sinclairs Cadence and Carrie are brought up to repress their feelings. Therefore, Cadence’s and Carrie’s narratives function as an outlet and eventually help them deal with the tragic incidents behind trauma and the sense of guilt.

At the beginning of their narratives, Cadence and Carrie are burdened and overwhelmed with grief. Carrie feels guilty because she enjoys her life while her little sister Rosemary has died at an early age. So, Carrie imagines talking to Rosemary and sharing activities with her. Carrie’s sense of guilt heightens when she kills Pfeff who makes her feel that he is attracted to her but ends up making advances to her sister. Carrie’s father hides the murder weapon, and Pfeff is presumed dead by the police; therefore, Carrie does not have to fear authority. Carrie learns that she has killed Pfeff while he is angry with his parents, so her sense of guilt becomes internalized. In an attempt to deal with her sense of guilt, Carrie imagines in her narrative that Pfeff apologizes to her and tells her that he has made peace with his mother and feels comfortable after dying.

Similarly, Cadence imagines in her narrative that the Liars apologize to her for not contacting her after summer fifteen where in fact Cadence has forgotten that she has accidentally burned the Liars in the house fire she and the Liars have planned. Through her narrative, Cadence remembers events gradually; first, she justifies planning the fire, and then she mourns the death of the dogs which she has accidentally caused in the fire before she finally confesses that she has caused the death of the Liars: Gat, Johnny, and Mirren.

At the end of their narratives, Carrie and Cadence affirm that they can endure their pain. Carrie states that she is forgiven by her dead son for the terrible thing that she has done. Cadence is also consoled by the Liars with the fact that their death is not her fault, and that they feel comfortable after dying. Carrie’s and Cadence’s shaped narratives have arguably given them a new perspective on the tragic incidents and have eventually enabled them to deal with their grief and move on.

REFERENCES

- [1] American Psychological Association. (2017). *Clinical practice guideline for the treatment of posttraumatic stress disorder (PTSD) in adults*. Retrieved December 15, 2023, from <https://www.apa.org/ptsd-guideline/ptsd.pdf>
- [2] Breuer, J. & Freud, S. (1956). *Studies on hysteria* (J. Strachey & A. Strachey, Trans. & Eds.). The Hogarth Press.
- [3] Brison, S. (1999). Trauma narratives and the remaking of the self. In M. Bal, J. Crewe, & L. Spitzer (Eds.), *Acts of memory: Cultural recall in the present* (pp. 39-54). University Press of New England.
- [4] Caruth, C. (Ed.). (1995). *Trauma: Explorations in memory*. The Johns Hopkins University Press.
- [5] Caruth, C. (1996). *Unclaimed experience: Trauma, narrative, and history*. The Johns Hopkins University Press.
- [6] Castle, G. (2013). *The literary theory handbook*. Wiley Blackwell.
- [7] Freud, S. (1914). Remembering, repeating and working-through. In J. Strachey (Ed. & Trans.), *The standard edition of the complete psychological works of Sigmund Freud* (1958, Vol. 12, pp. 145-156). The Hogarth Press.
- [8] Freud, S. (1957). *Civilization and its discontents* (J. Riviere, Trans.). The Hogarth Press.
- [9] Freud, S. (1961). *Inhibitions, symptoms and anxiety* (A. Strachey, Trans.). The Hogarth Press.
- [10] Freud, S. (1962). *The ego and the id* (J. Riviere, Trans.). The Hogarth Press.
- [11] Henke, S. A. (1998). *Shattered subjects: Trauma and testimony in women’s life-writing*. St. Martin’s Press.
- [12] Herman, J. L. (1992). *Trauma and recovery: The aftermath of violence—from domestic abuse to political terror*. Basic Books.
- [13] Lockhart, E. (2014). *We were liars*. Delacorte Press.
- [14] Lockhart, E. (2022). *Family of liars*. Delacorte Press.
- [15] van der Kolk, B. (2014). *The body keeps the score: Brain, mind, and body in the healing of trauma*. Viking.
- [16] Wood, J. B. (2014). *The autograph man*, by Zadie Smith: the long way to heal trauma. *3L: Language, Linguistics, Literature*, 20(2), 19-30. <http://dx.doi.org/10.17576/3L-2014-2002-02>

Nisrein M. Abu Sawa is an English instructor at the Hashemite University/Jordan. She graduated from the University of Jordan in 2013 with a BA in English Language and Literature and received her MA in English language from the Hashemite University in 2017. She wrote her MA thesis on doubling and personality disorders in selected (post)modernist fictions and published a number of papers on English literature in international journals.

The Effectiveness of Collaborative Strategic Reading (CSR) in Improving Students' Reading Comprehension

Yon A.E.

English Education Department, Faculty of Education, Panca Sakti University, Bekasi 12345, West Java, Indonesia

Halimah

English Education Department, Faculty of Teacher Training and Education, Suryakancana University, Cianjur 43216, West Java, Indonesia

Ida Nuraida

English Education Department, Faculty of Teacher Training and Education, Banten Jaya University, Serang 42171, Banten, Indonesia

Abstract—This study was conducted to investigate the effectiveness of Collaborative Strategic Reading (CSR) in enhancing students' reading comprehension. Pre-experimental research was applied in the form of one group pre-test/post-test design to understand the influence of CSR on the students' reading comprehension. Study participants included 30 English as a Foreign Language (EFL) students in their second semester of study in the English Department of a West Java private university. This sampling was determined through purposive sampling. The data for the research question of this study was collected through two test instruments - a pre-test and a post-test - with each consisting of 50 questions in each test in the form of multiple choice and observation. Both tests contained questions based on the five indicators of Barrett's taxonomy: literal comprehension, reorganization, inferential comprehension, evaluation, and appreciation. The study applied a gain-score calculation in which the average N-gain score is 61.38. The results showed that the Sig. (2-tailed) value was $0.000 < 0.05$. Therefore, based on the decision-making criteria, it can be concluded that there is a significant difference between learning outcomes in the pre-test data and post-test data. This means that the implementation of CSR is quite effective in enhancing the students' reading comprehension competence.

Index Terms—Barrett's taxonomy, comprehension, reading, CSR

I. INTRODUCTION

Living in the twenty-first century is challenging and competitive and part of this competitive character necessitates that everyone is able to read (Nurwahidah et al., 2023). In addition, Baleghizadeh (2011) said that reading is essential in our society since we are always surrounded by literature. Furthermore, Riyawi (2018) remarked that to be successful in modern society, citizens must be proficient readers. Talking about reading, Wangchuk and Chalermnirudorn (2019) explained that reading is a meaning-making process of the text through active interaction among the readers' current knowledge, written information, and the context of the reading situation. In addition, Islamiah et al. (2017); Erdiana et al. (2017) argued that reading is one of the vital skills learners must master in academic settings to gain more information and a deeper understanding of a text. It also fosters the other imperative language skills of writing, listening, and speaking.

As stated by Pallathadka et al. (2022) that the importance of reading comprehension for academic success cannot be discounted, yet just being able to read is not enough; one should be able to comprehend what is being read as well. After all, the gist of reading is comprehension which is the act of establishing meaning from the text with intellect (Syafii, 2022). It means that comprehending a text requires a needed knowledge. Reading is not easy but is a complex and interactive process that requires the readers to know and comprehend the words and sentence patterns (Gopal & Ton, 2019; Ying & Veerappan, 2021). As a result, students should be taught using a proper learning strategy regarding reading competence so that the intention of the texts being read can be better understood. One of the most effective learning strategies that can be used by the lecturer today to enhance student's reading comprehension competence is Collaborative Strategic Reading (CSR).

Collaborative Strategic Reading is an effective strategy and several studies have proven the effectiveness of this strategy in helping students' reading comprehension competence. Among them are Ying and Veerappan (2021); Pahlawan and Tambusai (2022); Miftahus et al. (2023).

The evidence that suggests CSR is effective in helping students' comprehension skills is what led researchers to conduct this study concerning refining students' reading comprehension at an English Department of a private university in Bekasi, West Java, Indonesia. Based on our primary study it was found that the expectations of success in reading were contrary to the real situation. In the learning process, it was difficult for students to comprehend the meaning of the reading text (Nasir et al., 2019), as seen in the relatively low results of the final semester exam scores of students in the second semester.

Accordingly, we would like to fix those students' reading comprehension competence. By implementing CSR in reading class, this study intends to unveil the effectiveness of CSR in reading comprehension improvement. The results of this research can further help lecturers understand the best strategy to use for reading comprehension in EFL classrooms.

II. LITERATURE REVIEW

A. Reading Comprehension

Reading is, for Manoharan and Ramachandran (2023), a distinct mode of communication that acts as a link between the writer's ideas and the reader's comprehension. A further definition of reading is given by Alqarni (2015) who describes reading helps to cultivate learners' thinking while also offering them relaxation and enjoyment. Accordingly, readers may have diverse objectives when they read, including reading for pleasure, acquiring information, work-related purposes, personal development, and achieving successful learning. Indeed, reading provides an avenue for communication, language acquisition, and interaction. It also plays several roles in the life of humans such as getting information, retorting to text, and following instructions to perform a certain task. According to Bermillo and Merto (2022), reading is considered an interactive process between the reader and the text which results in comprehension. In other words, comprehension is the fundamental objective of reading (Hu & Zhang, 2023).

Turning now to reading comprehension is defined as the process of extracting or taking meaning from a written text that depend on the reader's cognitive skills and prior knowledge, the characteristics of the text, and the reading context (Nasir et al., 2019; Taharat et al., 2022; Starling-Alves & Hirata, 2023). It is a complex interactive process of extracting information from a text and constructing new understanding based on the reader's background knowledge (Lailatul et al., 2022).

Generally speaking, reading comprehension refers to the capability to grasp the information in a text and interpret it correctly (Akbari, 2014). Barrett's taxonomy proposed five levels to create reading comprehension questions: literal comprehension, reorganization, inferential comprehension, evaluation, and appreciation (Purnamasari & Trisno, 2022).

B. Reading Strategies

The main goal of teaching reading comprehension is to aid students in grasping the author's intended message, interpreting its meaning and implications, and applying it meaningfully, enhancing students' reading skills often depends on their ability to comprehend sentences or passages. Simple sentences are straightforward, but understanding compound and complex sentences requires strategies to discern the author's intent. Therefore, to make reading easier, students need to use certain strategies, and good readers use a wide range of reading strategies and learn how to use them deliberately (Gani et al., 2016). Consequently, teachers of reading must select an appropriate teaching strategy that helps their students to improve their reading comprehension (Zagoto, 2016).

According to Savolainen (2016, p. 1156; as cited in Modreanu & Sarbu, 2021), the word "strategy" comes from the Greek term "strategos", which denotes military officers and suggests the planning that commanders employed in directing their troops (Savolainen, 2016, p. 1156). The word "stratego" means a plan to destroy enemies by effectively using the available resources. To Athapaththu (2016), a strategy is defined as a series of decisions within an organization that establish goals, objectives, and purposes, and develop the main policies and plans necessary to achieve those goals. Accordingly, it can be synthesized that reading strategy is a formula or a plan used by the reader to ease them to grab the message's meaning from the reading.

C. Collaborative Strategic Reading (CSR)

The term Collaborative Strategic Reading (CSR) was developed by Klingner and Vaughn in 1996 and 1998 (Jafre & Abidin, 2012; Anwar, 2020; Bermillo & Merto, 2022). However, CSR is a proven beneficial reading strategy that has been used since 1980 (Susanti et al., 2020). According to Pahlawan and Tambusai (2022); Alqarni (2015); Zagoto (2016), CSR is an excellent strategy whose purpose is to improve students' reading comprehension through working in groups.

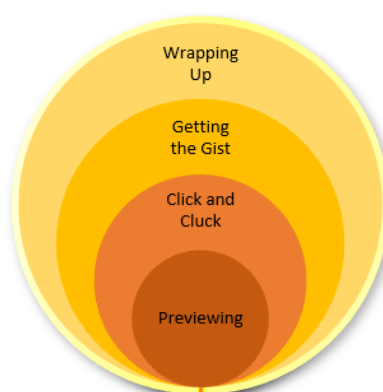


Figure 1. The Stages in Using the CSR Strategy

Basically, CSR is a set of strategies designed to maximize students' engagement and help all students improve their reading comprehension, increase their content area learning, enable their access to higher-level texts and encourage their engagement in reading (Sulistiyani et al., 2022). The notion of CSR is to engage students to work in small cooperative groups of three to five members and employ four comprehension strategies as shown in Figure 1 (Riani, 2015; Lailatul et al., 2022; Sulistiyani et al., 2022). The strategies are explained as follow.

(a). *Previewing the Text or Examining the Text*

Previewing is a strategy to motivate learners' prior knowledge and to produce informed predictions of the topic to be read (Syafii, 2022). Meanwhile, Susanti et al. (2020) argued that previewing a text allows students to activate prior knowledge, connecting what they already know with the new information they are about to read. In the initial stage, students engage in previewing the passage, a process that enhances their understanding by activating background knowledge, making predictions, and identifying key elements such as headings, underlined words, pictures, tables, and graphs. This helps in creating associations and making the content more relatable and understandable. Additionally, previewing can also assist in setting a purpose for reading, whether it is to gather specific information, answer particular questions, or simply comprehend the overall message or argument presented in the text. Moreover, previewing serves to pique students' interest in the topic and encourages active engagement in reading right from the start.

(b). *Click and Clunk*

Click and Clunk are the strategies used by students to monitor themselves as to whether or not they already understand the words, concepts, and ideas of the text. In the Click and Clunk activities of the collaborative reading strategy, students identify what they understand well ("Click") and what they are confused about or do not understand ("Clunk"). This strategy encourages discussion and mutual support among students by allowing them to share strengths and uncertainties in their understanding. This facilitates a deeper understanding of the text by working together to clarify confusing points (Alqarni, 2015).

(c). *Get the Gist*

This strategy is used by the students to identify the main ideas from reading the text to confirm their understanding of the information. According to Alqarni (2015), in this stage, students develop the ability to grasp the essence of a passage by identifying its main idea. They restate this main idea in their own words to ensure comprehension. The teacher prompts students to articulate the significant places, individuals, and events from what they have read using their own interpretations.

(d). *Wrap Up*

This stage asks students to draw conclusions from the text. In the wrap-up stage, students generate questions and answers based on the key ideas they have just learned. The primary objectives of this stage are to enhance students' knowledge, understanding, and retention of the material (Susanti et al., 2020). Additionally, students create open-ended questions using "who", "what", "why", "when", "where", and "how".

D. *Statement of the Problem*

Empirical evidence from standardized tests and educational studies consistently indicates a troubling reality: a significant proportion of children have extremely low levels of reading comprehension. Among the hurdles, Qrgez and Rashid (2017) reported that students at a university in Jordan often struggle with reading comprehension due to encountering ambiguous words, unfamiliar vocabulary, and limited time to effectively process the text cognitively.

Second, students in a basic reading class at an English Education Program at the University of Indraprastha PGRI in South Jakarta, Indonesia, found difficulty in distinguishing between the main ideas and supporting details, getting the

main idea of each paragraph, recognizing the topic of the texts from other cultures, relating the topic and their background knowledge, understanding vocabulary, and recognizing inferences (Ramadhianti & Somba, 2023).

Third, Kasim and Raisha (2017) discovered that fifth-semester students from the English Department of the Teaching Faculty at Syiah Kuala University found that the participants' reading comprehension was primarily hindered by linguistic issues such as unfamiliar meanings of new vocabulary, complexity of words, compound-complex and conditional sentences, word derivation, word order, complex and compound sentences, reduced relative clauses, passive voice, and tenses. Non-linguistic challenges included lack of cultural knowledge, text length, unfamiliarity with reading strategies, difficulty distinguishing main and supporting ideas, problems with working memory, challenges in connecting ideas, and inability to engage in speed reading.

These complex challenges collectively impede students' progress in attaining proficient reading comprehension levels, underscoring the need for lecturer intervention in selecting appropriate teaching strategies. As claimed by Kasim and Raisha (2017), employing effective reading strategies can significantly aid students in comprehending texts. By using these strategies adeptly, students can mitigate reading difficulties and enhance their overall reading comprehension skills. Thus, the study sought to answer this research question: Is CSR effective in enhancing second-semester students' reading comprehension?

III. METHODOLOGY

A. Research Design

The current study applied a pre-experimental one-group pre-test/post-test design. It is called pre-experimental because the researchers only used one sample (Ardianto et al., 2022) in which the researchers administered two tests to one class group. The research sought to uncover the effectiveness of CSR in enhancing second-semester students' reading comprehension.

B. Participants

Data for this study was gathered from 30 students consisting of 21 (70%) females and 9 (30%) males ranging in age from 18 to 21 years old and enrolled in the second semester of the English Education Department in a private university in Bekasi, Indonesia, during the 2021/22 academic year.

C. Material

The reading comprehension ability pre-test is designed to test students' reading comprehension ability before learning Collaborative Strategic Reading (CSR) strategies. The post-test is designed to examine whether students' reading comprehension ability increases after learning CSR strategies. The reading proficiency pre-test and post-test each comprise eight reading passages and a set of 50 multiple-choice questions. A multiple-choice test is commonly used to collect quantitative data where the central idea is one question and four answer choices consisting of one correct answer and three distractors.

Barrett's taxonomy is utilized to evaluate students' cognitive and affective levels of reading comprehension, encompassing both cognitive and emotional dimensions of understanding (Krismadayanti & Zainil, 2022). Barrett's taxonomy is intended to aid the teacher in the construction of comprehension questions. Therefore, the reading comprehension tests were designed based on the five indicators of Barrett's taxonomy: literal comprehension, reorganization, inferential comprehension, evaluation, and appreciation. The test was an unpublished test which was constructed by the researchers themselves. Each test is scored out of 100, with each question worth 2 points. Students must complete each test within a 90-minute time limit. The pre-test and post-test papers maintain identical structures and difficulty levels, as outlined in Table 1:

TABLE 1
READING COMPREHENSION COMPETENCE PRE-TEST PAPER AND READING COMPREHENSION COMPETENCE POST-TEST PAPER

Indicator	Descriptions of sub indicator	Item numbers
Literal comprehension (focusing on ideas and information explicitly stated in the text)	• students' recognition of details	1,11,27
	• students' recognition of main ideas	2,12,28
	• students' recognition of sequence	3,13,29
	• students' recognition of comparison	4,14
	• students' recognition of cause-and-effect relationships	15,30
Reorganization questions	• students' recognition of traits	16,17
	• classifying	6,18,31,48
	• outlining	7,19,32,33
	• summarizing	5,20,34
Inferential	• synthesizing	8,9,21,35
	• students' recognition of details	10,22
	• students' recognition of main ideas	23
	• students' recognition of sequence	24,36
	• students' recognition of comparison	25
Evaluation	• students' recognition of cause-and-effect relationships	26
	• judgment of reality or fantasy	37,38
	• judgment of fact or opinion	39,40
	• judgment of adequacy or validity	41
	• judgment of appropriateness or worth	42
Appreciation	• judgment of, desirability, acceptability.	43
	• emotional response to the content	44,49
	• sensitivity to ideas	45
	• sympathy for and empathy with the character	46,50
	• reactions to the author's use of language	47

D. Procedures

(a). Stage 1 - Preparation

In the preliminary phase of research, several crucial tasks form the backbone of a comprehensive study. First, compiling and refining the pre-test and post-test items or instruments used for data collection set the stage for accurate and reliable measurements or assessments within the research framework. Additionally, constructing a well-defined scoring rubric or evaluation criteria ensures consistency and objectivity in assessing and interpreting research findings. These foundational steps establish a robust foundation for rigorous and systematic investigation, fostering credible and insightful outcomes within the research domain. Lastly, the researchers designed the lesson plan based on the CSR stages.

(b). Stage 2 – Implementation of the CSR

The second stage encompassed the active implementation of this collaborative approach within the classroom setting. In these meetings, the researchers taught students using the Collaborative Strategic Reading (CSR) strategy which included guiding students through explicit reading strategies such as predicting, clarifying, questioning, and summarizing. The researchers facilitated group discussions, encouraged peer interaction, and modeled effective reading strategies to enhance students' reading comprehension skills. Moreover, this stage emphasized the application of these strategies across various texts and genres, fostering a deeper understanding of the material while promoting active engagement and critical thinking among learners. The implementation of CSR in this phase aimed to create an inclusive and collaborative learning environment conducive to improving students' reading comprehension abilities. Stage 2 was completed within two months.

(c). Stage 3 – Data Collection

In Stage 3, the focus shifts towards the meticulous implementation of data collection techniques utilizing pre-tests and post-tests alongside observation sheets as integral tools within the educational framework. This stage involves administering pre-tests to establish a baseline of students' knowledge or skills prior to the instructional intervention. Following the teaching phase, post-tests are conducted to evaluate the effectiveness of the intervention and measure the progress made by students.

The pre-tests and post-tests are structured as comprehensive assessments, each comprising 50 multiple-choice questions. The carefully curated questions cover a range of reading strategies, including identifying main ideas, making inferences, understanding vocabulary in context, and drawing conclusions from the text. Administered prior to and following the instructional intervention, these tests serve as critical benchmarks, allowing educators to assess students' initial understanding and measure the progress made in their reading comprehension skills. The multiple-choice format provides a diverse array of inquiries, enabling a thorough evaluation of students' comprehension abilities within the context of the material presented, and facilitating a comprehensive assessment of their reading proficiency.

(d). Stage 4 – Data Analysis

The collected data for the research question was processed and analyzed by using a paired t-test which consists of several statistic formulas. There is a normalizing gain score by Hake (1999; as cited in Coletta & Steinert, 2020) were used to measure the improvement in students' reading comprehension following the learning activity. Additionally, calculations included mean scores, variance, standard deviation, combined variance, and hypothesis testing as proposed by Wan et al. (2014) to support the formulation of normality test steps. Finally, there was also a normality test by Coletta and Steinert (2020) which was used to determine whether the data were normally distributed or not.

IV. FINDINGS

As explained earlier in the methods section, the participants included 30 students enrolled in the second semester of the English Education Department at a private university in Bekasi, Indonesia, in the academic year 2021/22. Observation and tests were applied to gather the data. What follows is a presentation of the research findings.

A. The Finding of Students' Reading Comprehension Before Implementing of CSR Strategy

TABLE 2
THE STUDENTS' READING COMPREHENSION BEFORE THE IMPLEMENTATION OF CSR STRATEGY

Raw Score	Interval Score	Frequency	Percentage
85 - 100	3.40 - 4.00	0	0.0
70 - 84	2.80 - 3.39	3	10.0
60 - 69	2.40 - 2.79	8	26.7
50 - 59	0.99 - 2.39	19	63.3
0 - 49	0.00 - 0.99	0	0.0

Table 2 provides a comprehensive overview of the students' reading comprehension levels before teaching them the Collaborative Strategic Reading (CSR) strategies. Notably, three students demonstrated a vigorous understanding of the material, securing scores within the 70-84 range. This showcases a commendable level of comprehension and proficiency among these individuals. Additionally, a cohort of eight students fell within the 60-69 score range, indicating a moderate level of comprehension. Moreover, 19 of the students achieved scores in the 50-59 range, signifying a basic understanding of the subject matter with room for improvement. These findings underscore the varying levels of proficiency among students before the implementation of the CSR strategy, highlighting both strong areas and those areas that focused attention and support. The distribution across these intervals informs educators about the diverse spectrum of comprehension levels, guiding the targeted application of instructional methodologies to address specific learning needs and enhance overall reading comprehension skills.

B. The Finding of Students' Reading Comprehension After Implementing of CSR Strategy

TABLE 3
THE STUDENTS' READING COMPREHENSION AFTER THE IMPLEMENTATION OF THE CSR STRATEGY

Raw Score	Interval Score	Frequency	Percentage
85 - 100	3.40 - 4.00	11	36.7
70 - 84	2.80 - 3.39	19	63.3
60 - 69	2.40 - 2.79	0	0.0
50 - 59	0.99 - 2.39	0	0.0
0 - 49	0.00 - 0.99	0	0.0

Table 3 defines the outcomes of students' reading comprehension after the implementation of the Collaborative Strategic Reading (CSR) strategies. Remarkably, a substantial advancement in comprehension is evident with 11 students achieving scores falling within the impressive 85-100 range. This substantial increase in high scores signifies a notable enhancement in students' understanding and application of reading strategies after engaging with the CSR methodology. Furthermore, 19 students demonstrated significant progress, securing scores within the 70-84 range. This range reflects a commendable improvement in their comprehension skills compared to their pre-intervention levels, underscoring the effectiveness of the CSR strategies in fostering a deeper understanding and application of reading comprehension techniques among a considerable portion of the student cohort.

Interestingly, following the implementation of the CSR strategies, there were no recorded scores within the 60-69 or 50-59 ranges. The absence of students within these score ranges suggests a distinct shift in the distribution of comprehension levels. This could indicate that the intervention notably impacted students' abilities, leading to a more concentrated distribution among higher-ranked scores. The absence of scores within these lower intervals post-implementation may suggest an overall elevation in the general competency and comprehension skills of the student body, showcasing the efficacy of the CSR strategies in significantly raising reading comprehension levels across the majority of the students.

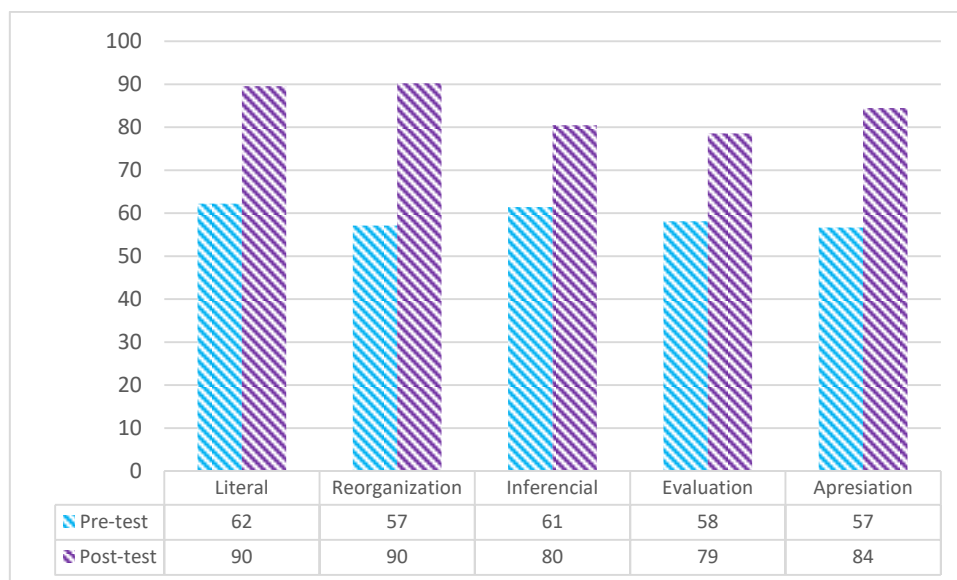


Figure 2.

Figure 2 illustrates the results comparison of the reading comprehension test average between pre-tests and post-tests for each reading comprehension level. In lateral comprehension, the average score increased sharply from 62 on the pre-test to 90 on the post-test. In reorganization comprehension, it increased dramatically from 57 to 90. Then, on the inferential level, the average score increased strikingly from 61 to 80. Meanwhile, the evaluation level also improved from 58 to 79. The last level was appreciation. This level also shows an improvement from 57 to 84. Overall, we can see that there is an improvement in the students' reading comprehension for each level of reading comprehension.

C. Data Normality Test

The Shapiro-Wilk data normality test was used in this study. This is because the size of the research data is small, namely less than 50, so it is more appropriate to use Shapiro-Wilk. The decision-making criterion is If the significance value (Sig.) is less than 0.05, it indicates that the data is not normally distributed. Conversely, if the significance value is greater than 0.05, it suggests that the data follows a normal distribution. These results obtained from conducting a data normality test using SPSS software are presented in Table 4.

TABLE 4
DATA NORMALITY TEST

	Kolmogorov-Smirnov ^a			Shapiro-Wilk		
	Statistic	df	Sig.	Statistic	df	Sig.
Pre-Test	0.106	30	0.200	0.959	30	0.297
Post-Tests	0.154	30	0.068	0.955	30	0.232

In Table 5, it can be seen that the normality test using the Shapiro-Wilk value of Sig. for pre-test data is 0.297 which is greater than 0.05. Therefore, the pre-test data is normally distributed. Likewise for the post-test data, the value of Sig. = 0.232 > 0.05, so that the post-test data was normally distributed. Thus, the prerequisite test for conducting the paired sample t-test has been fulfilled, so the data analysis step to answer the problem formulation can also be carried out.

D. Description of Research Data

The description of the research data used is presented in Table 5 below:

TABLE 5
DESCRIPTION OF RESEARCH DATA

	Mean	N	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean
Pre-test	59.1000	30	6.04209	1.10313
Post-Tests	84.6000	30	4.44584	0.81170

Notice in Table 5 that the average pre-test value is 59.1 while the average post-test value is 84.6. Moreover, in column N, information is obtained that the sample size used was 30 people. The standard deviation of the pre-test data is 6.04209 while the post-test data is 4.44584. The value of this standard deviation measure describes how widely the research data was distributed.

E. Correlation of Pre-Test Data and Post-Test Data

The results of the correlation or relationship between the two data, namely the pre-test and post-test are presented in Table 6 below.

TABLE 6
CORRELATION OF RESEARCH DATA

	N	Correlation	Sig.
Pre-test & Post-Test	30	-0.031	0.873

The basis for decision-making is if the value of Sig. < 0.05, there is a significant correlation or relationship between the pre-test and post-test data. Conversely, if the value of Sig. > 0.05, there is no significant correlation or relationship between the pre-test and post-test data. From the test results in Table 6 it can be seen that the Sig. = 0.873 where this is greater than 0.05, it can be said that there is no significant relationship between the pre-test and post-test data in this study.

F. Paired Sample T-Test

Furthermore, to find out whether there is a significant difference between the results or data of the pre-test and post-test, a paired t-test was employed. The basis for the decision is:

(a). If the significance value (Sig. 2-tailed) is less than 0.05, it indicates a statistically significant difference between the learning outcomes in the pre-test and post-test data. This implies that the changes observed are not likely due to random chance but are meaningful and significant.

(b). If the significance value (Sig. 2-tailed) is more than 0.05, it indicates a statistically no significant difference between the learning outcomes in the pre-test and post-test data. The results are presented in Table 7 below.

TABLE 7
PAIRED T-TEST RESULTS

Mean	Std. Deviation	t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)
-25.500	7.610	-18.353	29	0.000

The result of the analysis shows that the mean of pair differences is 25.5, and there is a standard deviation of 7.61. This means that there is a significant difference between pre-test and post-test. This finding is supported by the results of statistical analysis. Based on the test results, it was found that the Sig. (2-tailed) value was 0.000 < 0.05. Therefore, based on the decision-making criteria, it can be concluded that there is a significant difference between learning outcomes in the pre-test data and post-test data.

G. N-Gain Tets

Furthermore, to measure the effectiveness of a particular method or treatment in a one-group pre-test/post-test design study, an N-Gain (Normalized Gain) test is conducted. The criteria used to interpret the N-Gain score obtained are typically presented in a scale or guideline that categorizes the level of improvement achieved by participants. This scale can range from minimal to high gains, indicating the degree of effectiveness of the method or treatment used which are presented in Table 8 and the results of data processing are presented in Table 9.

TABLE 8
CATEGORIES OF N-GAIN EFFECTIVENESS INTERPRETATION

Percentage (%)	Interpretation
< 40	Ineffective
40 – 55	Less effective
56 – 75	Effective enough
> 76	Effective

Source: Hake, R.R. (1999; cited in Coletta & Steinert, 2020)

TABLE 9
N-GAIN SCORE

	Rata-Rata	Min	Max
N-Gain Score	61.38	22.43	90.29

From Table 9, it can be seen that the average N-gain score is 61.38. If it is adjusted to the criteria used, it can be concluded that the implementation of CSR is quite effective in increasing the students' reading comprehension competence.

V. DISCUSSION

The present study aimed to unveil the effectiveness of CSR as a reading strategy for increasing student reading comprehension competence by comparing the results of a pre-test and a post-test. Both tests contained questions based on the five indicators of Barrett's taxonomy – one of the most well-known taxonomies in education. It is supported by Purnamasari and Trisno (2022) who stated that Barrett's taxonomy is suitable for analyzing reading comprehension questions. It has five levels to create reading comprehension questions. They are literal comprehension, reorganization, inferential comprehension, evaluation, and appreciation.

Before the CSR was implemented in reading class, the teacher needed to know the student's reading competence, so everything needed in the research was carefully chosen. This was supported by Anwar (2020) who explained that before

the teacher applied CSR in the teaching and learning processes, the researcher needed to know the students' capability in reading an English text, so the teacher prepared everything that was needed for the research.

The pre-test was conducted in this study to know the students' initial competence in reading comprehension. This test was given to participants to measure how much they already knew about reading comprehension before they were taught CSR strategies. This is in line with Taufik et al. (2019) who stated that the general function of a pretest is to evaluate an activity or program before their implementation. Moreover, the pretest is also a medium that measures the level of intelligence and understanding of learning activities that have not been implemented. Therefore, the pre-test in this research was carefully administered.

When the researchers obtained the pretest results, they were apprehensive about the scores of the students. Of the 30 participants, there were only 3 (or 10%) students who passed the standard competence test while the rest or 27 (90%) students failed. It proved that most of the students had obstacles in reading comprehension. The low learners' achievement scores were caused by most of the students who could not grasp the Literal Comprehension of texts with an average score of 62. Reorganization had an average core of 57, Inferential Comprehension had an average core of 61, Evaluation had an average core of 58, and Appreciation had an average core of 79.

After the researcher applied the collaborative strategic reading, students' achievement scores improved immensely. The post-test scores revealed that 11 students got scores ranging from 85 to 100 and 19 students got scores ranging from 70 to 84. Not one student scored below those scores. That means that all 30 students passed the reading test.

From that finding it proved that CSR is effective in increasing students' reading comprehension skills. In line with this finding, Sulistyani et al. (2022) found that, after being taught CSR strategies, students' reading comprehension scores on the post-test were higher than those on the pre-test. Further, there was an increase in the mean score from 63.14 to 84.57.

To support the finding, the researchers used a paired t-test. The test hypotheses regarding the effectiveness of using Collaborative Strategic Reading (CSR) techniques are acquired by looking at the effectiveness weights. This is to find out the effectiveness of using Collaborative Strategic Reading to improve students' reading comprehension competence.

According to Klinger and Vaughn (1998), CSR techniques aim to improve reading comprehension and enhance conceptual learning. The results of the study showed that this strategy was able to improve the English reading skills of the students in the second semester of the English Education Study Program at a private university in West Java.

Based on the test results, it was found that the Sig. (2-tailed) value was $0.000 < 0.05$. Therefore, based on the decision-making criteria, it can be summarized that there is a significant difference between learning outcomes in the pre-test data and post-test data. After learning CSR techniques in reading class, the students' reading comprehension improved significantly. This result is in line with Anwar (2020) who reported that there is a significant difference in students' reading skills before and after giving the Collaborative strategic reading lessons. This finding is also supported by Zagoto (2016) who reported that the CSR strategies help students find the main idea. Other evidence came from Sulistyani et al. (2022) who found that the stages of CSR helped students immensely in comprehending the text. Students can obtain greater assistance from the steps that CSR offers. In addition, Aritonang and Swondo (2021) claimed that the CSR strategy helped the students with four things: it made reading comprehension easier for students, it increased students' curiosity about the content of a passage, it increased students' ability to use their higher critical thinking skills (connecting), and it enriched students' vocabulary. In short, it means that the use of the CSR strategy had a significant effect on the student reading comprehension.

More evidence was provided by the result of the research of Syakur and Paisun (2021) who stated that the study demonstrated that implementing Collaborative Strategic Reading (CSR) led to improvements in students' reading comprehension. This was evidenced by increases in average scores and the percentage of students achieving mastery in reading comprehension for descriptive texts across three cycles (72% to 77% in the first cycle, 74% to 82% in the second cycle, and 78% to 86% in the third cycle). These results indicate that CSR was effective in enhancing students' reading comprehension skills. In short, several studies proved the effectiveness of CSR strategies in helping students to be better in reading comprehension competence. Those findings support the finding of the current study which found that the average N-gain score is 61.38. If it is adjusted to the criteria used, it can be concluded that the implementation of CSR is quite effective in increasing the students' reading comprehension competence.

VI. CONCLUSION

The current study presents CSR as an efficient strategy that can be successfully applied in teaching reading comprehension in a foreign language. This study proved that the CSR strategy was effective in increasing Indonesian students' reading comprehension competence. The students were able to answer the reading comprehension questions on the five levels of reading comprehension; literal comprehension, reorganization, inferential comprehension, evaluation, and appreciation. Thus, CSR can be highly useful for improving the students' competence in comprehending English texts. The results of this research can be input for lecturers so that they can further understand the best strategy in EFL classrooms, especially in reading classes.

REFERENCES

- [1] Abidin, Jm. J. Z., & Riswanto. (2012). Collaborative Strategic Reading (CSR) within Cognitive and Metacognitive Strategies perspectives. *International Journal of Humanities and Social Science*, 2(3), 192–198. www.ijhssnet.com
- [2] Akbari, Z. (2014). The Role of Grammar in Second Language Reading Comprehension : Iranian ESP Context. *Procedia - Social and Behavioral Sciences*, 98(2000), 122–126. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.sbspro.2014.03.397>
- [3] Alqarni, F. (2015). Collaborative Strategic Reading to Enhance Learners ' Reading Comprehension in English as a Foreign Language. *Academic Journal of Interdisciplinary Studies*, 4(1), 161–166. <https://doi.org/10.5901/ajis.2015.v4n1p161>
- [4] Anwar, A. K. (2020). The Effect of Collaborative Strategic Reading toward Students Reading Skill. *Anglophile Journal*, 1(1), 21–28. <https://creativecommons.org>
- [5] Ardianto, Saliya, K., & Ariyani, A. (2022). Improving students' speaking ability by using Youtube application at Madrasah Aliyah Kalosi. *Journal of Technology in Language Pedagogy (JTechLP)*, 1(2), 110–120.
- [6] Aritonang, R. P., & Swondo, A. P. (2021). The Effect of Using Collaborative Strategic Reading (CRS) on Students' Reading Comprehension. *MELT Journal*, 6(1), 31–53.
- [7] Athapaththu, H. K. S. H. (2016). An Overview of Strategic Management: An Analysis of the Concepts and the Importance of Strategic Management. *International Journal of Scientific and Research Publications*, 6(2), 124–127. www.ijsrp.org
- [8] Baleghizadeh, S. (2011). The Impact of Students' Training in Questioning the Author Technique on EFL Reading Comprehension. *Procedia - Social and Behavioral Sciences*, 29, 1668–1676. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.sbspro.2011.11.410>
- [9] Bermillo, J. E., & Merto, V. L. T. (2022). Collaborative Strategic Reading on Students' Comprehension and Motivation. *European Journal of English Language Teaching*, 7(2), 71–103. <https://doi.org/10.46827/ejel.v7i1.4148>
- [10] Coletta, V. P., & Steinert, J. J. (2020). Why normalized gain should continue to be used in analyzing preinstruction and postinstruction scores on concept inventories. *Physical Review Physics Education Research*, 16(1), 10108. <https://doi.org/10.1103/PhysRevPhysEducRes.16.010108>
- [11] Erdiana, N., Kasim, U., & Juwita, N. (2017). QAR Strategy Implementation for Reading Comprehension of Recount Texts. *Studies in English Language and Education*, 4(2), 247–256. <https://doi.org/10.24815/siele.v4i2.8500>
- [12] Gani, S. A., Yusuf, Y. Q., & Susiani, R. (2016). Kasetsart Journal of Social Sciences Progressive outcomes of collaborative strategic reading to EFL learners. *Kasetsart Journal of Social Sciences*, 37(3), 144–149. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.kjss.2016.08.004>
- [13] Gopal, R., & Ton, C. (2019). Prose Reading : The Influence of Text- Reader Factors. *Studies in English Language and Education*, 6(2), 187–198. <https://doi.org/10.24815/siele.v6i2.13367>
- [14] Hu, Z., & Zhang, H. (2023). Non-selective language activation in L2 lexical inference and text comprehension : Comparing skilled and less-skilled readers. *Heliyon*, 9(1), e12818. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.heliyon.2023.e12818>
- [15] Islamiah, N., Aprizani, Y., & Perdana, I. (2017). EFL Reading Comprehension and Reading Strategies of Different Genders. *Studies in English Language and Education*, 4(2), 190–203. <https://doi.org/10.24815/siele.v4i2.6658>
- [16] Kasim, U., & Raisha, S. (2017). EFL Students' Reading Comprehension Problems: Linguistic and Non-Linguistic Complexities. *English Education Journal (EEJ)*, 8(3), 308–321. <https://journal.unnes.ac.id/sju/index.php/eej>
- [17] Krismadayanti, A., & Zainil, Y. (2022). The Level of the Students' Reading Comprehension Analyzed by Using Barrett Taxonomy. *Journal of Cultura and Lingua*, 3(1), 39–48. <https://doi.org/10.37301/culingua.v3i1.110>
- [18] Lailatul, N., Nasih, A. M., & Suryati, N. (2022). The Effect of Collaborative Strategic Reading (CSR) on Muhammadiyah University Students' Reading Comprehension and Their Perceptions. *Jurnal Pendidikan*, 7(3), 90–96. <http://journal.um.ac.id/index.php/jptpp/>
- [19] Manoharan, A., & Ramachandran, S. (2023). Enhancing Reading Comprehension Skills of Prospective Teachers Using Suitable Reading Strategies. *Journal of Language Teaching and Research*, 14(1), 48–56. <https://doi.org/10.17507/jltr.1401.06>
- [20] Miftahus, U., Faridi, A., & Hartono, R. (2023). The Effectiveness of Collaborative Strategic Reading (CSR) and Think, Predict, Read , and Connect (TPRC) Strategies to Teach Reading Comprehension to Students with Different Self- efficacy at MA Ma'arif NU 1 Kemranjen Banyumas. *International Journal of Research and Review*, 10(March), 196–205. website: www.ijrrjournal.com
- [21] Modreanu, A., Andrisan, G. N., & Sarbu, M.-A. (2021). Strategy : An Overview. "Ovidius" University Annals, *Economic Sciences Series*, XXI(2), 836–841. <https://openurl.ebsco.com/>
- [22] Nababan, R. M., Napitupulu, S., & Hutabarat, N. M. (2022). The Effect Of Using Collaborative Strategic Reading (CSR) On The Student's Reading Comprehension Of Tenth Grade At SMK Swasta HKBP Pematangsiantar. *Jurnal Pendidikan Dan Konseling*, 4(6), 140–144.
- [23] Nasir, C., Gani, S. A., & Haqqini, D. (2019). Group Investigation Technique for Better Reading Comprehension Skill. *Studies in English Language and Education*, 6(2), 251–261. <https://doi.org/10.24815/siele.v6i2.13619>
- [24] Nurwahidah, N., Sulfasyah, S., & Rukli, R. (2023). Investigating Grade Five Teachers' Integration of Technology in Teaching Reading Comprehension Using the TPACK Framework. *Journal of Language Teaching and Research*, 14(4), 927–932. <https://doi.org/10.17507/jltr.1404.09>
- [25] Pallathadka, H., Xie, S., Alikulov, S., Al-qubbanchi, H. S., Alshahrani, S. H., Yunting, Z., & Behbahani, H. K. (2022). Word Recognition and Fluency Activities' Effects on Reading Comprehension : An Iranian EFL Learners' Experience. *Hindawi Education Research International*, 2022, 1–10. <https://doi.org/https://doi.org/10.1155/2022/4870251>
- [26] Purnamasari, L., & Trisno, E. (2022). An Analysis of Students' Ability in Paraphrasing a Paragraph at the English Department Universitas Negeri Padang. *Journal of English Language Teaching*, 11(3), 314–323. <https://doi.org/10.24036/jelt.v11i2.116865>
- [27] Qrgez, M., & Rashid, R. (2017). Reading Comprehension Difficulties among EFL Learners: The Case of First and Second - Year Students at Yarmouk University in Jordan. *Arab World English Journal*, 8(3), 421–431. <https://doi.org/10.24093/awej/vol8no3.27>
- [28] Ramadhianti, A., & Somba, S. (2023). Reading Comprehension Difficulties in Indonesia EFL Students. *Journal of English Language Teaching and Literature (JELTL)*, 6(1), 1–11.

- [29] Riani, D. O. (2015). Collaborative Strategic Reading Implementation to Improve Students' Reading. *ENGLISH REVIEW: Journal of English Education*, 1(2), 231–239. <http://journal.uniku.ac.id/index.php/ERJEE>
- [30] Riyawi, R. (2018). The Effect of Applying Collaborative Strategy Reading (CSR) Toward Students' Reading Comprehension at The Eighth Grade of MTS Hubbulwathan Duri. *Al-Ishlah*, 10(1), 69–78.
- [31] Starling-alves, I., & Hirata, G. (2023). Covid-19 school closures negatively impacted elementary-school students' reading comprehension and reading fluency skills. *International Journal of Educational Development*, 99(November 2022), 1–9. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.ijedudev.2023.102753>
- [32] Sulistyani, Khoiriyah, Wicaksono, A., & Aji, M. P. P. (2022). Collaborative Strategic Reading (CSR) and Its Influence on Students' Reading Comprehension. *Journal of English Education and Teaching (JEET)*, 6(3), 367–378. <https://ejournal.unib.ac.id/JEET>
- [33] Susanti, A., Retnaningdyah, P., Nila, A., Ayu, P., & Trisusana, A. (2020). Improving EFL Students' Higher Order Thinking Skills Through Collaborative Strategic Reading in Indonesia. *International Journal of Asian Education*, 01(2), 43–52.
- [34] Syafii, M. L. (2022). Enhancing Reading Comprehension through Collaborative Strategic Reading. *ELT Worldwide(Journal of English Language Teaching)*, 9(1), 135–147. <https://ojs.unm.ac.id>
- [35] Syakur, A., & Paisun. (2021). Efficacy of Collaborative Strategic for Reading (CSR) To Improve Students' Reading Comprehension. *Edulec: Journal of Education And Technology*, 4(4), 627–636. <http://ejournal.ijshs.org/index.php/edu>
- [36] Taharat, T., Khandakar, R., Ahmed, S., Anwar, M., & Ali, A. B. M. S. (2022). Reading comprehension based question answering system in Bangla language with transformer-based learning. *Heliyon*, 8(May), e11052. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.heliyon.2022.e11052>
- [37] Taufik, A., Saidi, S., & Apendi, T. (2019). Analysis the Hidden Advantages of Written Pretests for Student Intelligence. *International Journal for Educational and Vocational Studies*, 1(7), 713–718. <https://doi.org/10.29103/ijevs.v1i7.1677>
- [38] Wan, X., Wang, W., Liu, J., & Tong, T. (2014). Estimating the sample mean and standard deviation from the sample size, median, range and/or interquartile range. *BMC Medical Research Methodology*, 14(1), 1–13. <https://doi.org/10.1186/1471-2288-14-135>
- [39] Wangchuk, K., & Chalermnirudorn, N. (2019). Impact of Collaborative Strategic Reading on the ESL Reading Comprehension of Grade Seven Students in English. *Impact of Collaborative Strategic Reading on the ESL Reading Comprehension Ff Grade Seven Students in English*, 10(1), 126–142. <https://so01.tci-thaijo.org/index.php/AJPU/article/view/139499>
- [40] Ying, H. H., & Veerappan, G. (2021). The Effect of Collaborative Strategic Reading on ESL Students' Reading Comprehension Through Online Teaching. *International Journal of Academic Research in Progressive Education and Development*, 10(3), 517–530. <https://doi.org/10.6007/IJARPED/v10-i3/10510>
- [41] Zagoto, I. (2016). Collaborative strategic reading (csr) for better reading comprehension membaca strategi kolaboratif untuk membaca pemahaman lebih baik. *Komposisi: Jurnal Pendidikan Bahasa, Sastra, Dan Seni*, XVII(1), 66–74. <http://ejournal.unp.ac.id/index.php/komposisi/index>



Yon A.E. was born in Bukittinggi, West Sumatera, 9 November 1974. He earned his Doctoral Degree from Jakarta State University (UNJ) in 2021. Dr. Yon A.E has written several articles and textbooks. He served as an assessor of professional education for teachers (PPG) at the Ministry of Education and Culture. He is also active in some professional organizations such as English Language Education Association (ASPBI), Indonesian Lecturers Association (ADI), and so on. He currently served as a lecturer and a Dean at Panca Sakti University Bekasi. His areas of scientific interest include pedagogic theory and literature.



Halimah is a lecturer at Suryakancana University, Cianjur, West Java, Indonesia. She was awarded a Dr in Language Education in Jakarta State University (UNJ) in 2019. Dr. Halimah has more than 20 years of experience in English teaching specializes in Speaking and Translation subject. Dr. Halimah's academic interests include English Language Education, Literature, and Translation. She is also active in some professional organizations such as English Language Education Association (ASPBI), Indonesian English Lecturers Association (IELA), and many more.



Ida Nuraida is a lecturer in Banten Jaya University, Serang, Banten Province, Indonesia. She was awarded a Dr. in Language Education in Jakarta State University (UNJ) in 2023. Dr. Ida Nuraida, M.Pd has more 13 years of experiences in English teaching. Her research interest includes English teaching, literature, and Linguistics. She also has an assignment to teach at Hebei International Studies University, Tiongkok.

A Comparative Study of Loss and Gain in Three English Translations of the Qur'ānic Arabic Words of *l-faḍli* (الْفَضْل): A Semantic and Cultural Perspective

Ali Albashir Mohammed Alhaj*

English Unit, Applied College at Dhahran Al-Janoub, King Khalid University, Abha, Saudi Arabia

Abstract—Anyone knowledgeable about Qur'ānic Arabic words in general and the Qur'ānic Arabic words of *l-faḍli* (الْفَضْل) in particular, can easily and appropriately deduce that the Holy Qur'an denotes meaning that cannot go along with any level of fulfillment through only one translation. Thus, this paper aimed at identifying the loss and gain in the rendering of the words of *l-faḍli* (الْفَضْل) in Qur'ānic Arabic through the examination of three translations of the Holy Qur'an by Muhammad Marmaduke Pickthall (1930), Muhammad Muhsin Khan and Muhammad Taqi-ud-Din al-Hilali (1996), and Muhammad Abdel Haleem (2004). A qualitative descriptive paradigm was employed coupled with Baker's typology of equivalence between Arabic and English. The study showed that in the context of the loss and gain in the translation of the Qur'ānic Arabic *l-faḍli* (الْفَضْل) into English, the aforementioned translators employed various translation strategies such as balanced translation, explication, free translation, and literal translation. The study found that the Holy Qur'an in general and the Qur'ānic Arabic *l-faḍli* (الْفَضْل) in particular inevitably demand to be rendered in a historical and enlightening language environment and linguistic context for efficient communication and understanding.

Index Terms—Semantic and Cultural perspective *l-faḍli* (الْفَضْل), comparative study, loss and gain, English translations, Qur'ānic Arabic

I. INTRODUCTION

Accurate understanding and proper knowledge of the translated meaning of the Arabic words of the Holy Quran into English can manifest many covert implications that can be simply lost by the layman translator who is unfamiliar with them. The receptor of the Qur'anic message is, indeed, baffled as the rendering of the Qur'anic Arabic words has mysterious connotations and obscure implications (Bin Ali, 2015; Al-Kharabsheh, 2008).

Anyone conversant with Qur'an Arabic can readily and fittingly conclude that the Holy Qur'an signifies meaning that cannot be held to any degree of complacency by just one translation (Qudah, 2014; Malik, 1997; Awad, 2005). Already translated versions, both old and new, are clear evidence and apparent manifestation that still numerous translations, singly and/or collectively, continue to fall a considerable distance short of easily yielding the exclusive content of the Qur'anic Message, let alone ponder the double-layered meanings within its verses (Weissbort & Eysteinnsson, 2006; Hatim, 2014; Abdelkarim & Alhaj, 2023). Simultaneously, however, it is not that any one translation has asserted to have been seeking to attain.

Moreover, even if the work of Qur'anic rendering is so momentous concerning the cognizance of the Islamic creed, particularly for non-Arabic-speaking persons, we all must consider the fact that the Holy Qur'an is merely the Qur'an while it is in its initial Arabic vocabulary and that no rendering can replace that sacred text. The foregoing always addresses the problem of the translation difficulty of the Holy Qur'an which has also been one of the concerns tackled by the author at one time or another in this paper. Moreover, translatableness does not imply substitution.

Accurately obtaining the meaning of the Qur'anic Arabic words is not an easy task. Indeed, it is a challenging issue as the equivalents employed in English occasionally are not as appropriate or accurate as their Quranic Arabic counterpart. Nevertheless, such equivalents are used with this fact in mind and are not meant to be alternatives for the Arabic word used.

Furthermore, Arabic rhetoricians deem that Qur'anic Arabic words are the crowning point of Arabic rhetoric with their peerless expressiveness of style and accuracy of use that are gauged based on the notion of their "eloquence" or "rhetoric". Moreover, Qur'anic Arabic words are duly considered to be the greatest power in the Arabic language. This is mostly because the particularly expressive words of Arabic speakers fall far short in comparison with the Qur'anic style and mode of expression.

A small number of studies have investigated the notion of loss and gain in the translation of the Holy Qur'an from

* Corresponding Author. Email: alalhaj@kku.edu.sa

Arabic into English in general. However, the present study adopts a rhetoric perspective which is a new approach to research. This study was carried out to bridge the gap in the literature since there are a relatively small number of studies on the translation of the Qur'anic Arabic words from Arabic into English. Thus, this study attempted to probe the difficulty of loss and gain in the translation of the words of the Qur'anic Arabic *l-fadli* الفضل into English. Furthermore, this study is momentous because it is one of the first to analyze loss and gain in the translation of the Qur'anic Arabic *l-fadli* الفضل into English from a semantic and cultural perspective. To carry out this research, the author hinged on the Qur'an Arabic Corpus, the contents of which were gathered by respective language specialists, scholars, and authors headed by Kais Dukes at the University of Leeds. Furthermore, the contents of the corpus comprise distinguished and outstanding works in the sphere of Holy Qur'an translations.

II. OBJECTIVES OF THE STUDY

This exploration has three principal objectives. The following milestones are particularly advanced:

1. To identify loss and gain in the translation of the words of *l-fadli* الفضل in Qur'anic Arabic by examining three versions of the Holy Qur'an translated from Arabic into English by Muhammad Marmaduke Pickthall (1930), Muhammad Muhsin Khan and Muhammad Taqi-ud-Din al-Hilali (1996), and Muhammad Abdel Haleem (2004).
2. To explore the extent to which this loss and gain play a part in the partial or complete semantic loss or semantic gain.
3. To find out the upshot of utilizing appropriate translation strategies in tackling these concerns to decrease the translation losses when translating the Qur'anic Arabic *l-fadli* الفضل into English.

The recent study employs Baker's typology of equivalence between Arabic and English. This theory has been selected because it comprehensively examines the issue of inequivalence at varying levels, particularly at the vocabulary level. Furthermore, it crystallizes the issues of the equivalence between English and Arabic.

Research Questions

In harmony with the three principal objectives of the study, the leading research questions driving this exploration are:

- What are the losses and gains in the translation of the words of *l-fadli* الفضل from Qur'anic Arabic into English by Abdel Haleem, Al-Hilali and Khan, and Pickthall?
- What are the losses and gains in the translation of the words of *l-fadli* الفضل from Qur'anic Arabic into English from semantic and cultural perspectives?
- What is the upshot of utilizing appropriate translation strategies to tackle these concerns to decrease the translation losses when translating Qur'anic Arabic *l-fadli* الفضل into English?

III. LITERATURE REVIEW

A. Concept of Loss and Gain in Translation

It is a startling fact that, regardless of the unavailability of translation loss, this often confirms an impediment in the mode of discourse. Yet, it is inadequate to convey the Holy Qur'an without an individual tooled with what it takes to translate its Islamic spiritual message into the target language and do it justice. Respectful of the translation of the Holy Qur'an, translators have faced many arduous challenges because the Qur'anic text is vivid, allusive, versatile, subtle, and sublime. Additionally, a sacred text is profoundly embedded into a social ethnicity, faith, and creeds. The challenges of rendering the Holy Qur'an into English occur when a translator is needed to translate its rhetoric, oratory, and eloquent meaning correctly and appropriately (Jumeh, 2006; Abdelkarim & Alhaj, 2023). As stated by several scholars of the Arabic language, the Arabic Qur'anic is strikingly rich and has distinctive expressions and ingenious language. Furthermore, Cragg (1988) went so far as to assert that because of the loss of its meaning, the Holy Qur'an in its translation is no longer the Qur'an.

One other thing that can be stated here with surety is the unavailability of loss in translation. If one of the Arabic Qur'anic words is equivalent to another in English, its vicinity in the equivalent sentence may not be the same as. All in all, meaning is difficult and precarious because what any word refers can potentially resolved accurately (Gentzler, 2017; Trotter, 2000).

About translation loss, Hervey and Higgins (1992) argued that that loss is a momentous result of this conception of translation loss that comprises any losses to imitate a text of source language. When this is kept in mind, all illusions about perfect similarity in rendering will lose much, if not all, of their intensity. What the translator must do then is try to decrease or reduce translation loss (Venuti, 2017; Pym, 1992; Katan, 2018).

Loss of translation is not translation loss, but a loss in the rendering mechanism. It is a loss of textual impact. Furthermore, because these impacts cannot be gauged quantitatively, none of them can the loss. Hence, while intending to decrease it, the translator cannot understand how much more to be done (Dickins et al., 2016; Cutter, 2005).

According to As-Safi (2011), two sets of losses might take place during the translating process. One of them is inescapable loss and the other one is evitable loss. Moreover, he indicates that unavoidable loss happens due to the contrasting systems of the two tongues despite the proficiency and expertise of the translator who cannot produce equivalence and, therefore, depends on a plethora of methods. On the contrary, an evitable loss is activated by the translator's failure to find an appropriate equivalence. In the same vein, Catford (1965) alleges that a translator cannot

attain an appropriate translation because there will always be some parts of the text that can be translated without being detached from the nature of strict equivalence while other items are untranslatable. To conclude the concepts of loss and gain in translation are two of the most crucial problems argued by translation intellectuals, experts, and scholars.

B. Previous Studies

Plenty of studies have been carried out to gauge loss and gain in translations into English. Despite that, thus far, and to the best of the author's knowledge, very few studies have been conducted to analyze loss and gain in the translation of the Holy Qur'ān. Up to now, no standalone analysis review probed the losses and gains in the translation of the Qur'ānic Arabic words of *l-fadli* الْفَضْلِي into English. Consequently, it is envisaged that this study will fill this research void.

It is all-important to highlight again that very few studies have been carried out that analyze the phenomena of loss and gain in the translation of the Holy Qur'an in general and loss and gain in the translation of the Qur'ānic Arabic words in particular. For example, in their study to determine the meaning of loss in the translation of Arabic Qur'ānic connotative words into English, Abdelkarim and Alhaj (2023) found that a verbatim translation is not the apt translation procedure to employ while rendering the Arabic Qur'ānic implicative expressions into English. They posited that the cultural translation strategy may be more effective in transferring the Arabic Qur'ānic implications into English. Moreover, they also addressed this phenomenon that is frequently encountered in the translation of the Arabic Qur'ānic connotative words where there is a paucity of equivalence of some associative meaning of words in the target language (English).

Abdelaal and Rashid (2016) found that the losses taking place when translating grammatical features caused semantic loss, some of them quite significant losses. This study suggests that appropriate methods be utilized to reduce loss in translation.

Alhaj and Alwadai (2024) found that, regarding the loss and gain in the rendition of the Qur'ānic Arabic *al-bush'rā* into English, the translators adopted several translation methods such as reduction rendering and omission rendering. The study concludes that any loss has a considerably negative effect on the receptor's awareness and rendition of the Holy Qur'ān in general and the words identified in the Qur'ānic Arabic *al-bush'rā* in particular.

Mohammed (2018) found that the translation methods used by Arberry (1964), Yusuf Ali (1975), and Mahmoud Ghali (2002) in translating Surat An-Naas into English were diverse, and the analysis demonstrates that the loss is remarkably relevant in translating the Holy Qur'an and the gain is a less challenging objective to draw close to meaning.

Jumeh (2006) explored several dimensions of ten English renderings of the Holy Qur'ān. The researcher examined the Arabic Qur'ānic original verse text and the translated text into English to identify the loss in meaning of the latter. The study showed that meaning loss in the translation of the Holy Qur'ān into English is inevitable.

Omer (2017) found losses happening in rendering syntactic aspects such as sentence arrangement and pronoun reference shifting, and in rendering rhetoric aspects such as figurative words. These recurrent syntactic losses generally led to partial lexical loss of the implied meaning of analogies because of stylistic, grammatical, and cultural complications.

Baker (1992) asserted that the source language word may convey an idea that is unfamiliar in the target language. It may pertain to religious faith, sacred faith, or cultural custom. Baker relates that this causes a dilemma in translation because such conceptions are very particular to the source language readers but when being rendered and received by the target language receptors, translation loss is unavoidable.

Al-Marazig (2018) explored chief types of translation losses, especially semantic and cultural losses. The study revealed that semantic loss in rendering is connected with the translator's not knowing the implied meaning or associative meaning of specific source language lexemes. Furthermore, the author relates the cultural loss in rendering to the cultural heterogeneity of the source language and target language in which cultural-specific lexemes are not comprehended by the translators or the source language lexemes have no equivalents in the target language; therefore, they confuse the translators and lead to translation loss.

Ahmed (2016) explored loss and gain in three different translations of the farewell sermon of the Messenger of Allah (PBUH) on Friday the 9th of Dhu al-Hijjah, 10 A.H in the Uranah Valley near Mount Arafat. The study showed that two translators (Diab and Faizer) achieved success to a large degree in translating the farewell sermon because they were faithful to the criteria that regulate scholarly rendering. The third translator (Abdullah) committed serious loss because she did not stick to the restrictions that limited the approach of translating such a text.

To conclude, no previous investigation probed loss and gain in the translation of the Quranic Arabic words known as *l-fadli* الْفَضْلِي into English from a semantic rhetoric perspective; hence, it is hoped that this study will help address the research gap and bridge the literature gaps in the translation studies.

IV. METHODOLOGY

A. Research Design

The author applied a qualitative descriptive paradigm for the present study. This program is suitable for this study because it attempts to successfully describe a phenomenon. It also centers on a keen understanding of a phenomenon. In addition, Baker's typology is adopted to determine the semantic and cultural losses in the translation of the words of *l-*

faḍli الْفَضْل from Qur'ānic Arabic into English by Abdel Haleem, Al-Hilali, and Khan, and Pickthall. Moreover, the qualitative descriptive paradigm corresponds to the investigation of the current issue. Close readings, careful examinations, and in-depth searches of the translations were conducted to identify loss and gain in the translations of various words of *l-faḍli* الْفَضْل from Qur'ānic Arabic into English. As a way of doing so, the three translations by the three translators under the study were analyzed. These three renderings were chosen because the translators have varied cultural experiences. Analytical and investigative reading of the translations were implemented to ascertain the loss and gain in the translations of various words of *l-faḍli* الْفَضْل from Qur'ānic Arabic into English by Abdel Haleem, Al-Hilali and Khan, and Pickthall.

Furthermore, this study employed a corpus-based approach in that the study data were collected from the Qur'ān Arabic Corpus which encompasses the elite works in Qur'ānic English renderings by the translators who rendered Qur'ān-specific words such as *l-faḍli* الْفَضْل words (or words of *l-faḍli* الْفَضْل *l-faḍla*) into English. Loss and gain in the translation of *l-faḍli* الْفَضْل words from Qur'ānic Arabic into English are the special emphasis of the present paper. The three versions of renderings were reviewed and investigated by employing the descriptive analytical method to the contextually relevant, linguistic exposition, exegesis, and interpretation of the Holy Qur'ān.

B. The Contributions of the Three Translators Under Study in the English Translation of the Holy Qur'ān

This section casts light on the ethnic, religious, and academic histories of each one of the three translators under study, as well as the translation strategy they applied which plays a crucial role in finding out the hallmark and idiosyncrasy of their translation. These three translators who opted for the current study are well-known Islamic intellectuals.

Pickthall (1930), a most good-natured and god-fearing man, was a convert, studied Islam and became a Muslim theologian. His excellent work in rendering the Holy Qur'ān into English is praiseworthy and universally known. Pickthall's rendering is frequently denounced because of the Christian style and usage of the archaic lexicon. His rendering laid the groundwork for the history of Qur'ānic renditions. His translation is a verbatim one but is useful for both target language readers and receptors. Pickthall's translation is meant for an English-speaking target audience. Still, Pickthall's translation of the Holy Qur'an was categorized as the best translation, and indeed as a landmark in the history of translation.

Muhammad Muhsin Khan and Muhammad Taqi-ud-Din al-Hilali (1996) are eminent translators of the Holy Qur'ān, *Sahih al-Bukhari* and the book *Al-Lulu-wal Marjan*. The Noble Qur'an is a translation of the Holy Quran and is also the most comprehensively clustered version of the Holy Qur'an in the English language. Their translated English version is easy and simple with contemporary expressions. This English translation comes along with a stamp of approval from both the University of Medina and the General Presidency of Islamic Research and Ifta in Saudi Arabia. AL-Hilali and Khan's rendering grades are analogous to the translation done by Marmaduke Pickthall and, on a global scale, is a more commonly known and widely-used translation.

M.A.S. Abdel Haleem is an Egyptian Islamic Studies Professor of at the College of Oriental and African Studies at London University and the chief editor of some International Journals of Islamic Research. Professor Abdel Haleem was well-known for his service provided to Islamic culture and literature and inter-religious awareness.

Abdel Haleem's (2004) translation of the Holy Qur'ān is regarded as the most apparent English-language translation, positioning him as a well-celebrated translator among the elite translators of the Holy Qur'an. His rendering is in contemporary and legible English that gushes pleasantly and considerately. This type of language is simple to simple to understand and fathom. He always selects modern style and phrase, pattern and averts obscure language and unclear statements. His translation is an endeavor to cope with the everlasting essence of the Holy Qur'an. First published in 2004, M. A. S. Abdel Haleem's excellent English translation has been exalted because it is a faithful and perfect translation. Nowadays, Haleem's rendering is published together with the Qur'ānic Arabic text, to provide readers with a better comprehension and cognizance of the word of God (Shah, 2010; Abdelaal, 2017; Abdelkarim & Alhaj, 2023).

Finally, and most importantly, the grandeur of Abdel Haleem's work has been widely recognized by English-speaking scholars, academicians, and intellectuals. Written in contemporary language, it makes the Qur'ānic text approachable, convenient, and perceivable while keeping its textual richness and grandeur. Moreover, Abdel Haleem employed a faithful translation strategy that attained intelligible rendering which was a great improvement over his predecessors. Most of his precursors translated the Holy Qur'an employing the King James Bible 'Begaṭ' English Idioms, which had been classified as the accepted vocabulary for rendering any holy writ. Hence, his translation reveals novelty that is not present in bunch of other renderings.

C. Data Gathering Procedures

To probe the phenomena of loss and gain in the translation of various Qur'ānic Arabic words *l-faḍli* الْفَضْل into English from semantic and cultural perspectives, certain translations by the aforementioned translators were gathered by the author. Furthermore, *ayahs* enclosing Qur'ānic Arabic words *l-faḍla* الْفَضْل and the Qur'ānic Arabic interpretations (Tafsir) of their exegesis in the main books of Tafsir were used in examining the interpretation of the translation *ayah*. These *ayahs* were indicated by analyzing the translations of the *ayahs* regarding Qur'ānic Arabic words *l-faḍli* الْفَضْل by the translators under the study. Next, the renderings were studied to determine the special word utilized to render Qur'ānic Arabic words *l-faḍli* الْفَضْل. Finally, the translated meanings of the Qur'ānic Arabic words of *l-faḍli* الْفَضْل in the

renderings were compared with the exact interpretation of these *l-faḍli* الْفَضْلُ words as reported by the exegeses of the Holy Qurʾān such as Alt-Tabari (1981), Al-Qurtubi (1999), and Ibn Kathir (2009).

V. RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

The analytical information upon which this study was built is composed five verses collected out of three translated Qurʾānic versions that involve the Qurʾānic Arabic words *l-faḍli* الْفَضْلُ.

A. Example One

Source Surah: البقرة / Chapter 2, *Sūrat l-baqarah* (The Cow), Verse 105.

ST: (البقرة: 105) (وَاللَّهُ يَخْتَصُّ بِرَحْمَتِهِ مَنْ يَشَاءُ ۚ وَاللَّهُ ذُو الْفَضْلِ الْعَظِيمِ)

Target Text:

1. **Abdelhaleem:** "But God chooses for His grace whoever He will: His bounty has no limits" (Abdel Haleem, 2004, p. 113).
2. **Khan and Al-Hilali:** "But Allah chooses for His Mercy whom He wills. And Allah is the Owner of Great Bounty" (Al-Hilali & Khan, 1996, p. 20).
3. **Pickthall:** "But Allah chooseth for His mercy whom He will, and Allah is of Infinite Bounty" (Pickthall, 1930, p. 42).

The Analysis

(a). The General Meaning of the Ayah

Allah the Almighty brings to the attention of the believers His abundant blessings among which is the ideal and inclusive ruling (statute) and universal verdict that He made a distinction between His Prophet Muhammad (PBUH) therewith.. (Ibn Kathir, Vol.1, p. 61).

(b). Loss and Gain in Translation Into English of Qurʾānic Arabic *l-faḍli* الْفَضْلُ Word in Chapter 2, *Sūrat l-baqarah* (The Cow), Verse 105.

As has been seen in this first example, the renderings by Abdelhaleem, Khan and Al-Hilali, and Pickthall of the Qurʾānic Arabic *l-faḍli* الْفَضْلُ words in Chapter 2, *Sūrat l-baqarah* (The Cow), Verse 105, seem faithful and attains "gain" because it was rendered into "His bounty has no limits" (Abdelhaleem); "Great Bounty" (Khan and Al-Hilali); and "infinite Bounty" (Pickthall), respectively, making their renderings better. The linguistic choice "Great Bounty" employed by Khan and Al-Hilali, is rather unique among the translated selections. Conversely, Abdelhaleem's and Pickthall's choices may be a bit confusing for the target language receptor. Khan and Al-Hilali's renderings of the Qurʾānic Arabic *l-faḍli* الْفَضْلُ words in this *ayah* are adequate as they attempted their best to be as close to the original unique styles of the Qurʾānic Arabic *l-faḍli* الْفَضْلُ word; hence, their rendering ranks the best.

As has been shown in the translation, Pickthall employed the archaic Biblical language in rendering the part of *ayah* "وَاللَّهُ يَخْتَصُّ" into "Allah chooseth" which is not appreciated by many translation scholars and is not the optimum strategy of translation because it sometimes causes a loss in the many facets of the meanings. Therefore, Holy Qur'an translators must consider all the best strategies during the translating process of the Holy Quran into English in general and Qurʾānic Arabic words such as *l-faḍli* الْفَضْلُ. Furthermore, they must avoid utilizing any archaic Biblical language.

As exemplified in the translation, to transfer the original meaning of Qurʾānic Arabic *l-faḍli* الْفَضْلُ successfully, Abdelhaleem, Khan and Al-Hilali, and Pickthall implemented an explication strategy to produce explicit rendered text that communicates the intended meaning of Qurʾānic Arabic as *l-faḍli* الْفَضْلُ with success. Moreover, gain can be reached by applying an explication strategy as well.

To be more precise, Pickthall is more impacted by the biblical language and style because the earliest rendered versions of the Holy Qur'an were produced by Orientalists who employed the Biblical language, words, and styles. They translated in this way to show that they were rendering a sacred book analogous to the Holy Bible.

To conclude when we draw near to the contemporary English versions, in Abdelhaleem's (2004) rendering and Khan and Al-Hilali's (1996) rendering, we discovered that those versions are less influenced by the scriptural languages.

B. Example Two

Source Surah: البقرة / Chapter 2, *Sūrat l-baqarah* (The Cow), Verse 237,

ST: (البقرة: 237) (وَلَا تَنسُوا الْفَضْلَ بَيْنَكُمْ)

Target Text:

1. **Abdelhaleem:** "So do not forget to be generous towards one another" (Abdel Haleem, 2004).
2. **Khan and Al-Hilali:** "And do not forget liberality between yourselves" (Al-Hilali & Khan, 1996, p. 52).
3. **Pickthall:** "And forget not kindness among yourselves" (Pickthall, 1930, p. 55).

The Analysis

The General Meaning of the Ayah

Both the husband and the divorced wife are to remember and maintain the liberality that joins between them (Ibn Kathir, Vol.1, p. 148).

Loss and Gain in Translation into English of Qur'ānic Arabic l-faḍli الْفَضْلِي words in Chapter 2, Sūrat l-baqarah (The Cow), Verse 237.

As has been illustrated in example two, Abdelhaleem, Khan and Al-Hilali, and Pickthall of the Qur'ānic Arabic *l-faḍli* الْفَضْلِي words in Chapter 2, *Sūrat l-baqarah* (The Cow), Verse 237 are literal translations which may confuse the reader or the target language receptor. Hence, semantic loss or meaning loss may occur. Nida (1959) remarks accordingly that literal translation translates only the strictly explicit features. Markedly, the three translators' reflections, word choices, and diction – “generous” by Abdelhaleem, “liberality” by Khan and Al-Hilali, and “kindness” by Pickthall – are receptively shaped by the original version. Moreover, this is a literal translation of the Qur'ānic Arabic *l-faḍli* الْفَضْلِي word in English where the implied meaning is not retained because of the outcome of the impact of Arabic language (source language). A balanced translation strategy is required to maintain fidelity or faithfulness to the initial version and to grasp the message and the receptor's difficulties in understanding the text.

As could be seen from the given translation in the second example, to approach the meaning of the Qur'ānic Arabic as *l-faḍli* الْفَضْلِي words in Chapter 2, *Sūrat l-baqarah* (The Cow), Verse 237 in the English language, Abdelhaleem used the clearest and the most perceptible rendering of Pickthall's and Al-Hilali's. Abdelhaleem rendered the Qur'ānic Arabic *l-faḍli* الْفَضْلِي word into “generous” which connotes “graciousness”, “righteousness”, “generosity”, “liberality”, and “bountifulness” hence his rendering ranks the best and gives the true meaning of the Qur'ānic Arabic *l-faḍli* الْفَضْلِي word.

There is an obvious difference between Abdelhaleem's rendering and those of Pickthall and Khan and Al-Hilali because Abdelhaleem's rendering has a stronger impact than the latter three do. Nevertheless, their renderings are correct and provide the same meaning of the Qur'ānic Arabic *l-faḍli* الْفَضْلِي word. However, compared to Abdelhaleem's rendering, their renderings are not quite as good as Abdelhaleem's. Perhaps Abdelhaleem's Arabic background is better than Pickthall and Khan and Al-Hilali's which enables him to convey the meaning of the Qur'ānic Arabic *l-faḍli* الْفَضْلِي word without losing any of the aesthetic concepts of the Holy Quran and its artistic aesthetics.

C. Example Three

Source Surah: Chapter 4, *Sūrat l-nisāa* (The Women), Verse 175.

ST: (النساء: 175) ﴿ فَسَيَدْخُلُهُمْ فِي رَحْمَةٍ مِّنْهُ وَفَضْلٍ ﴾

Target Text:

1. **Abdelhaleem:** “God will admit those who believe in Him and hold fast to Him into His mercy and favor” (Abdel Haleem, 2004, p. 66).
2. **Khan and Al-Hilali:** “He will admit them to His Mercy and Grace” (Al-Hilali & Khan, 1996, p. 139).
3. **Pickthall:** “He will cause to enter into His mercy and grace” (Pickthall, 1930, p. 95).

The Analysis

(a). The General Meaning of the Ayah

They are those who adhered to their worshipping Allah by their entrusting Him in all their concerns or they are those who acted by the Holy Qur'an. He will admit them to His mercy and Grace i.e., He will be Merciful to them and will admit them to Paradise, and from His bounty and favor, He will multiply their bounty, and guide them to Himself by a Straight Path. i.e., an apparent way, straight and direct and up which there is neither deviation nor wickedness. This is the attribute of the believers in the life of this world and the Hereafter. For, in the worldly life, they are following what is virtuous in all their deeds and creeds, and in the Hereafter, they will be walking the Straight Path of Allāh that will direct them to the gardens of Paradise. It is narrated in the Hadith: “The Qur'ān is the Straight Path of Allāh and it is His Strongest covenant (of protection)” (Ibn Kathir, Vol.1, p. 411).

(b). Loss and Gain in Translation Into English of Qur'ānic Arabic *wafaḍlin* وَفَضْلٍ Words in Chapter 4, *Sūrat l-nisāa* (The Women), Verse 175

As seen in the third example, Khan and Al-Hilali's and Pickthall's renderings of the Qur'ānic Arabic *wafaḍlin* وَفَضْلٍ word in Chapter 4, *Sūrat l-nisāa* (The Women), Verse 175 are so simple to understand. To approach the meaning of the renderings of the Qur'ānic Arabic *wafaḍlin* وَفَضْلٍ word in English they rendered it into “Grace” (Khan and Al-Hilali); and into “grace” (Pickthall). Moreover, these two renderings take fully into account the expectations of the target language receptor. The lexis “favor” utilized by Abdelhaleem may not be absorbed by the target language receptor, losing the meaning of the implied sense of Qur'ānic Arabic *wafaḍlin* وَفَضْلٍ word. However, Khan, Al-Hilali and Pickthall's utilization of free translation, that is “Grace” and “grace”, give the real meaning of the implied sense of the Qur'ānic Arabic *wafaḍlin* وَفَضْلٍ word.

As explained in the given rendering the use of a small “g” in the word “grace” in Pickthall's rendering is not applauded by the target language receptor and may lead to uncertainty in their language context. The use of the capital letter “G” in Khan and Al-Hilali's “Grace” maintains the semantic context and assuredly contributes to understanding and communication.

To approach the meaning of the renderings of Qur'ānic Arabic *wafaḍlin* وَفَضْلٍ word in English, Abdelhaleem rendered it into “favor” which is not conspicuous as it required an average receptor of the target language. This is due to abundance with the formal equivalence. An important issue to allude to is that if Abdelhaleem preserves the content of the Qur'ānic Arabic *wafaḍlin* وَفَضْلٍ in this verse, there is no meaning loss with it because the content is increasingly more

relevant than form. Nida (2003) asserts that a translator who precisely gives “formal equivalence” translation is in reality not even aware of the aberrations in the seemingly exact rendering of the text. To conclude for a better understanding of this exclusive style of the Holy Quran in general and the Qur’ānic Arabic *wafaḍlin* وَفَضْلٍ in particular and other analogous things, a footnote translation strategy is needed to obviously clear it up.

D. Example Four

Source Surah: النور Chapter 24, Sūrat l-nūr (The Light), Verse 22.

ST (22:النور): ﴿وَلَا يَأْتَلِ أُولُو الْفَضْلِ مِنْكُمْ وَالسَّعَةِ﴾

Target Text:

1. **Abdelhaleem:** “Those who have been graced with bounty and plenty” (Abdel Haleem, 2004, p. 24)
2. **Khan and Al-Hilali:** “And let not those among you who are blessed with graces and wealth” (Al-Hilali & Khan, 1996, p. 469).
3. **Pickthall:** “And let not those who possess dignity and ease” (Pickthall, 1930, p. 236).

The Analysis

(a). The General Meaning of the Ayah

Allāh, the Almighty says, “And let not swear” meaning do not swear an oath (those among you who are blessed with graces)”, that is, those who have enough money to give in benevolence and to do good and be altruistic, (and wealth) or “big fortune” (to give any form of assistance) to their relatives, (the miserable ones), and those who abandoned their homes for the cause of Allāh. That is do not swear that you will not sustain the family bonds with your kin and kin who are poor or who migrated for the sake of Allah; the matter which bears witness to the highest act of kindness and generosity in the matter of maintaining the family relationship. This is why Allāh says: “Let them pardon and forgive” (Ibn Kathir, Vol.3, p. 1447).

(b). Loss and Gain in Translation Into English of Qur’ānic Arabic *l-faḍli* الْفَضْلِ Words in Chapter 24, Sūrat l-nūr (The Light), Verse 22

As seen in the fourth example, Pickthall rendered the Qur’ānic Arabic *l-faḍli* الْفَضْلِ word into “dignity”, and though his rendering nearly succeeds, it suffered a considerable lexical semantic loss due to the adoption of the literal translation strategy in his rendering. Also, Pickthall failed to render the “emics” of Qur’ānic Arabic culture (Islamic culture) into the English language culture (non-Islamic culture). As used by Pickthall, the word “dignity” does not seem apt because “dignity” is utilized here to implicate influence which may or may not be understood by the target language receptor, but “grace”, “bounty”, “graciousness”, and “virtue” are unavoidable facts. The Cambridge Dictionary (2011) defines the word “dignity” as the state or quality of being worthy of honor or respect. It does not mean “grace”, “bounty”, “graciousness”, or “virtue” as *l-faḍli* الْفَضْلِ does. A reader from a non-Islamic culture might not catch the meaning that the Qur’ānic Arabic *l-faḍli* الْفَضْلِ bears in the Qur’ānic context which may lead to lexical semantic loss. Khan and Al-Hilali’s renderings of “grace” and “graced with bounty” (Abdelhaleem) are better renderings and more adequate as compared to the lexical selection “dignity” by Pickthall. The word “dignity” is ambiguous and does not convey the real sense of the Qur’ānic Arabic *l-faḍli* الْفَضْلِ in English whereas the words “grace” and “graced with bounty” give contextual meaning and are semotactically pertinent in the Islamic cultural context as well. To conclude, Khan and Al-Hilali’s and Abdelhaleem’s rendering of the Qur’ānic Arabic *l-faḍli* in this verse carry a higher latent sense of the meaning whereas Pickthall’s rendering bears markedly explicit loss and seems to fall below the meaning that of Khan and Al-Hilali’s and Abdelhaleem’s renderings convey.

E. Example Five

Source Surah: البقرة Chapter 2, Sūrat l-baqarah (The Cow), Verse 90.

ST: (90:البقرة) ﴿أَنْ يَنْزِلَ اللَّهُ مِنْ فَضْلِهِ عَلَى مَنْ يَشَاءُ مِنْ عِبَادِهِ﴾

Target Text:

1. **Abdelhaleem:** “God should send His bounty to any of His servants” (Abdel Haleem, 2004, p. 91).
2. **Khan and Al-Hilali:** “Allah should reveal of His Grace unto whom He will of His slaves.” (Al-Hilali & Khan, 1996, p. 17).
3. **Pickthall:** “Allah should reveal of His bounty unto whom He will of His slaves.” (Pickthall, 1930, p. 41).

The Analysis

(a). The General Meaning of the Ayah

Allāh, the Almighty says, “How awful is that for which they have put on sale themselves and thereunto they dealt with through neither helping nor supporting him or having faith in his Message (Islām)! This was certainly due to their wrongdoing, ill will, and their enviousness that Allāh should reveal of His grace unto whom He wills of His slaves.” This is the worst of resentment and hatred; so, they have befittingly drawn on themselves anger (wrath) upon anger.

(b). Loss and Gain in Translation Into English of Qur’ānic Arabic *l-faḍli* الْفَضْلِ Words in Chapter 2, Sūrat l-baqarah (The Cow), Verse 90

As seen in the fifth example, Abdelhaleem's, Khan and Al-Hilali's, and Pickthall's rendering of Qur'ānic Arabic *l-faḍli* الْفَضْلِي words in Chapter 2, *Sūrat l-baqarah* (The Cow), Verse 90 seems accurate and preserves the cultural context concerning the expectations of target readers who are anticipated to seek for some unique potentiality of covert and undeniably context-embedded interpretations. This is what Bailey (1996) calls, "reading between the lines" (p. 152). Moreover, the renderings "His bounty" (Abdelhaleem); "His Grace" (Khan and Al-Hilali); and "His bounty" (Pickthall) for the Qur'ānic Arabic *l-faḍli* الْفَضْلِي in this verse give a greater sense of implied meaning and are apt in their semantic context.

As seen also in this example, Abdelhaleem's, Khan's and Al-Hilali's, and Pickthall's renderings are more explicit and easier to read for the intended readers. The three translators rendered in the target language (English) the connotative meaning of Qur'ānic Arabic *l-faḍli* الْفَضْلِي which generated less dependent target text considering the situation and the cultural context. This variation of gain is predicated on the assumption that the translator can make an "unexpressed situational element expressed" (Vinay & Darbelnet, 1995; Hezbri, 2014).

As can be observed in this example, in contrast to the conventional word "God" Khan and Al-Hilali and Pickthall utilized the true name "Allah" when rendering the verse which may be commended by some and argued against by others in English-speaking circle. Though, syntagmatically it is highly relevant and may give rise to wider understanding, reduce losses, and produce a good translation of Quranic translation in general and the Qur'ānic Arabic *l-faḍli* الْفَضْلِي in particular.

Last but not least, the Holy Qur'ān in general and the Qur'ānic Arabic *l-faḍli* الْفَضْلِي in particular demand to be rendered in a historically enlightening language environment and linguistic context for efficient communication and understanding.

VI. CONCLUSION

This recent study is concerned with loss and gain in the English translations of various words of *l-faḍli* الْفَضْلِي from the Qur'ānic Arabic that occurs in the translation of Abdelhaleem, Khan, and Al-Hilali, and Pickthall. It aimed to explore the extent to which this loss and gain play a part in the partial or complete semantic loss and cultural loss. This study indicated that some of the translation strategies employed by the above-listed translators led to translation loss and produced an aberration of the meaning aimed at in the Qur'ānic Arabic *l-faḍli* الْفَضْلِي, and so brought forth a translation that was unreasonable to the source text (Arabic) and target texts (English) alike. One of these translation strategies that lead to translation loss is a literal translation strategy. On the contrary, some of the translation strategies applied by the same translators led to semantic gain and cultural gain such as the balanced translation strategy, the explication strategy, and the free translation strategy. Moreover, these translation strategies guide the translators in making sound decisions to produce the best performing and most accurate and fascinating rendering. It is recommended that since the divergences between the source text (Arabic) and the target text (English) or vice versa are a reality that cannot be modified, the translation paradigms must be considered closely to make options and displacements to bridge the linguistic and the cultural gaps between the two and deal with their discrepancies. Similarly, in the matter of the loss and gain phenomenon, the translator should be supported and helped in finding the comprehensive picture of the language instead of sticking to the ambiguous discrete words that will cause speculation about the source language (SL) either on the semantic or the concordant level, thus generating an obscure text or producing translationese. Moreover, understanding of the phenom of loss and gain in translation should be established among translators in general and the translators of the Holy Qur'an in particular who, besides commanding bilingual proficiency, must also have specific skills together with bicultural knowledge.

ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

The author extends his appreciation to the Deanship of Scientific Research at King Khalid University for funding this work through the Small Research Project under grant number [R.G.P1/154/1445].

REFERENCES

- [1] Abdelaal, N. M., & Md Rashid, S. (2016). Grammar-related semantic losses in the translation of the Holy Quran, with special reference to Surah Al A'araf (The Heights). *SAGE Open*, 6(3), 2158244016661750. pp. 1, 11.
- [2] Abdelaal, N. M. (2017). *Grammatical and semantic losses in Abdel Haleem's English translation of the Holy Quran*. Unpublished doctoral dissertation, Universiti Putra.
- [3] Abdelkarim, M. B. A., & Alhaj, A. A. M. (2023). Underlying Linguistic Problems Experienced by Translators in Translating the Qur'ānic Arabic *l-ḥazana*'... Words into English: A Comparative Study. *Theory & Practice in Language Studies (TPLS)*, 13(11). Pp.995-3005
- [4] Abdelkarim, M. B., & Alhaj, A. A. (2023). Probing the Meaning Loss in the Translation of Arabic Qur'ānic Connotative Words into English: A Linguistic Semantic Perspective. *Theory and Practice in Language Studies*, 13(10), 2644-2651.
- [5] Ahmed, S. A. (2016). *Loss and Gain in Translating Prophet Mohammed's Farewell Oration: A Comparison of Three Variant Translations* (Doctoral dissertation). Faculty of Graduate Studies, An-Najah National University).
- [6] Alhaj, A. A. M., & Alwadai, M. A. M. (2024). A Study of Gain and Loss in the Translation of the Qur'ānic Arabic Words of Glad Tidings Known as *Al-Bush'rā* (البُشْرَى) (Into English: An Islamic Professional Ethical Perspective. *Theory and Practice in*

- Language Studies*, 14(1), 233-240.
- [7] Al-Kharabsheh, A. (2008). Translating Autoantonymy in the Qur'an. *Across Languages and Cultures*, 9(1), 17-40.
 - [8] Al-Marazig, M. (2018). "Some Linguistic Losses in Translating the Short Story "A Glance" by Yusuf Idris". In: *International Journal of Scientific and Research Publications*, Vol 8, Issue 2, pp. 508-513.
 - [9] Al-Qurtubi, M. (1999). *Al-Jami' li Ahkam al-Quran (10 Vols)* [Collections for The Rules of the Holy Qur'an], Dar-Al-Fikr, Beirut, Lebanon.
 - [10] Alt-Tabari, M. (1981). *JaamiAA Al-Bayaan AA Ta 'weel Ayil Qur 'an* [The commentary on the Quran]. Cairo, Egypt: Al-Halabi. Dar Al-Maref.
 - [11] Arberry, A. J. (1964). *The Koran Interpreted*. London: Oxford University Press.
 - [12] Ali, Y. A. (1975). *The Holy Quran*. New York.
 - [13] As-Safi, A. B. (2006). *Loss & gain and translation strategies concerning the translations of the Glorious Qur'an*. Atlas Stud. Res.
 - [14] Awad, A. K. (2005). *Translating Arabic into English with Special Reference to Qur'anic Discourse*. The University of Manchester (United Kingdom).
 - [15] Bailey, C. (1996). *Essays in Time-Based Linguistic Analysis*. Oxford: Clarendon Press.
 - [16] Baker, M. (1992). *In Other Words: A Coursebook in Translation*. London: Routledge Taylor & Francis Group.
 - [17] Bin Ali al-Qahtani, M. (2015). *The Miraculous Language of the Qur'an*. International Institute of Islamic Thought (IIIT).
 - [18] Cambridge dictionaries online. (2011). Retrieved September 27th, 2023 from <http://dictionary.cambridge.org>.
 - [19] Catford, J. C. (1965). *Language and Language Learning: A Linguistic Theory of Translation* (1st ed.). Oxford, UK: Oxford University Press. Retrieved from <http://zardhsh68.persiangig.com/document>.
 - [20] Cragg, K. (1988). *Reading in the Qur'an*. Great Britain: Collins
 - [21] Cutter, M. J. (2005). *Lost and found in translation: Contemporary ethnic American writing and the politics of language diversity*. Univ of North Carolina Press.
 - [22] Dickins, J., Hervey, S., & Higgins, I. (2016). *Thinking Arabic translation: A course in translation method: Arabic to English*. Taylor & Francis.
 - [23] Gentzler, E. (2017). *Translation and Rewriting in the Age of Post-Translation Studies*. London & New York: Routledge.
 - [24] Ghali, Muhammad, M. (2002). *Towards understanding the ever-glorious Qur 'an*. Cairo: Dar An-Nashr Lil-Jami'at.
 - [25] Haleem, M. A. (1992). Grammatical Shift for Rhetorical Purposes: Iltifāt and Related Features in the Qur'ān. *Bulletin of the School of Oriental and African Studies*, 55(3), 407-432.
 - [26] Hatim, B. A. (2014). *Teaching and researching translation*. Routledge.
 - [27] Hervey, S., & Higgins, I. (1992). *Thinking translation: A course in translation method: French to English*. London, England. Routledge.
 - [28] Hezbri, M. (2014). *Loss and Gain in Translating Fiction Fantasy Texts from English into Arabic "The Lord of the Rings: The Fellowship of the Ring by JRR Tolkien."* (Doctoral dissertation). University Kasdi Merbah Ouargla Faculty of Letters and Languages Department of English Language and Letters.
 - [29] Ibn Kathir, A. (2009). *Tafsir Ibn Kathir. Translated by Muhammad Saed (Trans. S. Abdul-Rahman)*. United Kingdom's Publication Limited.
 - [30] Jumeh, M. S. (2006). *The loss of meaning in translation: its types and factors concerning ten English translations of the meaning of the Qur'an* (Doctoral dissertation, University of Wales Trinity Saint David).
 - [31] Katan, D. (2018). Defining culture, defining translation. *The Routledge handbook of translation and culture*, 17-47.
 - [32] Malik, M. F. I. A. (1997). *English translation of the meaning of Al-Qur'an: The guidance for mankind (English only)*. The Institute of Islamic Knowledge.
 - [33] Mohammed, S. H. (2018). *Loss and Gain in Translation: A Comparative Study of Three Translations of Surat "An-Naas" numero-;* <http://dspace.univouargla.dz/jspui/handle/123456789/16930>. Retrieval on 10/2/2024
 - [34] Nida, E. A. (2003). Principles of correspondence. In *Toward a science of translating* (pp. 156-192). Brill.
 - [35] Nida, E. A. (1959). Principles of translation as exemplified by Bible translating. In *On translation* (pp. 11-31). Harvard University Press.
 - [36] Omer, B. A. (2017). *Translation loss in the translation of the glorious Quran with special reference to verbal similarity*. Retrieved on 12/11/2024) from <https://www.ijmrnd.com/assets/pdf/english-linguistics/Translation-Loss-inTranslation-of-the-Glorious-Quran,-with-Special-Reference-to-Verbal-Similarity-by-Batoul-AhmedOmer.pdf>
 - [37] Pickthal, M.M., *Undated The Meaning of the Glorious Qur'an*, <http://www.sacredtexts.com/isl/pick/101.htm>. Retrieval on 26/2/2024.
 - [38] Pym, A. (1992). *Translation and text transfer* (p. 52). Frankfurt: Peter Lang.
 - [39] Qudah, R S. (2014). *Dogmatic Approaches of Qur'an Translators: Linguistic and Theological Issues* (Doctoral dissertation, University of Leeds).
 - [40] Shah, M. S. (2010). A critical study of Abdel Haleem's new translation of the Holy Qur'an. *Al Qalam*, 1, 1-15.
 - [41] Trotter, W. (2000). *Translation Saliency: A Model of Equivalence in Translation (Arabic/English)*. Unpublished PhD Thesis. The University of Sydney.
 - [42] Venuti, L. (2017). *The translator's invisibility: A history of translation*. Routledge.
 - [43] Vinay, J. P., & Darbelnet, J. (1995). *Comparative Stylistics of French and English: A methodology for translation*. (M.-J. Hamel, Éd., & J. C. Sager, Trad.) John Benjamins B.V.
 - [44] Weissbort, D., & Eysteinsson, Á. (Eds.). (2006). *Translation: theory and practice: a historical reader*. Oxford University Press.



Ali Albashir Mohammed Alhaj, formerly at Jazan University, is currently a faculty member at King Khalid University in Saudi Arabia. Drs. Alhaj received his first Ph.D. in English Literature from the University of Khartoum in 2003, his second Ph.D. in Translation Studies from Omdurman Islamic University, in 2014, his third Ph.D. in Applied Linguistics from Sudan University of Science and Technology in 2018, and his fourth Ph.D. in Pure Linguistics was obtained from Bahri University. Drs. Alhaj has published 205 papers in indexed journals and 50 books, 12 of which have been translated into ten languages internationally. Drs. Ali Alhaj received the King Khalid University Award for Scientific Research Excellence (First Rank) in 2020 AD.

Faculty Members' Perspective on Employing YouTube in Teaching English for ESL Undergraduate Students

Raeda M. Ammari

Department of English Language and Translation, Amman Arab University, Amman, Jordan

Wajed R. Al Ahmad

Department of the English Language and Literature, Middle East University, Amman, Jordan

Majd S. Abushunar

Language Center, The Hashemite University, Zarqa, Jordan

Lina A. Al-Jarrah

Department of Basic Sciences, Amman Arab University, Amman, Jordan

Abstract—The study investigated the use of YouTube videos for teaching English as a foreign language to English major students at universities and explored teachers' perspectives on implementing this method. It also aimed to identify potential issues that teachers and students might encounter. A mixed-method approach combining quantitative and qualitative data collection was employed. A Five-Likert scale questionnaire assessed teachers' perspectives on using YouTube to teach various English language skills. The study involved 42 English language faculty members from private and public universities, and their responses were analyzed statistically and analytically. The findings indicated that teachers have a positive attitude as they successfully utilize YouTube videos to improve students' English language skills. Faculty members observed that the monotony of teaching decreased while students' motivation to engage with the English language increased. The study also revealed some challenges students face in developing their English language skills, such as a lack of self-confidence and an inability to express their thoughts adequately.

Index Terms—YouTube, teaching, English skills, ESL, university students

I. INTRODUCTION

The Internet has emerged as an alternative avenue for education; it offers a plethora of online resources and platforms, including websites like Instagram, Facebook, Twitter, and YouTube. Accordingly, teaching English as a foreign language presents challenges in effectively incorporating technology, fostering student autonomy, and creating engaging lessons (Watkins & Wilkins, 2011; Lestari & Prasetyo, 2019). Teachers and students need the Internet, computers, and digital media access as YouTube videos are precious teaching tools due to their accessibility and the shift in society from print to audiovisual media as well as it is amusing for both teachers and students (Ratheeswari, 2018; Kulal & Nayak, 2020).

Not only is YouTube acknowledged as a substantial online asset with a central role in education, but it also presents a wide array of everyday videos and authentic scenarios that enhance students' grasp and competence in English language lessons. Research indicates that learners benefit substantially from genuine, real-life video content (Maness, 2004; Kaboocha & Elyas, 2015). Integrating YouTube videos into English classes as supplementary material can enrich learners' comprehension, making learning more enjoyable and meaningful and aiding information retention. Moreover, YouTube has gained prominence as a valuable platform for language learners, particularly in enhancing speaking and listening skills. Educators can use YouTube videos to evaluate students' listening and speaking abilities since these videos incorporate visual and auditory elements (Watkins & Wilkins, 2011; Nurkholida, 2016; Aldukhayel, 2021).

At the university level, faculty members choose suitable techniques and media to motivate and engage students. The World Wide Web (WWW) is valuable for enhancing English language proficiency by employing multiple strategies in teaching, such as games, group work, and internet materials (Medoukali, 2015; Jarrah et al., 2021; Khalifeh et al., 2022). Videos, in particular, benefit learners by conveying body language and contextual information, catering to students with short attention spans (Yasin et al., 2018; Ammari et al., 2021). The students often enjoy these videos as entertainment and serve as a medium for teaching listening and comprehension skills. Prensky (2009) argued for the efficacy of incorporating YouTube videos in education, highlighting that the platform offers content from prominent scientists, TV news broadcasts, and various television programs. These YouTube videos have evolved into a conventional mode of

communication for sharing vital information that is exclusively available in video format and not in print (Anggraeni, 2012).

Although research on the impact of YouTube on language learning exists in numerous countries, a gap exists in the Jordanian context, especially concerning the English language's multiple skills (Pratama et al., 2020; Syafiq et al., 2021). Therefore, the English language is imperative in Jordan to bridge the gap between the old teaching methods and adopting technology-driven teaching to adapt to the "new normal." The Ministry of Education in Jordan acknowledges the significance of English in cultivating communication abilities and promoting multilingual comprehension among students. They support student-focused classrooms and creative teaching methodologies like communicative language instruction rather than content-based learning at schools and universities (Haider & Al-Salman, 2020a).

Educators must identify the digital competencies and expertise required to bolster students' academic and social achievements, encompassing academic excellence and appreciation of cultural diversity (Benson, 2015). YouTube can serve as a central element in these endeavors, enhancing the learning experiences of Jordanian students and fortifying their resilience amid challenges posed by the COVID-19 pandemic (Al-Salman & Haider, 2021; Almahasees et al., 2021; Haider & Al-Salman, 2020b).

Despite these initiatives, the conventional education system, heavily reliant on high-stakes exams, still needs to be revised. In addition, some educators need more training to stay up-to-date with technological advancements, leading to a technological divide between them and their digitally proficient students. Hence, digital technology and YouTube have become integral to the educational platform in Jordan.

The impetus behind this study is the widespread use and accessibility of YouTube in English language education. Many educators utilize YouTube due to its ease of access and free availability. YouTube is a globally popular website with numerous language-related videos that attract millions of views from students worldwide. Traditional English teaching methods can be challenging and uninspiring, often leading to disinterest and difficulty comprehending class content. Jordanian students are enthusiastic about studying and excelling in English. Faculty members continually explore various teaching methods to enhance the teaching of English due to its significance. The study explores different aspects of incorporating YouTube into education, specifically in English courses. It seeks to understand faculty members' attitudes regarding using YouTube videos as supplementary teaching materials to enhance English learning. It mainly attempts to answer the following questions:

1. What is the faculty member's perspective on using YouTube videos in face-to-face and online learning in English courses for undergraduate students?
2. What are faculty members' perceptions of the role of YouTube in speaking skill improvement according to undergraduate students using YouTube videos in face-to-face and online learning?
3. According to EFL English faculty members, what is the most effective approach to using YouTube?

II. LITERATURE REVIEW

A number of studies have examined the advantages of using YouTube videos in teaching and learning English in Foreign Language (EFL) classes.

Labdi (2017) surveys teachers' and students' perceptions of the influence of educational YouTube videos on EFL learners' speaking ability. The researcher has distributed a questionnaire to 10 English teachers and 60 second-year EFL university students to collect the data. The results indicate that teachers and learners positively perceive using YouTube videos as an educational tool in English. The study states that YouTube videos break the classroom routine and help students overcome their anxiety and express their thoughts freely.

Omer (2017) examines the role of YouTube videos in improving EFL learners' listening and speaking skills at Sudan University of Science and Technology (SUST). A descriptive-analytical method has been used to analyze the distributed questionnaire to collect the data. The Findings exhibit that YouTube videos enhance students' listening and speaking skills. The study also suggests that YouTube makes EFL learners familiar with the English culture, motivates them to practice English orally, and increases classroom participation.

Alkathiri (2019) designs a five-point Likert scale questionnaire to explore EFL students' attitudes toward using YouTube to develop knowledge of linguistics in the English language. The study sample consists of 30 EFL students in the Department of English at Prince Sattam Bin Abdulaziz University. The study's findings indicate that incorporating YouTube into the English language classroom helps students be motivated and engaged during the lessons. Moreover, engaging in English-speaking tasks with YouTube videos augmented students' confidence in their English-speaking abilities.

Cahyana's (2020) study examines the utilization of YouTube videos in English language learning, focusing on its implementation, the students' perception of its influence on English skill enhancement, challenges faced by teachers and students, and the student's overall perspective on using YouTube videos for learning English. The respondents include five tenth-grade English teachers and 35 tenth-grade students. The research design employs an embedded mixed-method approach. Data are collected through the distribution of questionnaires and analyzed using SPSS. The study's findings indicate that teachers successfully implemented the YouTube video technique to target various English skills; students hold a favorable opinion regarding improving their English learning as it reduces monotony in teaching and

increases motivation in learning English. The results include insights into challenges faced by teachers, students' perceptions of skill improvement, and their overall views on implementing the YouTube video technique.

Tristiana and Swondo (2020) review the potential impact of YouTube content creation on students and how their speaking ability can be fluent. The research employs an experimental quantitative approach. The sample comprises 80 eleventh-grade students from Madrasah Aliyah Swasta Yaspi, Labuhan Deli, a control class, and an experimental class, each containing 40 students. The experimental class received instruction using YouTube content creation, while the control group has been taught through conventional methods. Data collection involved pre-tests and post-tests, with oral tests in the form of short dialogues serving as research instruments. In conclusion, the utilization of YouTube content creation greatly influences students' speaking skills.

Meinawati et al. (2020) evaluate the effectiveness of using YouTube to improve English speaking skills in 10th-grade students of both genders at SMA IT Rahmaniya. The research focuses on employing YouTube as a distinctive and enjoyable teaching method to create a comfortable classroom environment and foster increased enthusiasm for learning. Utilizing the qualitative descriptive method, the study found that YouTube is highly effective. It has boosted students' confidence and expression in speaking English, addressing concerns about language correctness by offering visual examples of proper pronunciation and usage from native speakers.

The role of YouTube videos in improving the speaking skills of EFL Jordanian students was investigated by a study by Saed et al. (2021). They tested eighty students who studied at a private university. Later, the researchers divided the sample into two groups: the first was taught using YouTube videos for oral skills, while the control group employed the traditional approach. The two groups were evaluated using the IELTS speaking band descriptors. The results clarified that using YouTube helped the experimental group to score higher than the control group. The study also finds substantial progress in the speaking performance of the control group, especially in pronunciation, fluency, and coherence.

Syafiq et al. (2021) explore the effect of YouTube videos on enhancing students' speaking abilities in the context of online learning amid the COVID-19 pandemic. Classroom action research was executed among first-semester college students at Muhammadiyah University of Kudus. The study focused on non-English program participants, with 85 students selected from a redundant class through planned sampling. Data was attained from speaking assessments and interviews, and analysis was performed using the constant comparative method and descriptive statistics. The findings revealed that YouTube videos, employed as learning materials for English, improved students' speaking skills, encompassing aspects such as fluency, pronunciation, content, grammar, and vocabulary. The study concluded that integrating YouTube videos is beneficial in enhancing students' speaking proficiency during the COVID-19 pandemic online learning.

While most of the previous studies stressed the advantages of using YouTube for teaching English, little research referred to the challenges of using YouTube in teaching. Kadagidze (2011) points out some challenges teachers may face when using YouTube in the classroom. Teachers might spend significant time searching for suitable content on the platform, as it can be challenging to find legitimate, accurate, unbiased, and classroom-appropriate material. Moreover, classroom management and lesson planning can be problematic when using YouTube. Effective classroom management requires a structured and consistent approach, and lesson plans should consist of short, precise tasks with readily apparent learning objectives, aligning more with a behaviorist approach to learning than the constructivist approach associated with social networking sites.

Zboun and Farrah (2021) stated that YouTube may not naturally support cooperative learning, so alternative methods should be explored to facilitate collaborative learning. The length of videos is crucial, as overly long videos can affect student interest. Furthermore, online learning often reduces interaction between teachers and students compared to face-to-face learning, which may decrease students' motivation.

Jalaluddin (2016) points out that Faculty members should be aware of some potential pitfalls of using YouTube in English Language Teaching (ELT) classes. The study mentions a number of disadvantages of using YouTube in teaching:

1. Language Comprehension: Understanding the language in YouTube videos can significantly challenge many students.
2. Inappropriate Content: Some videos on YouTube may be considered indecent, tasteless, or unsuitable for younger viewers, and copyright issues can also arise.
3. Distraction and Classroom Management: YouTube videos can easily distract students and disrupt the learning environment if not managed properly.
4. Reliability of Uploaded Material: YouTube contains a vast number of videos of varying quality, with some invading copyright restrictions, making it crucial for teachers to discern genuine content from fraudulent or low-quality uploads.
5. Cultural Bias: Many YouTube sites and uploads are created by European or North American enthusiasts, which may lead to cultural bias in the content and choices. Therefore, it is important for local teachers to select culturally relevant material.

Despite its potential drawbacks, previous research indicated that YouTube can be a valuable resource for ELT classes. Nevertheless, very few studies examined how YouTube can improve the English language of Jordanian university students. The current study, therefore, aims to investigate the power of implementing YouTube to enhance the English

language in general and how to develop Jordanian EFL university students' speaking skills. This study investigates the perspective of faculty members on using YouTube videos in English learning and their perceptions of the role of YouTube in speaking skill improvement. It also searches for the most practical approach to implementing YouTube videos in teaching English.

III. METHODOLOGY

The study adopted quantitative and qualitative methods to analyze the data and used some statistical analysis.

A. Sample of the Study

The study employed an online questionnaire for faculty members, which was administered over the course of one week. The questionnaire was created using Google Forms and distributed to faculty members via email and WhatsApp messages to comply with social distancing guidelines. The study's sample comprised 42 faculty members in the Department of English at both private and government universities during the academic year 2022-2023 at the undergraduate level. The faculty members were randomly selected from this population to gather valuable insights into their perceptions of implementing YouTube in English language teaching. Table 1 displays the demographic data of the study sample members based on personal variables.

TABLE 1
DEMOGRAPHIC DATA OF STUDY SAMPLE MEMBERS ACCORDING TO PERSONAL VARIABLES

		Frequency	Percent
Gender	Male	25	59.5
	Female	17	40.5
	Total	42	100.0
Age	less than 30	15	35.7
	31-40	18	42.9
	41- 51	9	21.4
	52 and more	0	0
	Total	42	100.0
Years of experience	less than 5 years	17	40.5
	6- 15 years	14	33.3
	16-25 years	3	7.2
	more than 25 years	8	19.0
	Total	42	100.0

Table 1 presents the following information:

- 1-The percentage of females in the sample was 40.5%, while the percentage of males was 59.5%.
- 2-The highest percentage in the 'Age' category was 42.9%, observed in the age group of 31-40 years, while the lowest percentage was 0% in the age group of 52 years and above.
- 3-The 'Years of experience' category had the highest percentage, 40.5%, for those with less than five years of experience and the lowest percentage, 7.2%, for those with 16-25 years of experience.

B. Research Instrument

The researcher designed a 31-item questionnaire based on a five-point Likert scale to collect data for the study. This questionnaire aimed to explore faculty members' perspectives on using YouTube in English language teaching. It was divided into three sections as follows:

The first section (items 1-10) focused on faculty members' perspectives on using YouTube in language teaching. The second section (items 11-22) addressed the role of YouTube in improving speaking skills. According to EFL English faculty members, the third section (items 23-31) investigated the most effective approaches to using YouTube. The arithmetic mean of the responses from the study's sample members to the questionnaire items are as follows:

- (A) the arithmetic means of 1- 2.33 indicates a Negative
- (B) the arithmetic means of 2.34 - 3.66 indicates a Neutral
- (C) the arithmetic means of 3.67-5 indicates a Positive

C. Instrument Validity and Reliability

Validity pertains to how accurately a study captures or evaluates the specific concept the researcher intends to measure. To ensure the questionnaire's face validity, the researcher shared it with multiple experts, seeking their input regarding its suitability for achieving the research objectives. A majority of the experts confirmed that the questionnaire effectively measures its intended purpose. The final version of the questionnaire can be found in Appendix A. Additionally, the researcher established the questionnaire's construct validity by calculating Cronbach's alpha values, as displayed in Table 2 below:

TABLE 2
CRONBACH'S ALPHA VALUES FOR THEIR SUB-DIMENSIONS FOR THE STUDY TOOL

Dimensional	Cronbach's alpha
Teachers' perspectives towards using YouTube in developing English language skills	0.791
EFL teachers' perceptions of using YouTube in developing speaking skills	0.803
The most effective approaches to use YouTube according to EFL English educators.	0.744
Total	0.907

IV. FINDINGS AND DISCUSSION

The First Question: What is the faculty members' perspective on using YouTube videos in both face-to-face and online English courses for undergraduate students?

To answer this question, mean and standard deviation values for items in the domain 'Teachers' perspectives towards using YouTube in developing English language skills' are presented in Table 3.

TABLE 3
MEAN AND STANDARD DEVIATION FOR ITEMS DOMAIN "TEACHERS' PERSPECTIVE TOWARDS USING YOUTUBE IN DEVELOPING ENGLISH LANGUAGE SKILLS"

No		Mean	Std. Deviation	Percent*	Rank	Trend
3	English language acquisition is accelerated and enhanced through the utilization of YouTube videos.	4.38	0.84	87.6%	1	Positive
4	Incorporating YouTube videos into language instruction reduces students' classroom apprehension.	4.09	1.02	81.8%	2	Positive
8	I find myself at ease when employing YouTube as a tool for teaching English.	3.98	0.60	79.5%	3	Positive
6	Students can grasp the English information that someone intends to convey.	3.95	0.59	79.0%	4	Positive
2	YouTube videos surpass at engaging and maintaining the focus of students.	3.91	0.76	78.1%	5	Positive
5	It's effortless for students to acquire extensive new vocabulary to enhance their speaking abilities.	3.90	1.03	78.1%	6	Positive
7	Students take the initiative to dedicate time to practice listening and speaking through YouTube.	3.79	0.92	75.7%	7	Positive
10	I anticipate having additional coursework related to YouTube in my classes.	2.27	0.57	45.3%	8	Negative
1	Locating resources for learning English on YouTube is a straightforward task.	2.19	0.82	43.8%	9	Negative
9	I enjoy using educational content from YouTube to aid in English learning	2.17	0.57	43.3%	10	Negative
Teachers' perspectives towards using YouTube in developing English language skills		3.46	0.47	69.2%		Neutral

*Percent= (Mean/5) ×100%

Table 3 reveals that the mean values range from 2.17 to 4.38. The highest mean is observed for the statement, "English language acquisition is accelerated and enhanced through the utilization of YouTube videos." In contrast, the lowest mean pertains to the statement, "I enjoy using educational content from YouTube to aid in English learning." The overall mean for the domain 'Teachers' perspectives towards using YouTube in developing English language skills' is 3.46.

Based on Table 3, the study sample members hold positive perspectives towards using YouTube to develop English language skills. However, they encounter some challenges related to their coursework and identifying necessary resources for learning English on YouTube. Additionally, they only enjoy using educational content on YouTube at some times.

The results are compatible with Alkathiri (2019), Tristiana and Swondo (2020), Saed et al. (2021), and Syafiq et al. (2021), where studies emphasized the positive impact of using YouTube in developing the students' language. However, the three lowest-scoring items suggest that some students need to be more active or interested in engaging in additional work. They prefer to limit themselves to their course books and nothing else. This could be attributed to our teaching methods and culture. For a long time, Jordanian students have heavily relied on memorizing English textbooks. Furthermore, our culture may impose some restrictions on classroom behavior, as students have traditionally been taught to be quiet and attentive. These outcomes are not consistent with Labdi's (2017), Alkathiri's (2019), and Pinto's (2020), which emphasized the positive impact on shy students who were able to overcome their shyness and fear of speaking in front of the entire class.

The Second Question: What are the faculty members' perceptions of the role of YouTube in improving speaking skills for undergraduate students in both face-to-face and online learning?

In addressing this question, Table 4 displays the mean and standard deviation values for items within the domain of 'EFL teachers' perspectives on the utilization of YouTube to enhance speaking skills.

TABLE 4
MEAN AND STANDARD DEVIATION FOR ITEMS DOMAIN "ESL TEACHERS' PERCEPTIONS OF USING YOUTUBE IN DEVELOPING SPEAKING SKILLS"

No		Mean	Std. Deviation	Percent*	Rank	Trend
1	YouTube videos facilitate students' comprehension of the content they hear.	4.10	0.66	82.0%	1	Positive
11	Students' speaking skills can be enhanced by watching YouTube videos of their favorite English speaker.	4.05	0.62	81.0%	2	Positive
3	YouTube videos support students in gaining a more thorough understanding of the material.	4.00	0.58	80.0%	3	Positive
2	YouTube videos enable students to distinguish individual sounds more effectively.	3.95	0.66	79.0%	4	Positive
5	When listening to YouTube videos, students can more easily follow the flow of conversation.	3.88	0.67	77.6%	5	Positive
4	Students can improve their use of stress and intonation cues through YouTube videos.	3.87	0.68	77.4%	6	Positive
6	While watching YouTube videos, they listen for pivotal words that convey meaning.	3.86	0.68	77.2%	7	Positive
10	Students can effortlessly replicate the accents of native speakers.	3.85	0.78	77.0%	8	Positive
9	YouTube videos assist students in segmenting spoken content into recognizable components.	3.83	0.62	76.6%	9	Positive
8	Students can make inferences about unstated information with the help of YouTube videos.	3.17	0.49	63.4%	11	Neutral
7	YouTube videos support students in inferring the meaning of unfamiliar words.	2.02	1.07	40.4%	12	Negative
EFL faculty members' perceptions of using YouTube in developing speaking skills		3.69	0.41	73.8%	10	Positive
*Percent= (Mean/5) ×100%						

Table 4 indicates that the mean values range between 2.02 and 4.10. The highest mean is associated with the statement, "YouTube videos facilitate students' comprehension of the content they hear." In contrast, the lowest mean pertains to the statement, "YouTube videos support students in inferring the meaning of unfamiliar words." The overall mean for the domain 'EFL teachers' perceptions of using YouTube in developing speaking skills' is 3.695.

According to Table 4, there are positive perceptions among faculty members of English as a foreign language regarding using YouTube to develop speaking skills. However, they encounter challenges in enhancing their students' ability to make inferences about unspoken information using YouTube videos and deduce unfamiliar words' meanings. Many students do not heed the need to widen their knowledge scope by reading extracurricular educational books or watching beneficial documentaries on their own.

The results are consistent with previous studies conducted by Labdi (2017), Omer (2017), and Alkathiri (2019), which revealed the positive impact of using YouTube videos in their teaching. Students enjoy watching videos, which can eventually improve their ability to listen to and understand English spoken with various accents, as clarified in Meinawati et al.'s (2020) study.

Conversely, the lowest-scoring item indicates that inferring the meaning of unfamiliar words is challenging, mainly due to language weaknesses some students have. They require much more practice than others to reach a proficient level. These findings align with previous research by Alastuey (2011) and Jalaluddin (2016), highlighting a few difficulties and drawbacks of using YouTube videos.

The third question: According to EFL English faculty members, what is the most effective approach to using YouTube?

A. To Answer This Question, Mean and Standard Deviation Values for Items in the Domain 'The Most Effective Approaches to Using Youtube According to EFL English Educators' Are Presented in Table 5.

TABLE 5
MEAN AND STANDARD DEVIATION FOR ITEMS DOMAIN "THE MOST EFFECTIVE APPROACHES TO USE YOUTUBE ACCORDING TO EFL ENGLISH EDUCATORS"

No		Mean	Std. Deviation	Percent*	Rank	Trend
2	Utilizing YouTube to supplement the information related to a specific topic.	4.02	0.64	80.5%	1	Positive
3	Encouraging students to engage in a discussion based on a particular video.	3.98	0.64	79.5%	2	Positive
4	Requesting students to provide feedback or comments following their video viewing.	3.98	0.60	79.5%	2	Positive
6	Prompt students to identify and discuss the three or four key points or details observed in the video.	3.90	0.62	78.1%	4	Positive
9	Students experience a heightened sense of assurance when expressing their ideas in English within the classroom.	3.88	0.71	77.6%	5	Positive
7	Having the class list available to the instructor and randomly calling on students to share their insights.	3.86	0.65	77.1%	6	Positive
5	Motivating students to upload self-created videos to demonstrate their comprehension.	3.81	0.74	76.2%	7	Positive
10	Students can speak English confidently, even when they are unconcerned about using incorrect grammatical structures.	3.81	0.89	76.2%	7	Positive
8	Students can exhibit self-discipline during English presentations.	3.14	0.42	62.9%	9	Neutral
1	Employing YouTube as a primary teaching resource.	1.76	0.98	35.2%	10	Negative

Table 5 illustrates the mean ranges between 1.76 and 4.02, with the highest mean for "Utilizing YouTube to supplement the information related to a specific topic," but the lowest mean was for "Employing YouTube as a primary teaching resource".

Moreover, Table 5 indicates that faculty members believe that the most effective methods for using YouTube are to supplement information related to a specific topic, encourage students to participate in discussions based on specific videos, enhance students' ability to provide notes or comments after watching the video and identify and discuss three or four main points or details noted in the video.

Faculty members observe an improvement in students' English language skills after using YouTube, which aligns with the findings of Tristiana and Swondo (2020), Saed et al. (2021), Syafiq et al. (2021), and Pinto (2020). Students have become more dynamic and interested in their studies. These students generally have energetic personalities, and this teaching method fulfills their learning requirements.

However, faculty members also indicated that YouTube is ineffective in enhancing students' self-discipline during English presentations and cannot serve as a primary educational resource. This finding is similar to Alastuey's (2011) and Jalaluddin's (2016) results, which revealed the limitations of using YouTube as the sole teaching method. Many students prefer written materials, so they may need more than videos alone. These students are usually introverted or very bashful about expressing their thoughts verbally.

B. The General Overview of Using YouTube

The application of analysis of variance (Independent Samples T-Test) has been conducted to assess the views of the respondents regarding the study's variables. This analysis was performed concerning the variables of gender and (ANOVA) concerning the respondents' views about the study's variables, specifically Job Age and Years of experience.

Three statistically important variations, at a significance level of $\alpha \leq 0.05$, exist in the viewpoints of the study participants concerning 'Faculty members' attitudes towards employing YouTube for enhancing English language skills' and 'EFL faculty members' views on utilizing YouTube for the improvement of speaking skills,' categorized by gender.

However, age and years of experience revealed no statistically important differences at the significance level ($\alpha \leq 0.05$) in the study sample members based on age. The F-values were not statistically significant.

The variables "Teachers' perspectives towards using YouTube in developing English language skills" and "EFL teachers' perceptions of using YouTube in developing speaking skills" are categorized by years of experience, such as "less than five years", "6-15 years", "16-25 years", and "more than 25 years". Nevertheless, as indicated in Table 8, there are no statistically significant variations at the significance level ($\alpha \leq 0.05$) in the perspectives of the study participants based on years of experience. The F-values did not reach statistical significance.

V. CONCLUSION AND RECOMMENDATION

The study aimed to investigate faculty members' perspectives on using YouTube for language learning. The results demonstrated the dominance of positive attitudes among faculty members in teaching English using YouTube. They observed a development in the students' English language skills in general and their speaking skills in particular after using YouTube. Furthermore, the faculty members suggested that integrating YouTube videos into English language teaching fulfills the needs of students with energetic personalities as they become more dynamic and interested in EFL classes when taught utilizing YouTube videos. The faculty members pointed out that YouTube videos can broaden and expand students' knowledge on a particular topic.

The outcomes also revealed some challenges related to using YouTube videos in teaching English. Students frequently need more enthusiasm or interest in taking on extra assignments, often choosing to confine themselves to their assigned course materials. Faculty members have also noted that YouTube proves ineffective in bolstering students' self-discipline during English presentations and is not considered a primary educational tool. Several students favor written materials, believing they need more than just videos. Usually, these students are either introverted or reluctant to vocalize their thoughts. The interpretation of unacquainted words poses a challenge, primarily due to language deficiencies some students experience. Students face difficulties related to their coursework and struggle with identifying essential learning resources for studying English on YouTube. Additionally, they need to consistently find satisfaction in using educational content on YouTube.

The examination of gender-based differences in the study identified three statistically significant distinctions in the sample's views on faculty members' attitudes regarding using YouTube to enhance English language and speaking skills. The "T" values pointed to statistical significance favoring females, potentially linked to their tendency for change and the freedom to express thoughts, imparting a more dynamic quality to the course. Conversely, no statistically significant differences were observed concerning age and years of experience. Despite further categorization of variables by experience, opinions based on years of teaching experience did not exhibit significant variations.

The findings inspired some recommendations regarding teaching implications. The study recommended that one of the most effective approaches in EFL teaching is to use YouTube to supplement information related to a given topic and then encourage students to participate in discussing that topic. The study also recommended further research on YouTube's influence on the linguistic proficiency of English and other languages.

REFERENCES

- [1] Alastuey, B. (2011). Perceived benefits and drawbacks of synchronous voice-based computer-mediated communication in the foreign language classroom. *Computer Assisted Language Learning*, 24(5), 419-432.
- [2] Aldukhayel, D. (2021). Vlogs in L2 listening: EFL learners' and teachers' perceptions. *Computer Assisted Language Learning*, 34(8), 1085-1104. <https://doi.org/10.1080/09588221.2019.1658608>.
- [3] Alkathiri, L. (2019). Students' perspectives towards using YouTube in improving EFL Learners' motivation to speak. *J. Educ. Culture Stud.*, 3(1), pp. 12-30.
- [4] Almahasees, Z., Mohsen, K., & Amin, M. O. (2021, May). Faculty's and students' perceptions of online learning during COVID-19. *Frontiers in Education*, 6, 1-10. 638470. Frontiers Media SA.
- [5] Al-Salman, S., & Haider, A. S. (2021). Jordanian University Students' Views on Emergency Online Learning during COVID-19. *Online Learning*, 25(1), 286-302.
- [6] Ammari, R. M., Al jarrah, L. & Khalifeh, A. J. (2021). Faculty of Arts and Science Members at Amman Arab University and their Perspective of Distance learning Reality in light of COVID-19. *The Arab Journal of the Social Sciences*, 5(1), 8-29.
- [7] Anggraeni, S. (2012). *Optimizing the Use of YouTube Video to Improve Students' Competence in Writing Procedure Text (A Classroom Action Research at the Tenth Grade Students of SMA N Kebakkramat in Academic Year of 2011/2012*, Sebelas Maret University, Indonesia.
- [8] Benson, P. (2015). Commenting to learn: Evidence of language and intercultural learning in comments on YouTube videos. *Language Learning & Technology*, 19(3), 88-105. <http://dx.doi.org/10125/44435>.
- [9] Cahyana, A.A.C. (2020). The Use of YouTube Video In Teaching English for Foreign Language at Vocational High School. *English Language Education*, Post Graduate Program, Universitas Pe JPBI, 8(2), p.1-11. ISSN: 2541-7207.
- [10] Haider, A. S., Al-Salman, S. (2020a). Covid-19's impact on the higher education system in Jordan: advantages, challenges, and suggestions. *Humanity Social Sciences*. Rev., 8(4), 1418-1428.
- [11] Haider AS, Al-Salman S. (2020b). Dataset of Jordanian university students' psychological health impacted by using e-learning tools during COVID-19. *Data Brief. Science Direct*, 32, 1-8, 106104, ISSN2352-3409.
- [12] Jalaluddin, M. (2016). Using YouTube to enhance speaking skills in ESL classroom. *English for Specific Purposes World*, 17(50), 1-4.
- [13] Jarrah, L. A., Ammari, R. M., Al-Talafha, A. S. & Khalifeh, A. J. (2021). Students' Attitudes Towards the Use Of Games In Teaching Vocabulary For The Second Language Learners. *Multicultural Education*, 7(12), 386-396.
- [14] Kabooa, R., & Elyas, T. (2015). *The impacts of using YouTube videos on learning vocabulary in Saudi EFL classroom*. ICERI2015 Conference, December 2016, 3525-3531. <https://www.researchgate.net/publication/283153582>
- [15] Kadagidze, L. (2011). YouTube in the Classroom: Pros and Cons. *International Periodical Scientific Journal "INTELECT I"*, 2, 61-63.
- [16] Khalifeh, A. J., Almousa, N. A., Ammari, R. M., & Jarrah, L. A. (2022). Students' Attitudes Towards Applying Cooperative Learning Strategy at Amman Arab University. *Journal of Language Teaching and Research*, 13(5), 997-1006.
- [17] Kulal, A., and Nayak, A. (2020). A study on perception of teachers and students toward online classes in Dakshina Kannada and Udupi District. *Asian Assoc. Open Univ. J.* 15, 285-296. Doi: 10.1108/aaouj-07-2020-0047.
- [18] Labdi, D. (2017). *The Role of Educational YouTube Videos in Improving EFL Learners' Speaking Skill The Case of Second Year LMD Students of English at Biskra University* (Doctoral dissertation). Retrieved on 9th Feb, 2024.
- [19] Lestari, D., & Prasetyo, Z. K. (2019). A Review on ICT Literacy in Science Learning. <https://doi.org/10.1088/1742-6596/1233/1/012097>.
- [20] Maness, K. (2004). Teaching Media-Savvy Students about the Popular Media. *The English Journal*, 93(3), 46-51.
- [21] Medoukali, F. (2015). *Developing EFL Learners' Listening Comprehension through YouTube Videos*. [http://dspace.univbiskra.dz:8080/jspui/bitstream/123456789/5806/1/Farid MEDOUKALI.pdf](http://dspace.univbiskra.dz:8080/jspui/bitstream/123456789/5806/1/Farid%20MEDOUKALI.pdf). Retrieved December 6, 2023, from <http://archives.univ-biskra.dz/bitstream/123456789/5806/1/Farid%20MEDOUKALI.pdf>

- [22] Meinawati, E., Harmoko, D.D., Rahmah, N.A. (2020). Increasing English speaking skills using YouTube. *Polyglot: J. Ilm.*, 16(1), 1-13.
- [23] Nurkholida, E. (2016). Enhancing Listening Skill Based on Authentic Materials in Higher Education. *Deiksis*, 8(03), 256–266. <https://journal.lppmunindra.ac.id/index.php/Deiksis/article/download/809/845>. Retrieved November 17, 2023 from file:///C:/Users/ADMIN/Downloads/809-2536-1-PB.pdf
- [24] Omer, A. M. A. (2017). *Exploring the Impact of YouTube on Enhancing Listening and Speaking Skills of EFL Learners* (Doctoral dissertation, Sudan University of Science and Technology) Retrieved February 9, 2024, from https://scholar.google.com/scholar?hl=en&as_sdt=0%2C5&q=Omer%2C+A.+M.+A.+%282017%29.+Exploring+the+Impact+of+YouTube+on+Enhancing+Listening+and+Speaking+Skills+of+EFL+Learners+&btnG=
- [25] Pratama, S.H.H., Arifin, R.A., and Widianingsih, A.W.S. (2020). The use of YouTube as a learning tool in teaching listening skill. *International Journal Global Operations. Res.*, 1(3), 123-129.
- [26] Prensky, M. (2009). *Make Those You Tubes!*, in *Educational Technology*, pp. 1–4. https://www.marcsprensky.com/writing/Prensky-Make_Those_You_Tubes--EdTech-2009.pdf Retrieved on 9th Feb, 2024.
- [27] Ratheeswari, K. (2018). Information Communication Technology in Education. *Journal of Applied and Advanced Research*, 3(S1), 45. <https://doi.org/10.21839/jaar.2018.v3is1.169>.
- [28] Pinto, R. (2020). *E-learning: The advantages and Challenges*. Available online at: <https://www.entrepreneur.com/article/351860> (accessed December 1, 2020).
- [29] Reinders, H., & Hubbard, P. (2013). *CALL and learner autonomy: Affordances and constraints*. In M. Thomas, H. Reinders, & M. Warschauer (Eds.), *Contemporary computer assisted language learning* (pp. 359–375). Continuum Books.
- [30] Saed, H., Haider, A., Al-Salman, & Hussein, R. (2021). The use of YouTube in developing the speaking skills of Jordanian EFL university students. *Heliyon*, 7(7), 1-6. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.heliyon.2021.e07543>
- [31] Syafiq, A. N., Rahmawati, A., Anwari, A., & Oktaviana, T. (2021). Increasing speaking skill through YouTube video as English learning material during online learning in pandemic COVID-19. *Elsya: Journal of English Language Studies*, 3(1), 50-55.
- [32] Yasin, B., Mustafa, F., & Permatasari, R. (2018). How Much Videos Win over Audios in Listening Instruction for EFL Learners. *Turkish Online Journal of Educational Technology - TOJET*, 17(1), 92–100. Retrieved November 11, 2023, from https://www.researchgate.net/publication/322567994_How_much_videos_win_over_audios_in_listening_instruction_for_EFL_learners#fullTextFileContent
- [33] Watkins, J., & Wilkins, M. (2011a). Using YouTube in the EFL Classroom. *Language Education in Asia*, 2(1), 113–119. https://doi.org/10.5746/leia/11/v2/i1/a09/watkins_wilkins.
- [34] Yasin, B., Mustafa, F., & Permatasari, R. (2018). How Much Videos Win over Audios in Listening Instruction for EFL Learners. *Turkish Online Journal of Educational Technology - TOJET*, 17(1), 92–100. <http://ezproxy.lib.uconn.edu/login?url=https://search.ebscohost.com/login.aspx?direct=true&db=eric&AN=EJ1165770&site=ehost-live>.
- [35] Zboun, J. S., & Farrah, M. (2021). Students' Perspectives of Online Language Learning during Corona Pandemic: Benefits and Challenges. *Indonesian EFL Journal*, 7(1), 13-20.



Raeda Mofid Ammari is an accomplished researcher and author in the field of Linguistics, born in New York City on September 28, 1974. Raeda completed a Bachelor of Science in English Literature from AlAhliyya Amman University, Jordan in 1996. Continuing her academic pursuits, she earned a Master of Science in Linguistics from University of Jordan in 2010. Finally, in 2018, Raeda received a Ph.D. in Linguistics from University of Jordan.

She brings a wealth of experience to her current position as lecturer at Amman Arab University located in Amman, Jordan. Before this role, Raeda held positions at Al-Ahliyya Amman University as a lecturer in the Language Center.

Raeda M. Ammari has contributed significantly to the field with notable publications, including "Congratulations! A Case Study of Social Media Users in Jordan Students", "Attitudes Towards Applying Cooperative Learning Strategy at Amman Arab University", "A Corpus-Based Study of English Synonyms: Small, Little, Tiny and Petite" and "The Use of Passive Voice in News Reports for Political Purposes". Her research interests span Corpus Linguistics, discourse, and sociolinguistics.

Currently holding the title of Dr. Ammari, Raeda is an active member of several university committees and a reviewer in the International Journal of Arabic-English Studies (IJAES).

Wajed Rasmi Al Ahmad is an assistant professor of linguistics at Middle East University (MEU) in Amman, Jordan. As a devoted researcher, her primary interests lie in corpus linguistics and linguistic analysis. She employs advanced tools and software tailored for corpus analysis to examine the dynamics of language. The core focus of her work encompasses discourse analysis, language teaching and learning, lexico-grammar, and various linguistic aspects within corpus linguistics. Her research endeavors aim to unveil patterns, trends, and insights that significantly contribute to our understanding of language structures, enriching academic discourse and providing practical knowledge to MEU students in applying corpus linguistic methods.

Throughout her academic journey, she has contributed to several notable research papers. "Congratulations! A Case Study of Social Media Users in Jordan", "A Corpus-Based Study of English Synonyms: Small, Little, Tiny and Petite. Additionally, she's explored topics such as the impact of COVID-19 on e-learning in "Manage Awareness Attitude Anxiety Experience and E-learning during COVID-19 Pandemic Evidence from ASU University," Other contributions include "An Exeptive Account of Unless Clauses: Corpus Evidence" and "Conditional Sentence Constructions in English: Frequencies and Distribution in American and British English - A Corpus-Based Study".

Her areas of expertise span across Corpus and Computational Linguistics, Theoretical and Applied Linguistics, and Translation, with a particular focus on Computer-Assisted Translation (CAT) tools, and Cambridge Sketch Engine for linguistic analysis, and text mining. Additionally, the individual uses computational linguistic tools like CoreNLP and SAFAR for morphological analysis and syntactic parsing of Arabic texts. Their dedication to advancing linguistic knowledge involves leveraging these tools and methods to contribute to a broader understanding of language structures and patterns.

Majd Saleem Abushunar obtained her Ph.D. degree in English Language/ Linguistics from the University of Jordan, Amman, Jordan. She is a full-time lecturer at the Hashemite University, Zarqa, Jordan. Her research interests include psycholinguistics, phonology, sociolinguistics, and corpus linguistics.

Lina A. Al-Jarrah is an associate professor in language and grammar. She earned her Bachelor's degree in Arabic language and its literature from Al al-Bayt University with a very good grade. She then pursued a Master's degree in language and grammar at Yarmouk University, followed by a doctoral degree in the same field at Yarmouk University as well. Subsequently, she joined the Amman Arab University to work as an assistant professor and was later promoted to an associate professor.

Her research interests encompass the Arabic language at all levels, including language, grammar, phonetics, semantics, and literature. Additionally, she is involved in teaching Arabic to non-native speakers. She has numerous research papers published in reputable scientific journals, especially those indexed in Scopus such as “Attitudes towards the Flipped Classroom Strategy and Their Satisfaction with it during the Corona Pandemic from their Perspectives” and “Embedded Cultural Patterns in Abu Firas Al-Hamadani’s Ra’iyyah: Arabic Poetry”.

Raising Awareness of Gender Discrimination Against Indigenous Australian Women of the Stolen Generation Through Doris Kartinyeri's *Kick The Tin*

Olga A. Rorintulus*

English Education Department, Faculty of Languages and Arts, Universitas Negeri Manado, Tondano, Indonesia

Nur Saktiningrum

English Department, Faculty of Cultural Sciences, Universitas Gadjah Mada, Yogyakarta, Indonesia

Ceisy Nita Wuntu

English Education Department, Faculty of Languages and Arts, Universitas Negeri Manado, Tondano, Indonesia

Muhd. Al Hafizh

English Department, Faculty of Languages and Arts, Universitas Negeri Padang, Padang, Indonesia

Agustine C. Mamentu

English Language and Literature Study Program, Faculty of Languages and Arts, Universitas Negeri Manado, Indonesia

Abstract—In contemporary society, the persistent manifestation of gender discrimination continues to impede the advancement of women in their pursuit of gender equality. Within the historical context of the assimilation program, Indigenous Australian women confronted systemic gender disparities. This scholarly investigation endeavors to elucidate the nuanced facets of gender discrimination experienced by Indigenous Australian women affiliated with the stolen generation, as discerned through the lens of Doris Kartinyeri's seminal work, "Kick the Tin." Employing a qualitative research paradigm, this study uses a liberal feminist framework to scrutinize the gathered data meticulously. The findings underscore that Kartinyeri's "Kick the Tin" unveils the entrenched gender discrimination endured by Indigenous Australian women during the assimilation era, delineating their prescribed roles as domestic laborers within the prevailing white societal framework, thereby perpetuating the marginalization of this demographic. In its essence, the narrative challenges the systemic marginalization of Indigenous Australian women, concurrently advocating for their empowerment as a catalyst for fostering an equitable societal milieu. Consequently, this research augments scholarly discourse, serves as a poignant catalyst for heightened social consciousness, and catalyzes imperative shifts toward mitigating the pervasive impacts of gender discrimination on a broader scale.

Index Terms—raising awareness, gender discrimination, marginalization, stolen generation, indigenous Australian women's life writing

I. INTRODUCTION

Doris Kartinyeri's 'Kick the Tin' serves as a memoir detailing her life experiences as a member of the stolen generations in Australia. The primary objective of Kartinyeri's life writing is to shed light on her encounters as a forcibly separated child within Australian society. Published in 2000, 'Kick the Tin' unveils Kartinyeri's life history during the assimilation program, with the narrative delving into her childhood separation from her family in the first part and addressing the subsequent loss of language, culture, and its impact on her in the second part, as noted by Maher et al. (2019).

Life writings play a crucial role in fostering self-awareness and generating public consciousness about specific issues or the experiences of marginalized individuals in a given society. Epstein defines life writing as any piece of writing that undertakes the tasks of "discovery" and "personal inquiry" (cited in Yigitbilek, 2022). Similar to other literary works, life writings reflect personal or communal experiences, encompassing aspects of identity and culture (Yigitbilek, 2022). There are various forms of life stories, including personal, formal, informal, humorous, descriptive, reflective, nature, critical, lyric, narrative, review, periodical, romantic, scholarly, and genteel (Stuckey-French, 2018). Consequently, life stories offer readers an insider's perspective on a historical culture or era. Furthermore, life stories

* Corresponding Author. Email: olgarorintulus@unima.ac.id

provide insights from the vantage point of individuals whose voices have been muted or overlooked in society. In the Australian context, the experiences of the Stolen Generation remained concealed for an extended period. Polak argues that the life writings of the Stolen Generation gained recognition in the late 1970s (Polak, 2020).

The HREOC's Bringing Them Home Report compiles testimonies from victims of forced assimilation, outlining the experiences of stolen children and the egregious human rights violations resulting from government policies and programs (HREOC, 1997). The report highlights the devastating effects on the victims, asserting that the stolen generation comprises Indigenous Australian children taken from their families between 1907 and around 1970. The government, often labeling these children as "half-caste," targeted them for assimilation into the dominant culture. Presently, the repercussions persist, leaving many unable to connect with their roots or trace their ancestors, resulting in the loss of cultural identity, family ties, language, and a sense of belonging. Survivors continue to endure profound anguish and trauma, feeling adrift in their homeland.

Literature serves as a mirror reflecting human experiences, and Indigenous women's life writing, as a form of literary work, illuminates the gendered construction of Indigenous women during the Stolen Generations period. This literary work unveils the social construction of Indigenous women's gendered identity in Australian society. Indigenous women's writings convey empowerment and subjectivity, as indicated by Schaffer and Smith (2004) (cited in Mohammed & Berzenji, 2022). Moreover, Indigenous women's life writings critically examine their lives during the era of assimilation, highlighting their gender role as domestic workers in white society.

The author argues that Doris Kartinyeri's life writing mirrors the lives of Indigenous Australian women from the stolen generation, revealing the marginalization they experienced. Consequently, this study aims to expose the gender discrimination endured by Indigenous Australian women within the stolen generation. Significantly, it contributes to raising awareness and educating the public about gender discrimination against Indigenous Australian women, fostering social consciousness and understanding. Additionally, it has the potential to inform policy development aimed at empowering Indigenous Australian women today. Lastly, the study advocates for further research into the lives and empowerment of Indigenous Australian women through other life writings.

II. METHODOLOGY

This study adopts a qualitative research methodology. The data are collected through primary sources, the life writing of Doris Kartinyeri, and secondary sources such as books and articles. Then, the analysis is presented descriptively. The writer applies a feminist literary approach that stresses the representation of women as reflected in the life writing of Doris Kartinyeri. Feminist Literature deals with interpreting a particular literary work regarding women's empowerment (Singh, 2021). In this case, the Liberal feminism approach is used to understand gender discrimination of Indigenous women. Rajapandi et al. (2022) claimed that liberal feminism perceives that women and men deserve to have similar rights and freedom to actualize themselves. Liberal feminists stress the importance of developing a culture that promotes women's empowerment. The analysis is shaped by feminism, which is interdisciplinary and integrates academic disciplines such as history, sociology, culture, and literature.

III. RESULT AND DISCUSSION

A. Assimilation Program Through Education to Indigenous Australian Women

Liberal feminists believe education is critical in enhancing women's empowerment and gender equality. Thus, the assimilation program for Indigenous women of Australia in the assimilation period was good for the betterment of Indigenous women in terms of their education. However, the reality was not based on the beliefs of feminists who fight for universal equality for all women in all aspects of life.

It is argued that the life writing of Doris Kartinyeri is to show gender discrimination in the assimilation program that marginalizes Indigenous women's gender roles in Australian society and raise awareness concerning the gender discrimination against Indigenous women in Australian society during the assimilation period. *Kick the Tin* is the life story of Doris Kartinyeri, which is a personal story or narrative. It reflects her identity and the experiences of her society. In this case, the story of Doris Kartinyeri discloses her experiences and other Indigenous women of Australia who belong to the stolen generation. The stolen generation were children who were taken away from their families and educated in White institutions (Mohammed & Berzenji, 2022). The recognition of the Stolen Generations gained prominence following the release of the Bringing Them Home Report in 1997 (HREOC, 1997).

Kick the Tin refers to a game that was played by Doris and her friends in Colebrook Home, a White institution for Indigenous Australian children. It pictured the life of Doris Kartinyeri and her friends, who had been kicked around after being taken away from their families. As asserted by Kartinyeri, the book's title serves as a representation of the experiences of Indigenous children, who were mistreated by those entrusted with their education for integration into the white community (Kartinyeri, 2000, p. 2). She was born at the Raukkan Community Hospital on 8 September 1945. She was removed after the death of her mother, a month after her birth. Doris was brought up in Colebrook Home (Kartinyeri, 2000).

Kick the Tin describes Doris Kartinyeri's experience of being stolen from her family in 1945 in South Australia. Historically, in 1891, there were 571 'half-castes' in Western Australia; ten years later, there were 951 and 691 alone in the State's southwest (Buti, 2004, p. 80). Moreover, Haebich asserts that in the late nineteenth century, Indigenous children were sent to white institutions in the south of Western Australia. The purpose of educating Indigenous children was to prepare them for domestic and farm work (HREOC, 1997). The Bringing Them Home Inquiry found that in New South Wales, the policy of removing Indigenous children to assimilate them with non-Indigenous people had been in place since 1890. In 1914, the Aborigines' Protection Board made a regulation that all Indigenous male children 14 years and older had to find jobs in the white community. Indigenous girls 14 years and older should 'go into service' or be trained in the Cootamundra Training Home, which opened in 1911 and closed in 1969 (HREOC, 1997).

Doris Kartinyeri recounts similar experiences of the policy. She was removed after the death of her mother in 1945 and placed in the Colebrook Home (Kartinyeri, 2000, pp. 13-16). Doris was still a baby when she was taken away from her family.

I came into this world on 8 September 1945 in Raukkan, a Ngarrindjeri community situated at Point McLeay along the shores of Lake Alexandrina. Sadly, my mother faced complications and passed away on October 8, just a month after my birth, at Murray Bridge Hospital. Shortly after her demise, I was forcibly separated from my family. Agents of the Aboriginal Protection Board, without my father's knowledge, took me from Murray Bridge Hospital and relocated me to Colebrook Home. (Kartinyeri, 2000, p. 6)

In this instance, Doris employs the term 'stolen' to narrate her removal from her family, suggesting that by the time Kartinyeri penned her account, the term 'Stolen Generation' was already in circulation within Australian society. Kartinyeri resided at Colebrook Home until the age of 14 in the 1950s but was never informed of her removal from her family, leading to feelings of alienation and isolation from her family (Mellor & Haebich, 2002, p. 64).

During the 1920s, missions played an active role in assimilating Indigenous children in South Australia. The mission relocated to Quorn in 1926, transforming into the Colebrook Children's Home. In 1944, it moved to Adelaide and remained operational until 1981 (HREOC, 1997, p. 123). Doris Kartinyeri resided in the Colebrook Children's Home from 1945 to 1959, a facility built in 1943 at Eden Hills to train Indigenous children (Hosking, 2004). Kartinyeri reveals that approximately 350 Indigenous children were taken for training between 1943 and 1972, forming a surrogate family at Colebrook as they lacked knowledge of their biological families and true identities. She reflects, 'This was our home, and we respected it. We were happy, laughing, crying, and just being an extended family with much love' (Kartinyeri, 2000, p. 14). Nevertheless, the sense of family and community disintegrated upon their departure, as Kartinyeri states:

This is what happened to most of us kids; we had everything taken from us: our culture, our heritage, our language. So, once we left Colebrook, it was a confusing life for us. (Kartinyeri, 2000, pp. 223-224)

This implies that Indigenous children who departed from the Colebrook Home experienced feelings of isolation and insecurity while residing in the white community due to their detachment from their 'roots,' families, and culture. The removal of Indigenous children was largely motivated by racism. Yan Pettman contends that in Australia, race pertains to 'physical characteristics like skin color' and specifically to 'Aboriginal people in the context of colonization' (Pettman, 1992, p. 9). Additionally, Mary Holmes defines race as the judgment that other races are inferior (Holmes, 2007, p. 149). In this context, the assimilation of Indigenous children was linked to 'Anglo-Australian superiority,' perceiving Indigenous people as 'inferior' and necessitating assimilation to conform to white culture (Beresford & Omaji, 1998, p. 256). Beresford and Omaji (1998) affirm that:

During the era of the Stolen Generations in Australia, the two forms of racism drove official policy in a mutually reinforcing way. Aversive racism removed Aborigines from their land or out of the cities to make way for European possession, and dominative racism turned them into cheap laborers and domestic servants. (Beresford & Omaji, 1998, p. 261)

Indigenous women's life writing, therefore, makes visible the official racism at the heart of the policy framework. Margaret Tucker states:

In that era, the management of Aboriginal affairs was marked by negligence, insensitivity, and cruelty, leaving a significant stain on Australia's history. We appeared to be treated as mere subjects for experimentation, as the government seemed uncertain about how to handle our situation. It is disheartening to be labeled as 'half-caste,' evoking a sense of bitterness. (Tucker, 1977, pp. 29-30)

Tucker's critique of government policies regarding Indigenous 'half-caste' individuals underscores the mistreatment they endured based on their 'skin color,' rendering them as 'experimental objects.' White individuals wielded their authority to 'civilize' Indigenous children, aiming to mold them into 'useful citizens' by forcibly separating them from their families and 'educating' them in white institutions, driven by the belief that Indigenous people were perceived as 'little better than animals' (Edwards & Read, 1992, p. 10). The assimilation policy aimed to establish 'an Aboriginal working class' to serve the interests of the white community (Edwards & Read, 1992, p. 10). Consequently, the assimilation policy tended to depict stolen children as subservient to white people and instilled in them the acceptance of a life at the lower echelons of the white community, as noted by Beresford and Omaji (1998, p. 62).

The shaping of Indigenous women's gendered identity as 'inferior' to non-Indigenous women was further solidified during their training in white institutions. Haebich (2000) highlights that the 'education' provided to Indigenous children was geared towards preparing them for specific roles in the workforce based on their gender, such as pastoral work for

boys and domestic service for girls. This labor segregation underscores the gendering of Indigenous children, particularly contributing to the gendered construction of Indigenous women.

Indigenous women's life writing shows that life in missions and training homes was quite similar from one place to another. There were strict regulations to discipline children into accepting Christianity, reading the Bible, and praying. At the same time, a gendered division of labor for girls and boys was enforced, with physical punishment for those who disobeyed. Gladys Corunna recalls her experiences at Parkerville Children's Home, run by the Church of England, as follows:

Every morning at Parkerville, we adhered to a consistent routine. The day commenced with an early awakening signaled by a bell, followed by the tasks of making our beds, getting dressed, and sweeping the verandahs. Breakfast ensued, during which the boys fetched wood for the kitchen stove, and older girls prepared the porridge. Post breakfast, we engaged in cleanup activities and attended the morning church before school. At lunchtime, we formed lines and marched to the substantial dining hall. Occasionally, the odor from the meat was quite unpleasant, especially in the summer. After school, our allowance was one slice of bread with dripping before proceeding to the afternoon church. (Morgan, 1990, p. 246)

Doris Kartinyeri said it was similar at Colebrook, and religion had to be practiced frequently. Whatever they did and wherever they went, they had to pray and praise God (Kartinyeri, 2000, p. 30). They were poorly dressed and also had regular jobs that they had to do. Kartinyeri states:

We donned second-hand attire, consistently adorned with aprons, often resembling raggedy Annies, though we were oblivious to any alternative. Footwear typically consisted of hand-me-downs, not particularly comfortable, contributing to enduring foot problems throughout my life, as diagnosed by my doctor. Maintaining the cleanliness of the standard room floors mandated washing and polishing, a task performed on our knees. Dishwashing was assigned to the girls, a duty I didn't mind as it provided a chance to discreetly take items from the pantry. (Kartinyeri, 2000, pp. 36-39)

These examples show the harsh life and poor conditions in white institutions. Smith states, "Former residents told of being cold and hungry, worked too hard but educated too little" (Smith, 2004, p. 93). HREOC (1997) states:

The structural conditions of missions, governmental facilities, and children's homes were frequently substandard, with insufficient resources available to enhance them or adequately provide clothing, nourishment, and shelter for the children (HREOC, 1997, p. 158).

In addition to their harsh living condition, punishment was also a routine part of Indigenous women's lives in white institutions. Margaret Tucker remembers that it was difficult for her to learn how to cook for white people. She and her friends were punished for not performing such tasks well.

It was pretty obvious, then, why two Aboriginal girls and the others at the Home couldn't be expected to understand the cooking of white people, disciplined meals – we who were children of the bush! Beatrice Buggs and I received corporal punishment on that initial occasion for failing to recall details such as the essence of vanilla and other similar matters. I vividly recall witnessing Beatrice's bleeding lips and bruised cheeks as I huddled in the corner, gripped by fear. Miss Wood, holding a substantial piece of firewood, appeared furious and intimidating. The distressing incident with Beatrice is etched in my memory, leaving an indelible mark on our experience. (Tucker, 1977, p. 100)

In this sense, 'education' for Indigenous women was 'reinforced' by punishment.

In short, the designated 'education' for Indigenous children prepared them for domestic work since they were only considered fit for domestic service. Morgan asserts that children were prepared to be skillful in domestic work such as cleaning, washing, and cooking. As the girls matured, they were assigned to serve as housemaids or domestic help for individuals or families seeking their assistance (Morgan, 1990).

B. Gender Discrimination in Work Place

The training for Indigenous women prepared them to deal with work in domestic service, such as cleaning and cooking. In this case, 'the training system' for Indigenous women tended to construct girls' gendered role as domestic servants for the white community. They were considered inferior and were expected to submit to the norms of white society. They could not be allowed to compete with non-Indigenous people intellectually or economically, and thus, the 'education' they received was designed to marginalize them. Moreton-Robinson asserts that "in attempting to assimilate Indigenous women as domestic servants, the government was constructing and defining who they were and how they should behave" (Moreton-Robinson, 2002, p. 11). This illustrates an unequal power relationship in which Indigenous women were subordinated to non-Indigenous women, for whom white race privilege enacted and maintained Indigenous women's subjugation and exploitation.

Morgan (1990) narrates her mother, Gladys's, experiences as a child. Gladys was sent to Parkerville but had permission to visit her mother, Daisy, who worked as a servant at Ivanhoe (the house of Howden Drake-Brockman and Alice, his second wife). Gladys recalls that it was a holiday, and she was with her mother in the kitchen when Alice and June Drake-Brockman came in. The power relations between Indigenous and non-Indigenous women are illustrated in a scene in which the benevolence of the non-Indigenous woman reveals the social construction of Indigenous women:

I couldn't divert my gaze from June, who held the most exquisite doll in her arms—a doll with golden hair, blue eyes, and adorned in satin and lace. June remarked, 'You have a doll too. Mommy has it.' Subsequently,

Alice revealed a black topsy doll resembling a servant from behind her back. Dressed in a red checked dress and a white apron reminiscent of Mum's attire, the doll wore what was known as a slave cap—a handkerchief knotted at each corner. As I observed this doll for a moment, I was profoundly shocked. I thought, 'That's me.' I aspired to be a princess, not a servant. (Morgan, 1990, pp. 261-262)

The quotation above shows that from Alice and June's point of view, Gladys deserves a black doll dressed like a servant because her mother is a servant. This symbolizes how Indigenous women were conditioned to become servants for the white community. Brook asserts that the rag doll given to Gladys Corunna represents the 'mother/daughter bond' (Huggins, 1998, p. 113). In other words, Gladys was reminded that she would not be 'a princess' but a servant like her mother. White people believed that Indigenous women deserved to be domestic workers (Huggins, 1998, p. 9). This means Gladys must take up a position similar to her mother's. Her gendered role as an Indigenous woman is confined to that of a domestic servant, which cannot be separated from white interference in terms of race (Huggins, 1995, p. 113).

Alice represents how white women were implicated in the gendered construction of Indigenous women as domestic servants. Moreton-Robinson asserts that "White women played a role in shaping this narrative, influenced by an ideology of true white womanhood. This perspective, whether unconscious or conscious, positioned Indigenous women as less feminine, less human, and less spiritual than their white counterparts (Moreton-Robinson, 2002, p. 24). Indigenous women were perceived as inferior and valueless in the white community. This perception made Indigenous women domestic servants vulnerable. Their lives were controlled, without any sense of caring for their personal feelings or conditions.

Morgan makes this visible in her text. Her grandmother, Daisy, who lived at Corunna Station, asserts:

Because of your race, they treat you poorly. In those times, we were regarded as possessions, similar to cows or horses. There were even those who asserted that we were not equal to white individuals. When white people needed something, they did not ignore your presence; instead, they anticipated you to respond promptly and efficiently. There were instances when I had to rush in and out as expected. (Morgan, 1990, p. 336)

Indigenous women's life writing documents how Indigenous women were racialized and exploited by non-Indigenous people, and this was Doris Kartinyeri's experience as well.

Doris Kartinyeri was also required to work as a domestic servant when she was 14 years old, and she was moved between several white families' homes without notice from the Aboriginal Protection Board. She could not make her own choices, as she had to follow the orders of the Aboriginal Protection Board. The members of the Board never considered her feelings. Kartinyeri recalls when she was moved to work in another place.

Unthinkingly and without any explanation, I was relocated from the Edwardstown family to a residence in the hills near Colebrook, at Coromandel Valley. This transfer was yet another traumatic experience for me, leaving me feeling isolated. I resided in cold and dimly lit quarters, situated around thirty yards away from the main house. The nights were pitch dark, and the prospect of returning after completing dinner dishes frightened me. Despite my desire to leave, my age prevented me from doing so. Regrettably, I had no contact with my family, and the Protectors and Sister McKenzie left me with no one to reach out to. The absence of a guiding hand, which a child is meant to have, intensified the challenges I faced. (Kartinyeri, 2000, p. 61)

In domestic service, many Indigenous women were exploited and treated poorly by their white employers. They were oppressed and forced to submit to white power. This suggests that they were not 'protected' by those who controlled them. Indigenous women's domestic servants were powerless against white people, and white women exercised their power over Indigenous women. As Huggins asserts, Indigenous women domestic servants discovered that their female 'boss' could mistreat them since Indigenous women workers had lower status (Huggins, 1998, p. 30). They also commonly experienced physical violence, such as beatings (Huggins, 1998).

The powerless condition of Indigenous women servants also meant that they became sexual objects of white men. Brook points out that the term 'lubra', an insulting term for Indigenous women, refers to Indigenous women as sex objects (Huggins, 1995, p. 124). Many of them experienced sexual abuse or were raped. Doris Kartinyeri recalls her experience when she worked as a domestic servant as follows:

In this instance, a lay minister of the church subjected me to constant exposure, particularly at night, when I could hear him at my bedroom window. The fear of him attempting to enter my room paralyzed me with fright. I hesitated to confide in his wife, knowing she wouldn't believe me. He pressured me to go to the dairy shed, and recalling this incites anger within me. I felt utterly alone, overwhelmed by sadness, shame, and pain. His persistent acts of exposure and masturbation inflicted deep wounds. In a horrifying violation of my vulnerability, he forced me onto his marital bed, leaving me stripped of my pride. (Kartinyeri, 2000, pp. 61-62)

Indigenous women who faced sexual exploitation while in domestic service, according to Huggins (1998), had no refuge because the rules were dictated by white individuals. Moreton-Robinson (2002, p. 7) contends that the rising number of Indigenous 'mixed-blood children' resulted from instances of white males raping or engaging in sexual contact with Indigenous women. In an interview of Huggins (1998, p. 15), Marnie Kennedy, an Indigenous domestic servant, expressed the obligation to obey, work diligently, comply with orders, and be used as the white man desired. She stated, 'When he wanted a bit of lovin', we were 'black velvet'. Additionally, Rita Huggins, Jackie Huggins's mother, affirmed that the masters believed their right to Indigenous women's services excused them from attempting to use their bodies (Huggins, 1998, p. 16). The requirement for Indigenous women to 'save themselves for marriage' rested

on the assumption that it was the women's sexual behavior, rather than their white male employers, that was deemed uncontrollable.

Indigenous women's life writing serves as a testament to how those in domestic service endured harsh and subordinate conditions. Their past experiences offer valuable lessons for succeeding generations of Indigenous women, empowering them to reclaim agency. This underscores the potential for Indigenous people to unearth untold aspects of history through personal narratives, fostering new understandings of historical injustices. Kartinyeri's (2000, p. 1) narrative represents a form of 'healing' from her challenging past, as she notes, 'My healing began when I decided to write my autobiography'. Actively involved with the Blackwood Reconciliation group, Kartinyeri played a significant role in promoting mutual comprehension between Indigenous and non-Indigenous communities regarding the Stolen Generations. At Colebrook, a monument stands as a symbol representing the experiences of the children who were taken away from their families and lived there (Kartinyeri, 2000). In her final chapter, Kartinyeri (2000, p. 135) states, 'I walk with dignity... I believe that I am only now coming to terms with all that I endured in the past'.

For Indigenous women, life writing serves as a means of reclaiming and reorganizing the past, functioning both as a counter-history and a way to challenge the dominant culture's misrepresentation of Indigenous identity. Moreover, reclaiming the past and giving voice to the stolen children serves as a method of bearing witness to the cultural trauma experienced by Indigenous families and communities since colonization.

Undoubtedly, the processes of removal and assimilation further entrenched the perceived 'racial inferiority' and social disadvantages experienced by Indigenous people, particularly Indigenous women. From an early age, these women were categorized in terms of both their inferior race and gender, positioning them as unskilled workers within the white community. Rorintulus (2018), Rorintulus et al. (2022), Pilcher and Whelehan (2004) elucidate that gender encompasses the distinct roles, functions, and characteristics socially and culturally ascribed to females and males. Gender is an inseparable concept from the ongoing social processes that create distinctions between the sexes. In this context, Brook, as cited in Harrison (2008), contends that the gendered construction of Indigenous women cannot be divorced from race in Australia. Consequently, as argued by Tonkinson (1990), Indigenous women were 'disadvantaged' as they were perceived by white individuals primarily as domestic workers and objects of sexual desire, resulting in a loss of ground as negotiators for equal rights.

The portrayal of Indigenous women as inferior was intertwined with white people's perceptions, constructing their gendered status as domestic servants within the white community. According to Brook, Indigenous women were not considered to possess 'white' feminine values, such as physical or moral hygiene, from the perspective of white women. White males regarded them as a type of 'sexual animal' devoid of 'human feelings' (Huggins, 1998, p. 123). Additionally, Kilic (1994) asserts that:

Black women were universally regarded as almost worthless, applicable only as either servants or prostitutes and were regarded as being outside white social structures. Such views and systematic exploitation of black women as domestic laborers for white women continued until the 1960s and sit uneasily in the memory of many Aboriginal women alive today. (Kilic, 1994, p. 45)

This suggests that Indigenous women were valueless and were considered helpful in being domestic servants.

IV. CONCLUSION

The story of Doris Kartinyeri reveals gender discrimination against Indigenous women of Australia who belong to the stolen generation and raises awareness dealing with the inferior gender role as conditioned through the assimilation program. They were positioned and treated as domestic servants and sexual objects. It challenges persistent misrepresentations of Indigenous women, which white people socially constructed.

Indigenous women's life writing shows that Indigenous women servants commonly experienced sexual, physical, and financial oppression under the rule of white male and female employers. They were powerless and had no rights, including the right to care for their children. White women exercised their power to control and subjugate Indigenous women through physical and verbal abuse, while white men sexually exploited Indigenous women. These conditions made Indigenous women servants vulnerable.

Indigenous women's life writing testifies to the personal and harsh experiences of Indigenous women servants, which were not recorded in historical texts. It also shows how Indigenous women servants could survive the past challenging conditions that positioned them as inferior and valueless in the dominant white community. Their testimony can be used to empower the new generation of Indigenous women today, as well as to teach Indigenous people and non-Indigenous people about the past to ensure a better future for Indigenous people in Australia.

REFERENCES

- [1] Beresford, Q., & Omaji, P. (1998). *Our State of Mind: Racial Planning and the Stolen Generations*. Fremantle Arts Centre Press, Western Australia.
- [2] Buti, A. D. (2004). *Separated*. Sydney Institute of Criminology Monograph, Sydney.
- [3] Edwards, C., & Read, P. (1992). *Lost Children: Thirteen Australians Taken from Their Aboriginal Families Tell of the Struggle to Find Their Natural Parents*. Doubleday, Sydney.
- [4] Haebich, A. (2000). *Broken Circles*. Fremantle Arts Centre Press, Western Australia.

- [5] Harrison, J. (2008). *My journey through stolen, in Just Words? : Australian Authors Writing For Justice*. University of Queensland Press, Queensland.
- [6] Holmes, M. (2007). *What is Gender? Sociological Approaches*. SAGE Publication, London.
- [7] Hosking, S. (2004). *Homeless at home, stolen and saved: three Colebrook autobiographies*, in *The Regenerative Spirit: (Un)settling, (Dis) locations, (Post-) colonial, (Re)presentations – Australian Post – Colonial Reflections*, eds. Lythrum Press, Adelaide.
- [8] HREOC. (1997). *Bringing Them Home: Report of the National Inquiry into the Separation of Aboriginal and Torres Strait Islander Children from Their Families*. Commonwealth of Australia, Sydney.
- [9] Huggins, J. (1995). *White aprons, black hands: Aboriginal women domestic Servants in Queensland*. Australian Society for the Study of Labour History, Sydney.
- [10] Huggins, J. (1998). *Sister Girl*. University of Queensland Press, Queensland.
- [11] Kartinyeri, D. E. (2000). *Kick the Tin*. Spinifex Press Pty Ltd, Victoria.
- [12] Kilic, S. (1994). 'Who is an Australian woman?', in *Contemporary Australian Feminism, 2nd ed*, ed. Longman, Melbourne.
- [13] Maher, J. M., Charles, N., & Wolkowitz, C. (2019). Working mothers, injury and embodied care work. *Gender, Work & Organization*, 26(7), 877–894. <https://doi.org/10.1111/GWAO.12270>
- [14] Mellor, D., & Haebich, A. (2002). *Many Voices: Reflections on Experiences of Indigenous Child Separation*. National Library of Australia, Canberra.
- [15] Mohammed, A. B., & Berzenji, L. (2022). The stolen generation and its effects upon identity of the Aboriginal people in Sally Morgan's *My Place*. *Resmilitaris*, 12(2), 5315–5327. <https://resmilitaris.net/menu-script/index.php/resmilitaris/article/view/666>
- [16] Moreton-Robinson, A. (2002). *Talkin' up to the White Woman: Indigenous Women and Feminism*. University of Queensland Press, Queensland.
- [17] Morgan, S. (1990). *My Place*. Fremantle Arts Centre Press, Western Australia.
- [18] Pettman, J. (1992). *Living in the Margin: Racism, Sexism and Feminism in Australia*. Allen & Unwin, NSW.
- [19] Pilcher, J., & Whelehan, I. (2004). *50 Key Concepts in Gender Studies*. SAGE Publications, London.
- [20] Polak, I. (2020). Native Apocalypse in Claire G. Coleman's *The Old Lie*. *Humanities* 2020, Vol. 9, Page 69, 9(3), 69. <https://doi.org/10.3390/H9030069>
- [21] Rajapandi, M., Hariharasudan, A., Gurusamy, K., & Pandeewari, D. (2022). The Analytical Reading Discourse of Liberal Feminism in Bernardine Evaristo's *Girl, Woman, Other* through Black Women in Different Generations. *World Journal of English Language*, 12(2), 47–54. <https://doi.org/doi:10.5430/wjel.v12n2p47>
- [22] Rorintulus, O. (2018). Gender Equality And Women's Power In American Indian Traditional Culture In Zitkala-Sa's Short Stories. *Humanus*, 17(2), 138–149.
- [23] Rorintulus, O. A., Wuntu, C. N., Tatipang, D. P., Lolowang, I., & Maukar, M. (2022). Discrimination Over Women As Depicted In Walker's And Tohari's Work: A Comparative Study. *ELITE: English and Literature Journal*, 9(2), 159–177.
- [24] Schaffer, K., & Smith, S. (2004). *Human Rights and Narrated Lives: The Ethics of Recognition*. Palgrave Macmillan, New York.
- [25] Singh, A. (2021). *Staging Feminisms: Gender, Violence and Performance in Contemporary India*. Taylor & Francis.
- [26] Smith, C. (2004). *Country, Kin, and Culture: Survival of an Australian Aboriginal Community*. Wakefield Press, South Australia.
- [27] Stuckey-French, N. (2018). *Teaching the Personal Essay in the Digital Age*. Suny Press.
- [28] Tonkinson, R. (1990). *The changing status of Aboriginal women*, in *Going it Alone?* (R. T. & M. Howard (ed.)). Aboriginal Studies Press, Canberra.
- [29] Tucker, M. (1977). *If Everyone Cared: Autobiography of Margaret Tucker*. Grosvenor Books, Melbourne.
- [30] Yigitbilek, D. (2022). Translanguaging Life Writing: "Auto"biography-Driven Writing Instruction. *TESL-EJ*, 26(3). <https://doi.org/10.55593/ej.26103a7>



Olga A. Rorintulus is an associate professor and senior lecturer in Universitas Negeri Manado, Indonesia. She earned her Doctoral degree in American Studies from Universitas Gadjah Mada, Magister degree in American Studies from Universitas Gadjah Mada, Indonesia and Magister degree in Women Studies from Flinders University, Australia, her Bachelor degree in English Education from Universitas Negeri Manado. Her research interests are in the areas of Literature, Gender, Women Studies, Literary Theory in ELT.



Nur Saktiningrum is a lecturer in the Faculty of Cultural Sciences, Universitas Gadjah Mada. She is teaching literature at the English Study Program and American Studies Graduate Programs. She projected her thesis and dissertation on religion and religiosity in literature which then became the foundation of her research adventures. Up to present, she focuses her research on American literature and culture. She has attended various national/international conferences, presenting her papers on American/English literature and culture as well as promoting Indonesian culture. She has published several articles and book chapters on her field. Currently she is on her second term as the Vice Dean of Academic and Students Affairs at the Faculty of Cultural Sciences, Universitas Gadjah Mada, Yogyakarta.



Ceisy Nita Wuntu is an associate professor at the English Education Department, Faculty of Languages and Arts at Universitas Negeri Manado. She obtained her first degree from Universitas Negeri Manado in 1989, followed by a Master of Humanities and a Doctoral degree from Gadjah Mada University in 1996. With publications in various national accredited and reputable international journals, Dr. Wuntu is recognized for her research in Environmental Literature, Cross-Cultural Communication, Popular Literature, Literary Criticism, and Literary Theory in ELT. Dr. Wuntu also serves as the Head of the Master of English Education Study Program at Universitas Negeri Manado since 2020.



Muhd. Al Hafizh, currently Associate Professor in Literary Studies in English Department Faculty of Languages and Arts, Universitas Negeri Padang with more than 22 years of experience in teaching graduate students and researcher. He obtained his Sarjana Sastra from Universitas Andalas, obtained his Master of Arts and Dr in English Literature from Universitas Gadjah Mada. His research interests are about Literary Criticism, Young adult Literature, and Postcolonial Studies.



Agustine Clara Mamentu, currently a lecturer who teaches English literature at the English Language and Literature Study Program at Manado State University. She earned her magister degree in American Studies at Gadjah University.

Do They Write Differently? Exploring Gendered Linguistic Differences in Academic Writings of Saudi Writers

Sadia Ali*

Department of English, College of Science and Humanities, Prince Sattam bin Abdulaziz University, Al-Kharj,
Kingdom of Saudi Arabia

Ebtesam Abdulhaleem

English Language Skills Department, First Common Year, King Saud University, Riyadh, Kingdom of Saudi Arabia

Abstract—This study examines linguistic differences between male and female academic writing in Saudi Arabia, focusing on published research papers. Using Biber's multidimensional analysis as a model, the study examines both male and female authors' inherent lexical and grammatical preferences. A dataset of 20 research papers from each gender was tagged to analyze the linguistic features. ANOVA analyses were then conducted to identify patterns and variations. The research study provides interesting perspectives on the complex relationship between language and gender in academic settings. Though there are some similarities in the use of lexico-grammatical features between male and female research papers, noticeable differences suggest that gendered perspectives have an impact on scholarly writing. Both male and female research papers fall on the same polarity of the continuum across all five dimensions but with varying degrees. The findings suggest that male research writers tend to use more informational, explicit, and non-argumentative language while using less non-narrative and abstract discourse than their female counterparts. This study emphasizes how gender impacts the linguistic choices.

Index Terms—corpus, gender, linguistic variation, multidimensional analysis, Saudi academic writing

I. INTRODUCTION

Language is a complex and ever-changing tool that reflects various sociocultural factors influencing its form and function. Many studies have shown the profound influence of social norms, cultural shades, and individual identities on linguistic expression (Eckert, 2019; Bucholtz & Hall, 2005). Nonetheless, the determination of these factors shows that gender has been discussed regarding the complexity of language affairs, where gender relations are discussed in terms of what happens with language both within and across it (Aikhenvald 2016; Bergvall 2014; Coates 2015; Litosseliti 2014).

In academic discourse, research papers provide a unique avenue where the language attitudes embody the author's professionalism and other general sociocultural factors (Hyland, 2021; Douglas, 2016; Maringe & Carter, 2007). Saudi Arabia, as a multicultural nation with a developing gender relations context, offers researchers an opportunity to investigate the gendered linguistic differences in academic writing (Waterkeyn, 2021; Sulaimani & Elyas, 2017; Alsubhi, 2016; Alsweel, 2013). Although extensive research has been carried out on culture and society and their influence on language (Bonnell & Hunt, 2023; Soh, 2020; Dixon et al., 2012), little is known about how female and male Saudi scholars express themselves from a gender perspective.

This research investigates Saudi male and female papers' linguistic features considering dimensions developed by Biber. Biber's multidimensional framework enables a comprehensive analysis of the lexico-grammatical tendencies of language use in academics. Hence, the proposed study will be of tremendous importance in the ongoing discourse in sociolinguistics and gender analysis since it analyses the language of both genders.

To fill this gap, the current research intends to compare and contrast male and female Saudi researchers' academic writing language. Its research questions focus on how women's role in academia has evolved regarding Saudi Vision 2030. Therefore, this research can be useful in establishing the basis for further research as it looks at the language used among the two genders. Thus, the findings of the present study give the researchers an understanding of the linguistic features in different cultural and educational settings. It gives a view of how gender impacts academic writing. Further, this research overviews the complex relationship between gender and language. It emphasizes the importance of having a more comprehensive knowledge of language variety in educational contexts. In conclusion, this study provides insight into how gender and linguistic choices are connected.

* Corresponding Author. Email: sad.ali@psau.edu.sa

II. LITERATURE REVIEW

The relationship between gender and language is an area of interest for scholars, especially in the context of academic writing. Initially, studies suggested that there were distinct linguistic patterns between men and women, mainly influenced by social, cultural, and gender norms and expectations. However, the social roles of the language have changed, and people became not only aware of the differences but also appreciated the specificity of different varieties. In this regard, academic writing emerged as a severe concern in post-secondary education for academic researchers.

The analysis of academic writing is one of the most investigated topics. Coates' (2015) work found that men and women use different language strategies to reinforce or soften the given statement. It is believed that women are likely to use more hedging or politeness. At the same time, men are likely to be more assertive regarding communication, which corresponds with the power relations in society. Further, Holmes (1990) carried out an analysis of the conversational data where he pointed out that tag questions and hedges had gendered features. Women employed tag questions to confirm information or the opinion of the other speaker, while men employed tag questions less frequently and in different contexts.

Baker (2012) analyzed British National Corpus (BNC) and noted certain words concerning the particular gender. For example, men incorporated more aspects connected to work and success into their texts than women; women, in turn, referred to family and emotions more often than men. Mulac et al. (2013), in a similar study that included both experimental and corpus data, found out that women's use of such language was deemed more likeable though less competent.

It has been found through research that even though some gendered linguistic patterns are embedded, it is still possible to realize change in language use. For example, research on 'up talk', or high-rising terminals, has demonstrated shifting practices of this so-called women's style of speech to cross-gender communication and varying contexts (Tyler 2015). In the same way, the corpus studies have revealed how the media language reinforces gender stereotypes. Tools such as the Corpus of Contemporary American English (COCA) have revealed biased representations in media discourse, with a particular focus on sports reportage (Aull & Brown, 2013).

Current theoretical frameworks and research strategies in linguistics have benefited significantly and have been directed by Biber's (1991) Multidimensional Analysis. As such, this perspective of linguistic analysis emphasizes the fact that to consider all of the variables effectively, one must adopt a broad view of language that includes all of its aspects, both micro and macro, ranging from word choice and syntax to the overall organization of discourses and the use of various types of rhetoric. These concerns may be, for example, aimed at providing the students with a better and broader understanding of the language variations, idiosyncrasies, and features within a wide range of genres, registers, and contexts, which is possible in the framework of an integrated approach to the teaching of English (Biber & Conrad, 2009).

Numerous academic studies have been conducted to investigate and clarify the various linguistic features, trends, and patterns observed in research papers written by scholars from different cultural, disciplinary, and geographic backgrounds (Hyland et al., 2022; Sulaimani & Elyas, 2017; Alsubhi, 2016; Alsweel, 2013). However, there is a lack of research which can help identify the differences and distinctions between the papers written by female and male Saudi researchers in otherwise overlapping fields and the precise language use, choice of lexemes and phrases in the sources within the specific Saudi socio-linguistic, academic and cultural setting.

The rigorous scholarly research (Bonnell & Hunt, 2023; Soh, 2020; Dixon et al., 2012) has provided scientific outcomes and apprehensions that correspond to the theory, paradigm and research paths which exist and which are based on the variations and impacts of the societal, cultural and gender factors on speaking and writing, and also on the discursive practices. Moreover, these studies have made a ground-breaking contribution by expertly leveraging and deploying Biber's multidimensional analytical framework and paradigmatic lens.

Previous studies have utilized Biber's multidimensional analytical framework to analyze female and male written language gender patterns as well as sociocultural factors and academic writing practices. All these studies have greatly helped enhance and expand the general literature on this topic. Many researchers, including Ali (2024), Abdulhaleem and Ali (2024), Ali, S. and Ali, M. (2023), Omidian (2021), Staples (2016), Biber (2006), and Gray and Biber (2018) presented new and relevant ideas in this field studying multicultural contexts, environments, and literary landscapes.

Studies using corpora have been essential in helping understand the intricate connection between gender and language. The works under discussion shed light on the topic of gender differences in language use and the role of social relations in this context. The availability of larger datasets and improved research techniques have offered new possibilities for the study, challenging traditional assumptions and revealing the complex relationships between gender and language. Although there are some recent studies which focus on the differences in languages used by female and male Saudi students, the need to carry out an analysis of the different dimensions of academic writing of this group is very significant.

This study aims to conduct a detailed analysis of academic publications from Saudi research writers. The study will look at these publications' linguistic variations and patterns. The objective is to clarify the complex relationship among gender and academic writing in the particular setting of Saudi Arabia.

III. METHODOLOGY

This research study aims to analyze the differences in language use between Saudi male and female academic writers in their published research papers. The study uses a quantitative research method, and the data size used is an equal number of twenty research papers written by male authors and another twenty written by female authors. The sources had to be, therefore, of high quality, and only research journals and reliable databases were considered. Articles published in the previous three years were randomly selected for inclusion. The text files ranged in length from 4000 to 7000 words, but a procedure known as normalization was applied to bring them down to 1000 words (Biber, 1991). The raw word counts are normalized per 1000 words to provide an accurate comparison. For instance, an analysis of the adjective usage in Texts I and III revealed that while Text II contained more adjectives overall, Text I had a greater frequency of adjective usage per 1000 words.

Text I: (20 adjectives / 1,000 words) $\times$ 1,000 = 20 (adjectives)

Text II: (30 adjectives / 2,000 words) $\times$ 1,000 = 15 (adjectives)

Text III: (20 adjectives / 1,330 words) $\times$ 1,000 = 15 (adjectives) (Biber, 1988, p. 76)

Therefore, in the present study, the same standard was used to normalize the raw frequency count for the process of computation. For the consideration of the linguistic characteristics in the identified research articles, Biber's specialized tool for multidimensional analysis was used. This tool allows for the consideration and analysis of a wide range of aspects of language: lexical and grammatical preferences. Specific grammatical, syntactic, and lexical variables determined in the research included lexical density and richness. The gender of the author (male or female) served as the independent variable to examine its influence on linguistic expression in academic writing.

Due to the divergence of the results that the gender of the authors might have on the language use, we use the Analysis of Variance (ANOVA) test. This statistical method enabled the researchers to compare the means of different groups and test for significance between the means. To protect confidentiality and prevent biases, all research papers were anonymized before analysis.

This study has some limitations also. The results are based solely on academic research papers from Saudi Arabia and cannot be generalized to other contexts or genres. Despite these limitations, this study provides valuable insights into the broader discourse on language and gender within academic settings by using a structured approach to analyze the linguistic differences between female and male academic writings in the KSA.

The tagger assigned a grammatical function to each word in all the text files of the male and female writing corpus. Below is an example of an extract from the corpus along with its tagged version.

More ideas are represented in this article pertaining to the uses, impact, and challenges of nano-learning in education, where social and communication technologies have changed the bases on which the knowledge and learning are based and constructed.

IV. ANALYSIS AND DISCUSSION

The lexico-grammatical patterns employed by male and female research writers are analyzed in this article. To find any possible variations or parallels in the writing preferences and styles of male and female research paper writers, this study compares each group's vocabulary, syntax, and semantic choices. The analysis, which focuses on academic language used by male and female writers, is based on more than 150 linguistic features.

"Involved vs. Informational discourse" is the first dimension. It includes positive language features such the deletion of "that," verbs (imperative, uninflected present, and third person), First-person pronoun/possessive, Verb 'Be', Adverb/Qualifier-Emphatic, Demonstrative Pronoun, Modals of Possibility, Verb 'Do', Second-person pronoun/possessive, Adverb/Qualifier-Emphatic, Co-ordinating conjunction-clausal connector, & Wh-clause and negative linguistic features such as Nouns, Attributive Adjective and Preposition. The distribution of these characteristics is complementary to one another.

The mean scores for the linguistic traits utilized by male and female writers are displayed in table 1. The findings show that compared to female writers, male writers use more nouns, prepositions, and adjectives.

TABLE 1
LINGUISTIC VARIATION BETWEEN MALE AND FEMALE WRITERS' RESEARCH PAPERS ON DIMENSION 1
Descriptive
Dimension 1

	N	Mean	Std. Dev	Std. Err	95% CIM Lower Bound
Male	20	-17.3130	3.07971	.68864	-18.7543
Female	20	-16.4370	4.71886	1.05517	-18.6455
Total	40	-16.8750	3.95800	.62582	-18.1408
Model					
Fixed Effects			3.98448	.63000	-18.1504
Random Effects				.63000a	-24.8799a

The study's findings contrast Simon's (2021) finding that male and female college students utilize more adjectives in their academic writing. The writings of male students, with a mean score of -17.31, are more informational than those of female writers (16.43).

Verb-perfect Aspect, Third-person pronouns, and Past Tense Verbs show the presence of narrative discourse on the second dimension. In contrast, on negative polarity features like Present Tense verb, Place adverbial, That deletion, and Pronoun 'it' indicate the presence of non-narrative discourse.

Table 2 shows that female research writers use more past tense verbs, third-person pronouns (except 'it'), and verb-perfect aspects than male research writers.

TABLE 2
LINGUISTIC VARIATION BETWEEN MALE AND FEMALE WRITERS' RESEARCH PAPERS ON DIMENSION 2
Descriptives
Dimension 2

	N	Mean	Std. Dev	Std. Err	95% CIM Lower Bound
Male	20	-2.2085	1.71065	.38251	-3.0091
Female	20	-2.7730	1.09035	.24381	-3.2833
Total	40	-2.4908	1.44449	.22839	-2.9527
Model			1.43443	.22680	-2.9499
Fixed Effects					
Random Effects				.28225	-6.0771

Female research writers, with a mean score of -2.77, use more narrative language than male researchers (-2.20). The study's results conform with Hartshorne and Ullman's (2005) study that indicates that gender can be a factor which impacts the acquisition and computation of language, and further, they elaborate that females are better than males at verbal memory tasks. Hence, they use more past tense verbs.

Dimension 3, titled "Explicit versus Situation Dependent Discourse," has the following features: Wh-pronoun-relative clause-subject position, Wh-pronoun-relative clause-object position, conjunction-phrasal coordination, singular noun-nominalization, and prepositional fronting. In contrast, on negative polarity, linguistic features like the Adverb of place, the Adverb of time, and the Adverb of Other create the presence of situation-dependent discourse. The result of the study indicates that both male and female writers produce explicit discourse but on a varying discourse.

TABLE 3
LINGUISTIC VARIATION BETWEEN MALE AND FEMALE WRITERS' RESEARCH PAPERS ON DIMENSION 3
Descriptives
Dimension 3

	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error	95% Confidence Interval for Mean Lower Bound
Male	20	8.5575	2.05509	.45953	7.5957
Female	20	7.5700	2.61285	.58425	6.3471
Total	40	8.0638	2.37351	.37529	7.3047
Model			2.35058	.37166	7.3114
Fixed Effects					
Random Effects				.49375	1.7901

Table 3 indicates that male writers, with a mean score of 8.55, use more explicit discourse than female writers (7.57). Although there is little difference in clear discourse production by males and females, they produce explicit discourse to varying degrees. In contrast, the study of Mondorf (2011) suggests that men and women use adverbial clauses (the features associated with situation-dependent discourse) in their language. Still, women tend to be prolific users of adverbial clauses compared to men.

Dimension 4 is named 'Overt Expression of Argumentation /Persuasion' by Biber (1991), and it only consists of positive features (Adverb within auxiliary, Modal of Prediction, Infinitive Verb, Persuasive Verb, Modal of Necessity, and Subordinating conjunction-conditional). However, the result of the present study indicates that both men and women produce non-argumentative discourse on this dimension. Linguistic features like Private verbs, Public verbs, Third-person pronouns, and Hedges mark the presence of non-argumentative discourse on this dimension.

In comparison with Engstrom's (2018) study, where the results indicate that female writers use more hedges than men, the results of Table 4 indicate that male writers (-2.73) produce more non-argumentative discourse than female writers (-2.25).

TABLE 4
LINGUISTIC VARIATION BETWEEN MALE AND FEMALE WRITERS' RESEARCH PAPERS ON DIMENSION 4
Descriptives
Dimension 4

	N	Mean	Std. Dev	Std. Err	95% CIM Lower Bound
Male	20	-2.7335	2.09041	.46743	-3.7118
Female	20	-2.2525	1.68498	.37677	-3.0411
Total	40	-2.4930	1.88981	.29881	-3.0974
Model			1.89855	.30019	-3.1007
Fixed Effects					
Random Effects				.30019a	-6.3072a

Positive linguistic features include Passive Post-nominal modifiers, Agentless Passive verbs, Passive verb + by, Adverbial-conjuncts, and Subordinating Conjunction-Other fall on the positive polarity of Dimension 5, i.e., "Impersonal (Abstract) vs Non-impersonal (Non-Abstract Style)". There was no linguistic feature on negative polarity in Biber's 1991 study. The results of the present study also indicate that there are no negative features on this dimension. The findings of this study show that both males and females produce abstract discourse in their writings.

TABLE 5
LINGUISTIC VARIATION BETWEEN MALE AND FEMALE WRITERS' RESEARCH PAPERS ON DIMENSION 5
Descriptives
Dimension 5

	N	Mean	Std. Dev	Std. Err	95% CIM Lower Bound
Male	20	4.0875	2.16670	.48449	3.0735
Female	20	5.1545	1.99820	.44681	4.2193
Total	40	4.6210	2.12703	.33631	3.9407
Model					
Fixed Effects			2.08415	.32953	3.9539
Random Effects				.53350	-2.1578

Table 5 provides an insight into the preferred writing styles of male and female writers. Boettger and Wulff (2019) think that the overuse of passive voice is associated with a lack of writing clarity and concision. The results indicate that female writers with a mean score of 5.15 tend to use passive voice more frequently than males 4.08. Overall, the study results on all five dimensions indicate that though the writings of both female and male researchers fall on the same side of the continuum of each dimension, they vary considerably.

V. CONCLUSION

The research shows a comprehensive comparison about the linguistic characteristics that male and female writers employ in five textual dimensions. It provides statistical evidence of the choices which male and female writers make while using lexico-grammatical features. They use these features to different degrees.

This study clarifies the connection between gender and the use of language. The linguistic patterns used by male and female writers differ. The results indicate that while female researchers write less non-narrative and abstract discourse, male researchers prefer more explicit, informative, and non-argumentative language. Numerous factors, including socialisation, cultural influences, and individual writing styles, may cause these variances.

The results of the study demonstrate how gender has a multifaceted influence on language use. It is crucial to acknowledge that people of each gender use language differently. Both genders use a wide variety of linguistic traits; however, their frequency of usage varies.

The fundamental causes of these gender-based variations in language use can be investigated by further research in this field. This study provides sufficient evidence that there are sufficient linguistic differences between both genders. Further, more studies can be conducted to investigate the cause of these linguistic variations. We can better understand the complex interaction between gender and linguistic choices by looking at other factors such as genres, registers, and individual traits.

APPENDIX

CO-OCCURRING LINGUISTIC FEATURES ON FIVE TEXTUAL DIMENSIONS OF 1991 MD ANALYSIS

Dimension 1: Involved vs. Informational Discourse	Dimension 3: Explicit vs. Situation Dependent Discourse
Positive Feature 'That' deletion Verb (uninflected present, imperative & third Person) Second Person pronoun/Possessive Verb 'Do' Demonstrative Pronoun Adverb/Qualifier-Emphatic (e.g., just, really) First-person pronoun/possessive Verb 'Be' (uninflected present tense, verb, and auxiliary) Sub-ordinating Conjunction-Causative Discourse Particle Nominal Pronoun Adverbial –Hedge Adverbial/Qualifier-Amplifier Wh-question Modals of Possibility Co-ordinating conjunction-clausal connector Wh-clause	Positive Feature Wh-pronoun-relative clause-object position Wh-pronoun-relative clause-subject- position Wh-pronoun-relative clause-object position With prepositional fronting (pied-piping) Nominalization Coordinating Conjunction –phrasal connector Singular noun-nominalization
Negative Features Nouns (excluding gerund) Preposition Attributive Adjective	Negative Features Adverb of time Adverb of Place Adverb Other
Dimension 2: Narrative vs. Non-narrative Concerns	Dimension 4: Overt Expression of Argumentation /Persuasion
Positive Feature Past Tense Verb Third-person pronoun (except 'it') Verb-perfect Aspect	Positive Features Infinitive Verb Modal of Prediction Persuasive Verb Subordinating conjunction-conditional Modal of Necessity Adverb within auxiliary
Negative Features Present Tense verb Place adverbial That deletion Pronoun 'it'	Negative Features Private verb Public verb Third-person pronoun Hedges
	Dimension 5: Impersonal (Abstract) VS. Non-impersonal (Non-Abstract Style)
	Positive Features Adverbial-conjuncts Agentless Passive verb Passive verb + by Passive Post-nominal modifier Subordinating conjunction-Other
	Negative Features (no negative features)

ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

This study is supported via funding from Prince Sattam bin Abdulaziz University project number (PSAU/2024/R/1445).

REFERENCES

- [1] Abdulhaleem, E., & Ali, S. (2024). Exploring Lexico-grammatical Patterns in Doctoral Dissertations: A Multidimensional Analysis. *World Journal of English Language*, 14(3), 162-169. <https://doi.org/10.5430/wjel.v14n3p162>
- [2] Aikhenvald, A. Y. (2016). *How gender shapes the world*. Oxford University Press.
- [3] Ali, S. (2024). A Multidimensional Analysis of Academic Writing: A Comparative Study of Saudi and British University Students' Writing. *World Journal of English Language*, 14(2), 452-462. <https://doi.org/10.5430/wjel.v14n2p452>
- [4] Ali, S., & Ali, M. (2023). Exploring Lexico-grammatical patterns in Saudi press reportage: A multidimensional analysis. *Arab World English Journal*. <https://doi.org/10.2139/ssrn.4432884>
- [5] Alsubhi, A. S. (2016). *Gender and metadiscourse in British and Saudi newspaper column writing: male/female and native/non-native differences in language use* [Doctoral dissertation]. Retrieved February 20, 2023, from <https://core.ac.uk/download/pdf/84073849.pdf>
- [6] Alsweel, R. A. (2013). *The impact of English as a second language on Saudi women's roles and identities* [Doctoral dissertation]. Retrieved December 20, 2023, from <https://mars.gmu.edu/server/api/core/bitstreams/db04f384-d1fa-4d2b-bbfd-2c9da60c758a/content>
- [7] Aull, L. L., & Brown, D. W. (2013). Fighting words: A corpus analysis of gender representations in sports reportage. *Corpora*, 8(1), 27-52. <https://doi.org/10.3366/cor.2013.0033>
- [8] Baker, P. (2012). Corpora and gender studies. *Corpus Applications in Applied Linguistics*, 100-116. <https://doi.org/10.5040/9781472541611.ch-007>

- [9] Bergvall, V. (2014). *Rethinking language and gender research: Theory and practice*. Routledge.
- [10] Biber, D. (1991). *Variation across speech and writing*. Cambridge University Press.
- [11] Biber, D., & Conrad, S. (2009). *Register, genre, and style*. Cambridge University Press.
- [12] Biber, D., Davies, M., Jones, J. K., & Tracy-Ventura, N. (2006). Spoken and written register variation in Spanish: A multi-dimensional analysis. *Corpora*, 1(1), 1-37. <https://doi.org/10.3366/cor.2006.1.1.1>
- [13] Boettger, R. K., & Wulff, S. (2019). Gender effects in student technical and scientific writing—A corpus-based study. *IEEE Transactions on Professional Communication*, 62(3), 239-252. <https://doi.org/10.1109/tpc.2019.2920029>
- [14] Bonnell, V. E., & Hunt, L. (2023). *Beyond the cultural turn: New directions in the study of society and culture*. University of California Press.
- [15] Bucholtz, M., & Hall, K. (2005). Identity and interaction: A sociocultural linguistic approach. *Discourse Studies*, 7(4-5), 585-614. <https://doi.org/10.1177/1461445605054407>
- [16] Coates, J. (2015). *Women, men and language: A sociolinguistic account of gender differences in language*. Routledge.
- [17] Dixon, L., Zhao, J., Quiroz, B. G., & Shin, J. (2012). Home and community factors influencing bilingual children's ethnic language vocabulary development. *International Journal of Bilingualism*, 16(4), 541-565. <https://doi.org/10.1177/1367006911429527>
- [18] Douglas, F. G. (2016). A Transdisciplinary framework for SLA in a multilingual world. *The Modern Language Journal*, 100(S1), 19-47. <https://doi.org/10.1111/modl.12301>
- [19] Eckert, P. (2019). *The limits of meaning: Social indexicality, variation, and the Cline of interiority*. Language. <https://doi.org/10.1353/lan.0.0239>
- [20] Engström, A. (2018). *I'm sure women use more hedges, I think: A study comparing male and female usage of hedges* [Master's thesis]. Retrieved February 10, 2024, from <https://urn.kb.se/resolve?urn=urn:nbn:se:hig:diva-26186>
- [21] Gray, B., & Biber, D. (2018). Academic writing as a locus of grammatical change. *Studies in Corpus Linguistics*, 117-146. <https://doi.org/10.1075/scl.85.06gra>
- [22] Hartshorne, J. K., & Ullman, M. T. (2005). Why girls say 'holded' more than boys. *Developmental Science*, 9(1), 21-32. <https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1467-7687.2005.00459.x>
- [23] Holmes, J. (1990). Hedges and boosters in women's and men's speech. *Language & Communication*, 10(3), 185-205. [https://doi.org/10.1016/0271-5309\(90\)90002-s](https://doi.org/10.1016/0271-5309(90)90002-s)
- [24] Hyland, K. (2021). *Teaching and researching writing*. Routledge.
- [25] Hyland, K., Wang, W., & (Kevin) Jiang, F. (2022). Metadiscourse across languages and genres: An overview. *Lingua*, 265, 103205. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.lingua.2021.103205>
- [26] Litosseliti, L. (2014). *Gender and language theory and practice*. Routledge.
- [27] Maringe, F., & Carter, S. (2007). International students' motivations for studying in UK HE. *International Journal of Educational Management*, 21(6), 459-475. <https://doi.org/10.1108/09513540710780000>
- [28] Mondorf, B. (2011). *Gender differences in English syntax*. Walter de Gruyter.
- [29] Mulac, A., Giles, H., Bradac, J. J., & Palomares, N. A. (2013). The gender-linked language effect: An empirical test of a general process model. *Language Sciences*, 38, 22-31. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.langsci.2012.12.004>
- [30] Omidian, T. (2021). *Multiple Perspectives On Writing For Research Publication Across Academic Fields* [Doctoral dissertation]. Retrieved January 10, 2024, from https://openaccess.wgtn.ac.nz/articles/thesis/Multiple_Perspectives_On_Writing_For_Research_Publication_Across_Academic_Fields/16840480
- [31] Simon, E. (2021). The Different Language Use between Male and Female University Students. *Lectio*, 1(1), 13-18. Retrieved February 5, 2024, from <https://journal.unwira.ac.id/index.php/LECTIO/article/download/371/313>
- [32] Soh, K. (2020). Language learning and culture teaching: Culture in language. *Teaching Chinese Language in Singapore*, 3-8. https://doi.org/10.1007/978-981-15-1149-3_1
- [33] Staples, S., Egbert, J., Biber, D., & Gray, B. (2016). Academic writing development at the University level. *Written Communication*, 33(2), 149-183. <https://doi.org/10.1177/0741088316631527>
- [34] Sulaimani, A., & Elyas, T. (2017). A Glocalized or globalized edition? Contextualizing gender representation in EFL textbooks in Saudi Arabia: A critical discourse analysis perspective. *Conceptual Shifts and Contextualized Practices in Education for Global Interaction*, 55-76. https://doi.org/10.1007/978-981-10-6421-0_4
- [35] Tyler, J. C. (2015). Expanding and mapping the indexical field. *Journal of English Linguistics*, 43(4), 284-310. <https://doi.org/10.1177/0075424215607061>
- [36] Waterkeyn, T. (2021). *Sociocultural impacts of English and globalisation on women in higher education in Saudi Arabia* [EdD dissertation]. Retrieved December 5, 2023, <https://oro.open.ac.uk/75499/>

Sadia Ali received her PhD in Linguistics & Literature from Air University, Islamabad, Pakistan, and is currently working as an Assistant Professor at Prince Sattam bin Abdulaziz University, Al-Kharj, KSA. She published research articles in internationally reputable journals and presented research papers in national and international research conferences. She is also serving as a reviewer for international academic journals of popular publishers. Her research interests include discourse analysis, genre studies, corpus linguistics, linguistic variations, ELT, ESP, World Englishes etc.

Ebtesam Abdulhaleem is an Assistant Professor in Applied Linguistics, with a specialization in language testing and assessment. Her research interests span language testing and assessment, corpus linguistics, and professional development for language teachers. Alongside her teaching and research duties, she has assumed several administrative and leadership positions, including Chair of the Scientific Research Unit and Vice Chair of the English Department. Her rich administrative background significantly shapes her

research agenda, which is dedicated to enhancing language assessment practices and fostering continuous professional growth among language educators.

A Syntactic and Discoursal Analysis of *hala?* 'Now' in Jordanian Arabic

Zeyad Al-Daher*

Department of English Language and Literature, Irbid University College, Al-Balqa Applied University, Irbid 1293,
Jordan

Othman Aref Al-Dala'ien

Department of English Language and Literature, Salt Faculty of Human Sciences, Al-Balqa Applied University, Al-Salt
19117, Jordan

Mohammad Al-Rousan

Department of English Language and Literature, Ajloun National University, Ajloun, Jordan

Meera B. Sahawneh

Department of English Language and Linguistics, Faculty of Science and Arts, Jordan University of Science and
Technology, Irbid 22110, Jordan

Saada Bader

Department of English Language and Linguistics, Faculty of Science and Arts, Jordan University of Science and
Technology, Irbid 22110, Jordan

Abstract—This study investigates the syntactic behavior and the discoursal roles of *hala?* in Jordanian Arabic, which corresponds to the English 'now' and is frequently used as a discourse marker. Specifically, the syntactic distribution of this discourse marker in everyday conversations, its function in establishing coherence between discourse units, and its communicative and discoursal meanings are scrutinized. The data necessary for the study was obtained from almost a 15-hour corpus of naturally-occurring conversations recorded by the researchers through 30 interviews with 80 (40 males and 40 females) Jordanian students from Al-Balqa Applied University. The data analysis revealed that *hala?* can be used as an adverb conveying temporal meaning and as a discourse marker conveying coherence-related meanings. Semantically, it is a temporal adverb that has a semantic meaning parallel to that of its English adverbial counterpart 'now'. However, it was found that *hala?* can also serve six pragmatic functions: Changing a topic, introducing a contrast or comparison, marking disagreement, initiating reasons, explanations or clarifications, listing, and marking shifts in participation framework (Marking a change in the speaker's orientation and marking a change of footing). The study concludes with a suggested grammaticalization path for the development of this discourse marker from a lexical source.

Index Terms—discourse marker, grammaticalization, *hala?*, Jordanian Arabic, multi-functionality

I. INTRODUCTION

Discourse markers refer to elements like 'well', 'so', 'okay', 'oh', 'but', 'I mean', 'you know', etc. Such elements were viewed at a certain point as redundant and superfluous expressions by some scholars (e.g., Goddard & Patterson, 2000, p. 98). However, since the late 1980s, the study of discourse markers has been considered a "growth industry in linguistics" (Fraser, 1999, p. 931), which can be taken as evidence for their manifold significance. The definition, functions and characteristics of discourse markers in different languages have been approached by several scholars from different perspectives (see, e.g., Fraser, 1999; Muller, 2005; Schourup, 1999; Aijmer, 2002; Blakemore, 1987; Halliday & Hasan, 1976; Schiffrin, 1987; inter alia).

A large collection of nomenclatures and definitions can be detected in the literature for this linguistic phenomenon. For example, the following labels have been assigned to these elements in the literature: Pragmatic Markers (Andersen, 2001; Fraser, 1993, 1999; Brinton, 1996), Pragmatic Particles (Östman, 1981), Pragmatic Expressions (Erman, 1987), Discourse Connectives (Blakemore, 1987, 1989), Conjunctions or conjunctive adjuncts/expressions (Halliday & Hasan, 1976), Discourse Operators (Redeker, 1991), and Discourse Particles (Aijmer, 2002).

Also, abundant definitions were devised by different researchers to describe this linguistic phenomenon. Schiffrin (1987, p. 31), for instance, defines discourse markers as "sequentially dependent elements which bracket units of talk"

* Corresponding Author. Email: aldaherz@bau.edu.jo

that are employed by the speakers to show the relationship between the present discourse and the upcoming unit of discourse. Redeker (1991, p. 1168) defines discourse markers as “words or phrases that are uttered with the primary function of bringing to the listener’s attention a particular kind of linkage of the upcoming utterance with the immediate discourse context”. One more quite comprehensive definition of discourse markers is given by Fraser (1999, p. 831) who defines them as “A class of lexical expressions that signal a relationship between the interpretation of the segment they introduce, S2, and the prior segment, S1”.

Albeit the variation in the definitions and terms used to describe such linguistic elements, the term “discourse markers” is the most widely adopted one (Muller, 2005; Aijmer, 2002; Schourup, 1999). This can be partly attributed to the influence of Schifffrin’s (1987) seminal work on this phenomenon which adopted this term. Accordingly, the term discourse markers (DMs, henceforward) is adopted throughout the current paper.

The numerous names given to these linguistic elements can be suggestive of the multiplicity of functions DMs can serve. It is broadly assumed that DMs are multifunctional/polyfunctional in the sense that they can serve more than one function based on the context where they are employed (Muller, 2005; Fraser, 1999; Aijmer, 2002; Lenk, 1998; Schifffrin, 1987).

DMs can have textual and interpersonal functions. Textually, DMs imply “a sequential relationship between the current basic message and the previous discourse” (Brinton, 1996, p. 17). So, DMs function to connect the old information to the new information in a way that enables the hearer to capture the speaker’s intention and hence easing communication. As for their interpersonal functions, DMs shape the participation framework in the sense that the interlocutors are assigned specific roles. For example, DMs help speakers clearly express their attitudes, feelings, beliefs, and judgments. In other words, DMs can add a subjective meaning which mirrors the speaker’s opinion (see Fraser, 1990; Lenk, 1998; Aijmer, 2002). As such, it can be said that DMs play a pivotal role in indexing social relationships and demarcating discourse connections (Bolden, 2008, p. 102).

Another function of DMs is limiting the number of likely interpretations and reducing time and effort to understand the intended message; DMs can restrict the hearer’s inference and remove the potential ambiguity of utterances (Fraser, 1990; Lenk, 1998; Andersen, 2001; Aijmer, 2002; Muller, 2005).

Furthermore, DMs can function to preserve the text’s coherence and cohesion as they link the different discourse units (i.e., clauses, sentences, and paragraphs) (see, e.g., Fraser, 1990, 1999; Halliday & Hasan, 1976; Blakemore, 1987; Aijmer, 2002; Lenk, 1998; Schifffrin, 1987; *inter alia*). For example, Schifffrin (1987, p. 41) points out that DMs are “members of a functional class of verbal (and nonverbal) devices which provide contextual coordinates for ongoing talk”. Such coordinates play a vital role in increasing the coherence of the discourse as they integrate different units of talk.

Although DMs have such textual, emotive and pragmatic functions, and although they usually emerge from lexical elements that carry semantic meanings, they are, semantically speaking, propositionally empty in the sense that they do not have a denotative or referential function. They do not carry a semantic content and, consequently, do not contribute to the propositional content of the utterance or influence its truth-condition, a property of DMs known in the literature as “non-truth conditionality” (Schifffrin, 1987; Blakemore, 1987; Brinton, 1996; Lenk, 1998; Schourup, 1999; Fraser, 1993, 1999).

As for their syntactic behavior, DMs usually appear sentence-initially and loosely-attached as if they were separated from the rest of the utterance (Urgelles-Coll, 2010). This actually entails two important properties of DMs referred to in the literature as “initiality” and “weak-clause association” (Fraser, 1990, 1993; Schourup, 1999; Schifffrin, 1987; Redeker, 1991; Brinton, 1996; Lenk, 1998; Aijmer, 2002). This means that they exhibit syntactic independence from their main clause because they do not constitute a constituent in the syntactic structure of the sentence in which they are used. In other words, they do not serve any specific grammatical or syntactic function in the sentence.

“Connectivity” and “optionality” are also defining properties of DMs. Connectivity means that DMs connect the different textual parts of the discourse through demonstrating their correlation with each other (Schourup, 1999). Optionality refers to the observation that DMs are optional and their deletion from the utterances containing them will keep the grammaticality of the utterances intact (Schourup, 1999; Schifffrin, 1987; Brinton, 1996; Lenk, 1998; Muller, 2005).

“Orality” and “multifunctionality” are other properties widely discussed in the literature of DMs. While the former refers to the fact that DMs are a typical property of unwritten discourse (Fraser, 1990; Lenk, 1998; Brinton, 1996; Schifffrin, 1987), the latter means that a DM can have more than one function based on the context in which it is used (Fraser, 1990, 1999; Brinton, 1996; Andersen, 2001; Redeker, 1991; Lenk, 1998; Müller, 2005; Schifffrin, 1987).

The Jordanian *hala?*, which is equivalent to ‘now’ in English, exhibits characteristics typically found with DMs. For example, it occurs clause-initially in oral communications. It is also multifunctional and optional. This study provides evidence that the word *hala?*, which is originally a temporal adverb, has developed into a DM that can perform several discursal functions and, thus, facilitate the speaker-hearer communication.

II. LITERATURE REVIEW

Different Arabic DMs in different dialects have been recently studied under different approaches. This section sheds light on some of these studies.

Alqahtani (2023) studied the functions of the Arabic DM /bʃdɪn/ (lit. 'then'). She collected her data from Twitter and her dataset consisted of (105) tweets containing the word /bʃdɪn/. Adopting the relevance theory, she found that /bʃdɪn/ has seven pragmatic functions: to mark orientation shift, disagreement, agreement, reason, result, conditionals and coordination.

Alshammary (2021) studied the possible procedural meanings of the DMs /qʃdk/ 'you mean' and /yʃny/ 'this means' in written Saudi Arabic. Making irony, asking for clarification, and correction were reported as possible meanings of /qʃdk/. It was also found that clarification and asking for clarification are performed by /yʃny/.

Abdeljawad and Abu Radwan (2016) investigated the communicative functions of the DM /Inzeen/ 'okay' in Arabian Gulf Arabic. They found that this DM can function as an agreement marker, tag marker, topic management marker, challenge/threat marker, structural marker, cohesive marker and interactive marker.

Kanakri and Al Harahsheh (2013) examined the pragmatic functions of the Jordanian DM /ʕa:di/ 'normally, usually' and reported the following functions: to ask for permission, to show indifference, to express the meaning of disapproval, to mitigate sad news effects, to show acceptance, to express contempt, to save one's face, to express courtesy, to show disappointment, and to express indirect criticism.

Building on a corpus of dyadic conversations, Alazzawie (2014) investigated the pragmatic functions of the lexical item /yamawwad/ in Iraqi Arabic. The following functions were reported by the researcher: Marking the opening of a conversation, politeness and courtesy, request and imperative, displeasure and annoyance, solidarity and empathy, pleading, apologizing, surprise and astonishment, warning, refusal, disappointment, hope and expectancy.

Reviewing the above studies on Arabic DMs, it can be said that other DMs in Jordanian Arabic like *halaʔ* are still under-investigated. Accordingly, a study is needed to fill in this apparent gap in the literature.

III. METHOD

The current study aims at specifying the distribution and functions of the DM *halaʔ* in everyday spoken conversational exchanges in Jordanian Arabic. The study is based on almost 15-hour corpus of naturally-occurring conversations recorded by the researchers through 30 interviews with the participants. The participants were 80 (40 males and 40 females) Jordanian students from Al-Balqa Applied University. Their ages ranged between 18 to 22 years. Each interview lasted for 30 minutes and included 2 to 3 participants.

All the participants expressed their willingness to take part in the study after explaining the goals of the study and assuring them that all the recorded interviews will remain confidential and will be only used for academic purposes. The participants were asked to discuss general daily-life topics as well as some personal, social, political, economic and educational topics as such spontaneous conversations of this type form an authentic source of data (Labov, 1984). All occurrences of *halaʔ* (n = 273) were identified alongside their relevant contexts in the recorded conversations. Each token of *halaʔ* was then analyzed in terms of its syntactic position in the hosting utterance, its lexical meaning, and its discursual function. The analysis in general is based upon the frameworks of Schifffrin (1987), Aijmer (2002), and Schourup (1999).

IV. RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

The data analysis revealed that the colloquial Jordanian Arabic word *halaʔ* has both semantic and pragmatic meanings. Semantically, it is a temporal adverb parallel to the English adverb 'now'. Pragmatically, *halaʔ* can function as a DM that achieves coherence of discourse as it infers pragmatic connections between texts.

Quantitatively, *halaʔ* occurred in the corpus (273) times. It was used as a temporal adverb in 32% (n = 87) of the occurrences, and it was used as a DM that performs pragmatic functions to achieve coherence of contexts in 68% (n = 186) of the occurrences.

As for its syntactic distribution, when used as a temporal adverb, *halaʔ* occurred only clause-finally, at the end of its hosting utterance. By contrasts, when used as a DM, *halaʔ* occurred only clause-initially, at the beginning of the utterance that hosts it.

Regarding its potential discursual and pragmatic functions as a DM, it was found that *halaʔ* can serve six functions as a coherence marker based on the context in which it is used. These functions are discussed in detail below.

As for gender differences, the data analysis did not reveal any noticeable difference between male and female students regarding the syntactic distribution or discursual functions of *halaʔ*. The two groups used *halaʔ* as a DM in a similar manner. (However, for more on the possible effects of gender as a variable in different contexts, see Al-Daher & Al-Abed Al-Haq, 2020 and Al-Shboul et al., 2022b).

A. *Halaʔ* 'Now' Between Temporality and Discursivity

The form *halaʔ* 'now' was perceived as a temporal adverb whose essential meaning is 'at the present moment' in 32% of the occurrences. It was found that this adverbial use of *halaʔ* is almost always associated with the present tense of the verb as it signals the time of speaking. Moreover, it was found that such sentential *halaʔ*'s appear most often in non-initial positions in their hosting utterances. The following example illustrates these points.

(1)

A: Wein ?ahmad
Where Ahmad
'Where is Ahmad?'

B: wallahi ?ahmad ridzi? min l-dzam?a ta?ban wu hu najim *hala?*
By-God Ahmad returned from the-university tired and he sleeping now
'Actually, Ahmad came back from the university tired, and he is sleeping now.'

In the above example, *hala?* is a time adverb. Two observations point toward this analysis. First, it co-occurs with the present tense. Second, the discourse involves contrast between two time intervals; there is a clear contrast between the past and the present times (cf. Schiffrin, 1987, p. 231). The deictic relationship between the proposition in the above example and the time of uttering this proposition is termed "reference time" (Schiffrin, 1987, p. 228).

However, our corpus provides abundant evidence that *hala?* is not always unequivocally temporal. This temporal adverb is indeed peculiar as it seems that it has developed a non-temporal use; it can rather perform a number of non-sentential discourse-related functions. Notice, for example, that the temporal meaning of *hala?* in the following dialogue is subdued.

(2)
A: hu bigul ?innuh l-?imti?an kan k?ir sahil
He saying that the-exam was much easy
'He is saying that the exam was very easy.'

B: *hala?* kulu bi?tamid ?ala dirastik fa?i ?a kunti btudrusi ?awwal bi-?awwal
DM all depends on your-study If were studying first in-first

?akid rah jukun sahil
sure will be easy
'Everything depends on your study. So If you study regularly, it will definitely be easy.'

In the above dialogue, the conventional temporal meaning of *hala?* is superseded by another discourse-related function: *hala?* is used by speaker B to present an elaboration or explanation to speaker A's point.

Another corroborating evidence in support of this line of analysis comes from the fact that our corpus contained a number of cases in which *hala?* co-occurred with other time adverbs like /?imbarih/ 'yesterday' and /bukra/ 'tomorrow'. This indeed further asserts that *hala?* is not a time adverb in such contexts, but a DM. Consider the following:

(3)
A: wein-ak ?imbarih ma ?ad?eit ?ala is-sahrah ya muhtaram
Where-you yesterday not came on the-gathering VOC. Respectful
'Why did not you show up in the gathering yesterday, sir?'

B: *hala?* ?imbarih ?ana kunit mdawim
DM yesterday I was on-job
'I was on duty yesterday.'

hala? bukra mumkin niltagi
DM tomorrow possible meet
'We can get together tomorrow.'

Notice that speaker B in the above dialogue used *hala?* in his two utterances that already contain temporal adverbs. *hala?* co-occurred with /?imbarih/ 'yesterday', which denotes past tense, in his first utterance and with /bukra/ 'tomorrow', which marks futurity, in his second utterance. This indicates that *hala?* cannot be taken as a time adverb in these utterances as it contrasts with these two temporal adverbs.

Our corpus also contained examples where two tokens of *hala?* are used in the same utterance. Along the same line of reasoning, we found that when there are two *hala?*s in the same utterance, only one of the two tokens can be an adverb. The following is an illustrative example.

(4)
hala? sahi? ?ana mi? musta?id la-l-?imti?an *hala?* bas bukra
DM true I not ready for-the-exam now but tomorrow

rah ?akun musta?id ?in fa?a Allah
will be ready if wished God
'It is true that I am not ready for the exam now, but I will be ready tomorrow if God may.'

The above example shows that there are two tokens of *hala?* in the same utterance, so they cannot be both adverbial, suggesting that the initial token of *hala?* is a DM while the second one is adverbial.

The data analysis revealed that all the tokens of *hala?* that were classified as non-temporal elements surfaced utterance-initially. Moreover, it was found that there is no single example in the corpus where two tokens of *hala?* can both convey temporal meaning if they co-exist in the same utterance. Similarly, no single case of temporal *hala?* was identified in the presence of another temporal adverb (e.g., ‘yesterday’ and ‘tomorrow’) in the same utterance. In fact, position and collocation (co-occurrence with a lexical collocate and/or another temporal adverb) are among the major criteria we adopted to identify non-temporal discourse-related uses of *hala?* and to classify it, as a result, as a DM.

What lends further credibility to our analysis of *hala?* as a non-temporal DM is the observation that it exhibits a number of features that are normally characteristic of DMs: (i) *hala?* surfaces utterance-initially, (ii) it is not restricted to any particular tense; rather, it coincides with both past or present tense, (iii) it does not add to the propositional content of the utterance, and (iv) it plays a vital role in organizing the discourse (cf. Aijmer, 2002; see also the references cited in the prelude).

Having highlighted the two possible uses of *hala?*, as a time adverb and as a DM, it is of interest at this moment to uncover its discourse functions and its role in easing communication. The different discourse functions that *hala?* can perform according to our corpus are taken up in the next section.

B. The Discourse Functions of *Hala?*

In this subsection, we delineate the potential discourse functions that the DM *hala?* can perform in different contexts in Jordanian Arabic. Our analysis in general is couched in terms of the frameworks advanced by Aijmer (2002) and Schiffrin (1987) for the English ‘now’, which is the counterpart of the Jordanian *hala?*.

The English ‘now’ can express a number of functions related to textual and discourse-coherence. For instance, it has meanings like contrast and continuation. It is used to signal the orientation of the speaker to an upcoming subtopic (Schiffrin, 1987). Furthermore, ‘now’ stresses the right of the speaker to control the development of the conversation. It signals topic continuation and marks certain related connections such as explanation or justification; it can signal elaboration of a previous topic. It is also used with evaluations and subjective opinions (Aijmer, 2002).

The data analysis revealed that *hala?* as a DM can serve six functions based on the context in which it is used. These functions are: Changing a topic, introducing a contrast or comparison, marking disagreement, initiating reasons, explanations or clarifications, listing, and marking shifts in participation framework (Marking a change in the speaker’s orientation and marking a change of footing). Each function is discussed below with ample exemplification from the corpus.

(a). Changing a Topic

Hala? was found to function as a topic changer similar to its English counterpart (Aijmer, 2002) in the sense that it is used to change a topic. It is used to mark a new topic (or new argument) and to mark transitions to a subtopic.

The discursive behavior of *Hala?* conforms with a DM that is used to mark changes or switches in the argument. In (5), for example, /tajib/ ‘right’ marks the boundary between two topics signaling the end of the first topic, while *Hala?* marks the beginning of a new topic.

(5)

A: la walla l-dzaw kan kθir ħami fama ruĥna wu ʔadʒalna kul it-talʕa

No by-God the-weather was much hot not went and postponed all the-outgoing

‘Actually no, the weather was too hot, so we didn’t go and we postponed the whole day out.’

B: tajib *hala?* ʕaʕan qararik il-mufadʒi? latayir it-taxasus

Right DM for your-decision the-sudden changing the-major

wu it-taħwil la-qisim l-muħasabih ʔihna saraħatan kθir tðajagna

and the-switch to-department the-accounting we frankly much upset

‘Right! About your sudden decision to change the major and transfer to the department of accounting, to be honest, we are quite upset.’

In the above example, *Hala?* marks the change to talking about speaker A’s sudden decision to change her major and move to the department of accounting, which is a new topic. The conversation shows that the original topic was something completely different: a scheduled day out that was cancelled due to the incompatibility of the weather. Thus, it can be said that *Hala?* represents a structural particle that marks a boundary. However, it remains to be pointed out that *Hala?* is not the only strategy used to draw the listener’s attention to the new topic in the above example; left-dislocation, though to a lesser extent, played a role to achieve this goal as well. (For more on left-dislocation, see Al-Daher, 2016).

Moreover, we found that *Hala?* can co-occur with metalinguistic comments to prepare for the new topic or to go back to an earlier topic (cf. Aijmer, 2002). /xallina nirdʒaʕ/ ‘Let’s go back to ...going back to ...’ is such a metalinguistic

phrase. In the following example, it is clear that the speaker controlling the conversation is trying to push it back to a topic discussed earlier in the conversation utilizing *hala?* and the metalinguistic phrase /xallina nirdzaʕ/.

(6)

sarahatan ma bnigdar nihki ʔinnu it-tudzar hummeh
frankly Not can say that the-merchants they

ʔil-masʔulin ʕan rafʕ l-ʔasʕar dajman
the-Responsible for Raising the-prices always
'Honestly, we cannot say that the merchants are always responsible for raising prices.'

fi taʕaxum ʕala mustawa l-ʕalam wu fi ʔirtifaʕ bi ʔasʕar iʕ-ʕahin kaman
there Inflation on level the-world and there Rise in Prices the-shipping also
'There is inflation worldwide, and there is also a rise in shipping prices.'

hala? xallina nirdzaʕ la muʕkilit it-taʔmin is-sihi
DM lets return to problem the-insurance the-medical

ʔinta tittafiq maʕ naqabit l-ʔattibbaʕ ʔinnuh maʕhum ʕag juxðu heik qarar
you agree with syndicate the-doctors that with-them right take such decision
'Going back to the health insurance problem, do you agree with the Medical Association that they have the right to take such a decision?'

In short, *hala?* can be positioned at a certain juncture in the discourse to change the topic: *hala?* functions as a marker that draws the borders between the different subtopics in the discourse and indicates a change to a new topic in the conversation. Changing the topic typically occurs as a result of drawing attention to a new idea; *hala?* serves to label the new topic and move the conversation forward.

(b). *Introducing Contrasts or Comparisons*

Another discursual function of *Hala?* is introducing contrast in the cases of having a main topic branching into subtopics (cf. Shiffrin, 1987). It was found that *hala?* is consistently used in all kinds of comparisons. In (7), speaker A is asking speaker B about the difficulty of the literary criticism course. a comparison is overtly introduced by speaker B who prefigures the comparison using the expression /bjiʕtamid/ 'it depends'. Following the introduction of the comparison, speaker B differentiates two subtopics and uses *hala?* to introduce both subtopics.

(7)

A: jaxi¹ keif madit in-naqd l-ʔadabi
My-brother how course the-criticism the-literary
'Brother, tell me about the literary criticism course.'

B: wallahi bjiʕtamid min biddu jaʕtiha wu hal hi fasil ʕadi ʔaw fasil seifi
By-God it-depends who wants give-it and is it semester regular or semester summer
'Actually, it depends on who will teach it and whether it is offered during a regular semester or a summer semester.'

hala? ʔana ʔaxa ʔit-ha ʕala ʔis-seifi ʕind id-daktur M wu kanat saʕba kθir kan dayit
DM I took-it on the-summer with the-doctor M (his initial) and was difficult much was pressure
'I took it during a summer semester with Dr. M, and it was too difficult. There was lots of pressure.'

hala? saħbi ʔaxa ʔ-ha fasil ʕadi ʕind id-daktura L wu kanat kθir ʔashal
DM my-friend took-it ssemester regular with the-Doctor L (her initial) and was much easier
'My friend took it during a regular semester with Dr. L, and it was much easier.'

The topic is the difficulty of the literary criticism course. This main topic is developed into two subtopics: Speaker B compares his own experience with the literary criticism course during a summer semester with a particular professor to his friend's experience with the same course but during a regular semester and with a different professor.

(c). *Marking Disagreement*

Another function of *hala?* is marking disagreement. This appears in conversations that involve argument as a result of discussing topics that are debatable, arguable, disputable or controversial (Example 8). It can also appear in conversations that involve personal opinions (Example 9).

¹ The expression /jaxi/, which literally means 'my brother', is an endearment term commonly used by Jordanians in their daily conversations. It can be taken as an in-group identity marker to show politeness and respect to the addressee. Al-Shboul et al. (2022a) ascribe the prevalence of such forms among Jordanians to social values of Arabs in general and Jordanians in particular.

According to Schiffrin (1987, p. 234), the mere introduction of some topics into the conversation can create disagreement, hence such topics are taken as implicitly disputable. Examining our corpus, we found that polygamy and abortion are among such disputable topics for our participants. In (8), for instance, Maha is asking Raghad how she feels about polygamy, and Raghad replies as follows:

(8)

hala? kul waḥad ?ilu ra?j muxtalif bi ha ḥa l-?iḥi
DM every one has opinion different in this the-thing
'Everyone has a different opinion about this topic.'

hala? ?ana miḥ kḥir miqtanṣa ?innu iz-zawad? iḥ-ḥani ?iḥi saji?
DM I not much convinced that the-marriage the-second thing bad

wu ?innu raḥ jidamir l-?usra
and that will destroy the-family
'I am not very convinced that the second marriage/polygamy is a bad thing and that it will ruin the family.'

fi nas kḥir mitd?awzin ?akḥar min waḥdih wu ?umur-hum maḥḥijih
There people many married more than one and affairs-their going
'Many men are married to more than one woman, and their affairs are going well.'

tabṣan ha ḥa l-kalam raḥ jizaṣil niswan kḥir mini xasatan ?umi
of-course this statement will distress women many from-me especially my-mother
'Of course, this opinion will make many women mad at me, especially my mother.'

Raghad starts off her position with *hala?*. She then asserts that this opinion might bother others, thus asserting that this topic is controversial. The controversy of polygamy for the participants suggests that the mere statement of opinion on the topic equals, albeit implicitly, comparing this opinion to others' opinions.

The above example shows that *hala?* is used when the discourse involves disagreement about a debatable topic. However, it was found that *hala?* is also used to present personal opinions about non-disputable topics. Although such conversations do not involve a disputable issue, the statement of an opinion does sometimes initiate disagreement (Schiffrin, 1987, p. 236). In (9), for example, the two students are talking about the novel "The Great Gatsby". Student A plays down speaker B's ability to fully understand the novel.

(9)

A: *hala?* ?inta qara?t-ha qabil ḥalaḥ snin jaṣni kunit sanih ?ula
DM you read-it before three years means were year first

fama ?a ḥun ?inn-ak fihimit l-mayza l-ḥaqiqi ?aw in-naqdi min-ha
not think that-you understood the-theme the-real or the-critical from-it
'You read it three years ago, which means you were a freshman, so I do not think you understood its real literary theme.'

B: la bilṣaks fihimit-ha wu kḥir ṣad?batni
No by-the-opposite understood-it and much admire-me
'No, quite the opposite, I understood it, and I liked it a lot.'

A: *hala?* kan lazim tiṣraf ḥwajit xalfijih tarixijih ?aw ?iḥi ṣan
DM Was obligatory know little background historical and thing about

il-American dream ḥatta tifham-ha saḥ
the-American dream to understand-it correct
'You should have had a historical background and something about the American dream in order to understand it correctly.'

Student A gives his opinion about student B's ability to understand the novel. Student B disagrees and states that he read and understood the novel. Student A then suggests that student B could not have correctly understood the novel as the latter had not had the necessary historical and literary background. Although this opinion does not involve a disputable issue and represents a personal assessment of a specific topic, it creates a disagreement.

(d). *Initiating Reasons, Explanations or Clarifications*

Hala? is also used to initiate justifications or reasons within explanations. It serves as a background to explain or clarify something; it can also serve to elaborate on something which has already been mentioned.

In (10), *hala?* signals the switch from the chief topic to explanation/justification. It is not clear without some further explanation why the speaker's uncle could not get in a university and studied at a community college instead. Thus, it can be said that *hala?* in such cases is used as a foregrounding element.

(10)

xali maθalan ma gidir judrus bi-l-dzamša ʕaʕan heik raḥ ʕala kulijih mutawassita
My-uncle for-example not could study in-the-university for such went on college intermediate
'My uncle for example could not study at the university, so he went to a community college.'

hala? raḥ ʕala kulijih mutawassita laʔinnuh bi ha ḏik l-ʔajam kan
DM went on college intermediat because at these the-days was

ʔilli bidʒib ʔaqa min θamanin
who get less than eighty

Bi-l-tawdʒihi ma bingabil bi-l-dzamša wu tabʕan ma kan fi dʒamʕat xasah
in-the-secondary-exam not accepted in-the-university and of-course not was in universities private
'He went to a community college because back in those days anyone who scored less than eighty in the second secondary examination could not get in university, and of course there were no private universities back then.'

(e). *Listing*

hala? is also used in lists whereby some new elements/members are added as specific instances of a more general thing/topic (cf. Schiffirin, 1987; Aijmer, 2002). In such cases, *hala?* is used to show that the different elements/members in a list are closely related and represent examples of the major topic. In (11), for example, Mariam is listing the flavors of donuts she has liked.

(11)

ʔana baḥib l-farawla wu l-tʕiz keik wu l-nutilla wu l-blue biri
I love the-strawberry and the-cheese cake and the-Nutella and the-blue berry

hala? ʕu kaman ʔana baḥib
DM what also I love
'I like strawberries, cheesecake, Nutella, and blueberries. what else do I like?'

In the above example, *hala?* is used to highlight the next potential item in a list (donut flavors). It is worth indicating that lots of participants used English words during their Arabic conversations as appears in this example and example (9) above. Such English terms which are commonly integrated in the daily conversations of Jordanians can be analyzed as cases of code-switching or borrowing. However, the distinction between code-switching and borrowing is beyond the scope of the current study. For more on these two phenomena, see Al-Daher (2021) and Al-Dala'ien et al. (2022) respectively.

(f). *Marking Shifts in Participation Framework*

1. *Marking a Change in the Speaker's Orientation*

hala? is also used to mark changes or shifts in the orientation of the speaker. In (12), for example, *hala?* marks a frame-shift to evaluation (ha ḏa iʕi kθir faḏiʕ 'That's very awful') in the turn of speaker B. While speaker A is trying to justify abortion among some mothers, speaker B rejects all these justifications and switches into an evaluative mode prefacing his evaluation by *Hala?*.

(12)

A: fi ʔumhat muwaḏafat wu hummih biḥmalu bidun taxtit
There mothers employees and they get-pregnant without planning

fa haḏa raḥ jisabib l-hum maʕakil
and this will cause to-them problems

ʕala mustawa il-ʕeilih wu ʕala mustawa il-ʕuyul laʔinhum
on level the-family and on level the-work because

ma raḥ jigdaru jidabru ʔumur-hum
not will can manage affairs-their
'Some mothers are employees, and they get pregnant without planning, so this will cause them problems at the levels of family and work because they won't be able to manage their affairs.'

B: *hatta walaw haða miş mubarir ?ana ðiq il-?idzhað fuma kan l-sabab*
 Even though this not justification I against abortion whatever was the-reason
 ‘Even though. This is not a justification. I am against abortion no matter the reason.’

hala? haða ifi kðir faðis miş mitxajil keif mumkin tuqtul ruħ
 DM this thing much terrible not imagine how possible kill soul
 ‘This is something very terrible. I cannot imagine how one could take a life.’

In the above example, speaker B switches from a narrative to evaluative mode. He switches to an evaluation signaled by *hala?*. He moves from a narrative mode to interpreting his rejection of abortion. This interpretation provides the reasons for his disagreement and presents a frame for the addressee to comprehend what was stated. In this sense, *hala?* becomes a kind of affect intensifier with affective meaning (cf. Aijmer, 2002).

2. Marking a Change of Footing

hala? is also employed to mark a change in footing (i.e., a shift from the perspective of the speaker to that of the hearer, without changing the topic) (cf. Aijmer, 2002; Schiffrin, 1987). In such cases, *hala?* is followed by a question, so a change of turn taking is involved as well. Consider the following illustrative example:

(13)
 A: *?ana saraħatan miş maş qanun l-džara?im l-?iliktrunijih l-džadid*
 I frankly not with law the-crimes the-electronic the-new
 ‘Honestly, I do not support the new law of electronic crimes.’

?ana řarifeħ ?innu fi nas bistaxdimu l-social media bi-tariqa saĵ?a
 I know that there people use the-social media in-way bad

wu bitnamaru řala in-nas wu kaman bjixawwaðu řalei-hum
 and bullying on the-people and also mocking on-them
 ‘I know that some people use social media in a bad way, harass people, and also mock them.’

bas haða l-qanun raħ jimnařna nřabir řan ra?jna bi ?ai qarar řukumi ?aw hatta
 but this the-law will prevent-us express about our-opinion in any decision governmental or even

l-mawaðis il-řadjih la?nhum kðir mřadidin saraħatan miş heik kaman
 the-topics the-ordinary because much strict frankly not such also
 ‘But this law will prevent us from expressing our opinions regarding any governmental decision or even ordinary topics because they are very strict regarding that. Honestly, it's not right.’

hala? ?inta maş ?aw ðiq haða l-qanun
 DM you with or against this law
 ‘Are you with or against this law?’

B: *la? ?ana maş l-qanun*
 No I with the-law
 ‘No, I am in favor of the law.’

Speaker A in the above example expresses his unease concerning the new law of electronic crimes proposed by the Jordanian government. It is not uncommon for Jordanians to criticize governmental decisions and officials on different social media platforms (Al-Daher et al., 2022). However, speaker A is clearly worried as he believes this law will prevent Jordanians from freely expressing their opinions regarding governmental decisions in light of the strictness of the new law. He then invites speaker B to express his opinion regarding this law using *hala?* followed by a question, which indicates a change from the perspective of the speaker to the perspective of the hearer (i.e., a change in footing).

The previous analysis shows that *hala?* can be used as a temporal adverb conveying the semantic meaning ‘now’, and it can be used as a DM performing a coherence function depending on the context in which it appears. However, before we close this study, it appears to be of great interest to delineate how such a typical lexical temporal adverb has developed into a DM in the language.

V. THE GRAMMATICALIZATION OF *HALA?*

In this section, we contend that *hala?* as a DM has evolved from a lexical item derived from the phrase /*haða l-waqt*/ ‘this time’ through grammaticalization. Building mainly on the conjecture that this phrase has undergone some of the canonical mechanisms of grammaticalization, we will show how such typical lexical items with a semantic content have

developed into a DM. Specifically, we will show that some of the essential grammaticalization processes are pertinent to *halaʔ*.

Grammaticalization in general refers to gradual language change that involves alteration from the lexical domain to the functional one. Grammaticalization incorporates various processes such as morphosyntactic and phonetic reductions as well as semantic shifts; the linguistic elements that undergo grammaticalization usually lose certain aspects related to their semantic complexity, phonological material and syntactic freedom (cf. Traugott, 1982; Heine et al., 1991; Geurts, 2000; Hopper & Traugott, 2003). These shifts may occur either concurrently or in a consecutive path. It is also possible that certain lexical items acquire new grammatical meanings, and their functions are expanded as a result (Ziegeler, 2011).

The major mechanisms of grammaticalization are: decategorialization, phonetic erosion, desemanticization (or semantic bleaching), and extension (cf. Heine, 2003; Hopper & Traugott, 2003; Heine et al., 1991; Traugott, 1982). Decategorialization, also known as morphological reduction/loss, is a process by which a lexical item becomes a functional item (i.e., the lexical item moves from an open category into a closed category) (Hopper & Traugott, 2003; Heine & Kuteva, 2002) and loses its inflectional and syntactic characteristics as a result (Heine, 2003). In other words, this sub-process refers to the loss of the morphosyntactic aspects of the lexical item. Phonetic erosion, or phonetic reduction/attrition, is the reduction of the phonological material of the item as a result of losing a segment, syllable or prosodic feature (Heine, 2003; Traugott, 2002), thus making it phonetically shorter. Desemanticization refers to the reduction or even loss of the concrete meaning of a word (Traugott, 1982; Heine et al., 1991; Heine, 2003), whereas extension refers to the new usages the lexical item develops in different contexts (Heine, 2003).

The phrase /haʔa l-waqt/ is used in Jordanian Arabic to refer to the present moment. Consider the following example:

(14)

kul ʔiʃi tyajar haʔa l-waqt

Every thing changed this time

kunna nudrus kul l-mawad l-halna bidun ʔai mudarris xususi wu nindzaḥ

were study all the-subjects ourselves without any teacher private and succeed

ʃu mal tulab ʔil-jum sajrin heik

what about students today becoming such

‘Everything has changed at this time (i.e., now). We used to study all the subjects by ourselves without the help of any private tutor, and we would succeed. What is wrong with the students these days?’

Similarly, as was shown in section 4.1, *halaʔ* is used adverbially to indicate the notion of nowness. Recall that the analysis revealed that 32% of the occurrences of *halaʔ* were used as a temporal adverb that carries the semantic meaning ‘now’. However, 68% of its occurrences were employed to serve other discursual functions. Accordingly, we contend that /haʔa l-waqt/ is the lexical source from which this DM has developed as a result of undergoing phonological reduction, morphosyntactic loss, desemanticization and extension.

The phrase /haʔa l-waqt/ ‘this time’ consists of the demonstrative /haʔa/ ‘this’ and the noun /l-waqt/ ‘time’. These two elements undergo phonetic erosion and lose some syllables and segments. The demonstrative /haʔa/ loses its final syllable and becomes /ha/; the lexical item /l-waqt/ is phonetically reduced as a result of losing the segments /w/ and /t/ yielding /laq/. The outcome of merging these two reduced items is /halaq/, which is still widely used as a DM in some neighboring Arabic dialects such as the varieties spoken in the coastal areas of Syria and some parts of Lebanon. After that the final consonant /q/ is glottalized producing the current Jordanian form /halaʔ/, which is also decategorized losing its demonstrative and nominal morphosyntactic aspects. This newly-emerged form is semantically bleached losing some of its content meaning and is extended to cover new discursual and pragmatic functions other than the adverbial one.

In fact, this is not an unordinary phenomenon. The English DM ‘well’, for example, has emerged from a typical lexical adverbial item (Schiffrin, 1985). The English modal verb ‘can’, which originally denotes ability, has developed and acquired a new meaning: possibility (Ziegeler, 2011; Narrog, 2012). Likewise, the motion verb /raḥ/ ‘went’ has developed into a future marker through grammaticalization in Jordanian Arabic (Alshboul et al., 2010). The swearing form /wallahi/ (meaning ‘by Allah’) in spoken Arabic is originally a regular lexical item that is used to confirm what somebody is saying; however, it has later developed into a DM covering several discourse functions (Abdeljawad & Abu Radwan, 2016).

In a nutshell, it seems that the Jordanian *halaʔ* has developed into a DM in a similar fashion. This DM is the outcome of undergoing the prototypical grammaticalization subprocesses discussed above.

VI. CONCLUSION

This study was set out to investigate the syntactic distribution and discourse functions of the DM *halaʔ* in Jordanian Arabic. This study is based upon the analysis of almost 15-hour corpus of spontaneous conversations.

It was found that *halaʔ* fits several defining characteristics of DMs. For example, it appears clause-initially in only oral communications. Also, it is optional as its absence does not affect the grammaticality of the utterance. Furthermore, it was found that it can achieve many functions based on the context in which it occurs. Accordingly, the structural properties and discoursal functions of *halaʔ* point toward characterizing it as a DM. We speculate that it has developed from a typical phrase meaning 'This time' into a DM with an array of discourse functions through the process of grammaticalization.

The main discourse (textual, affective and evaluative) functions of *halaʔ* are discussed. The results show that, similar to its equivalent English form, *halaʔ* is a multifunctional device that is used to Change a topic, introduce a contrast or comparison, mark disagreement, initiate reasons, explanations or clarifications, list, and mark shifts in participation framework (Mark a change in the speaker's orientation and mark a change of footing). Thus, at a macro level, it can be said that the Jordanian *halaʔ* has universal functions shared by its English counterpart.

It is clear that DMs are challenging as they have no fixed meaning/function. Rather, they contribute to the discourse depending on the context in which they are used. Many English DMs have been studied thoroughly (Schiffrin, 1987; Aijmer, 2002; among many others); nonetheless, Arabic DMs have received little syntactic and discoursal investigation. Thus, it is recommended that further investigation be dedicated to other Arabic lexical items that qualify to function as DMs. This will inevitably advance our understanding of this linguistic phenomenon in the language in general. Furthermore, a more comprehensive examination of such DMs is recommended in terms of their syntactic distribution, discoursal functions and equivalence to their English corresponding DMs. This will certainly provide the fields of language teaching and translation with many significant implications.

REFERENCES

- [1] Abdeljawad, H., & Radwan, A. A. (2016). Conversational coherence: The role of inzeen (okay) in Arabian Gulf spoken Arabic. *International Journal of Arabic Linguistics*, 2(1), 1-18.
- [2] Aijmer, K. (2002). *English discourse particles: Evidence from a corpus*. John Benjamins Publishing.
- [3] Alazzawie, A. (2014). Yamawwad: A discourse and pragmatic marker in Iraqi Arabic. *World Journal of English Language*, 4(2), 30-39. <https://doi.org/10.5430/wjel.v4n2p30>
- [4] Al-Daher, Z. Y. (2021). Code-Switching to English amongst Arabic-speaking Jordanians in Canada. *Jordan Journal of Modern Languages and Literatures*, 13(3), 477-499.
- [5] Al-Daher, Z. (2016). *Pseudo wh-fronting: A diagnosis of wh-constructions in Jordanian Arabic*. Doctoral dissertation, University of Manitoba.
- [6] Al-Daher, Z., & Al-Abed Al-Haq, F. (2020). The instrumentality of integrativeness: A case study of ESL Saudi students in Canada. *Jordan Journal of Modern Languages and Literatures*, 12(4), 559-581.
- [7] Al-Daher, Z., Al-Dala'ien, O. A., Al-Shboul, Y., Al-Rousan, M., & Sahawneh, M. (2022). COVID-19 humor on Jordanian social media: A diagnosis of written jokes on Facebook. *Eurasian Journal of Applied Linguistics*, 8(1), 162-175.
- [8] Al-Dala'ien, O. A., Al-Daher, Z., Al-Rousan, M., Al-Shboul, Y., & Zabadi, M. (2022). Morphology of COVID-19 neologisms in Modern Standard Arabic. *Eurasian Journal of Applied Linguistics*, 8(1), 111-132.
- [9] Alqahtani, F. A. (2023). The semantic and pragmatic functions of /bʕdɪn/ "بعدين" in informal Arabic. *Arab World English Journal for Translation & Literary Studies*, 7(1), 46-59. DOI: <http://dx.doi.org/10.24093/awejtls/vol7no1.4>
- [10] Alshammary, M. S. (2021). The meaning and functions of qSdk and yʕny as discourse markers in Saudi Arabic. *Theory & Practice in Language Studies*, 11(6), 717-722.
- [11] Alshboul, S., Al Shaboul, Y., & Asassfeh, S. M. (2010). Grammaticalization patterns: Evidence from future markers in Jordanian Arabic. *Journal of the Australasian Universities Language and Literature Association*, 114, 99-110.
- [12] Al-Shboul, Y., Al-Daher, Z., Al-Dala'ien, O. A., & Abu-Snoubat, T. (2022a). Congratulation strategies by Jordanians on a royal birthday Facebook status. *Journal of Language Teaching and Research*, 13(5), 1097-1104.
- [13] Al-Shboul, Y., Huwari, I., Al-Dala'ien, O. A., & Al-Daher, Z. (2022b). An analysis of compliment response strategies by Jordanian adolescent students: The influence of gender and social power. *Theory and Practice in Language Studies*, 12(7), 1252-1261.
- [14] Andersen, G. (2001). *Pragmatic markers and sociolinguistic variation: A relevance theoretic approach to the language of adolescents*. Amsterdam: John Benjamins Publishing Company.
- [15] Blakemore, D. (1989). Denial and contrast: A relevance theoretic analysis of "but". *Linguistics and philosophy*, 12, 15-37.
- [16] Blakemore, D. (1987). *Semantic constraints on relevance*. Oxford: Blackwell.
- [17] Bolden, G. B. (2008). Reopening Russian conversations: The discourse particle -to and the negotiation of interpersonal accountability in closings. *Human Communication Research*, 34(1), 99-136.
- [18] Brinton, L. J. (1996). *Pragmatic markers in English: Grammaticalization and discourse functions*. Walter de Gruyter.
- [19] Erman, B. (1987). *Pragmatic expressions in English: A study of you know, you see and I mean in face-to-face conversation*. Doctoral dissertation, Almqvist & Wiksell International.
- [20] Fraser, B. (1999). What are discourse markers? *Journal of Pragmatics*, 31(7), 931-952.
- [21] Fraser, B. (1993). Discourse markers across languages. In Lawrence Bouton & Yamuna Kachru (Eds.), *Pragmatics and language learning* (pp. 1-16). Urbana-Champaign, IL: University of Illinois Press.
- [22] Fraser, B. (1990). An approach to discourse markers. *Journal of Pragmatics*, 14(3), 383-398.
- [23] Geurts, B. (2000). Explaining grammaticalization (The standard way). *Linguistics*, 38(4), 781-788.
- [24] Goddard, A., & Patterson, L. M. (2000). *Language and gender*. London: Psychology Press.
- [25] Halliday, M. A. K., & Hasan, R. (1976). *Cohesion in English*. London: Longman.

- [26] Heine, B. (2003). Grammaticalization. In Brian D. Joseph & Richard D. Janda (Eds.), *The handbook of historical linguistics* (pp. 575-601). Oxford: Blackwell.
- [27] Heine, B., Claudi, U., & Hünemeyer, F. (1991). *Grammaticalization: A conceptual framework*. University of Chicago Press.
- [28] Heine, B., & Kuteva, T. (2002). *World lexicon of grammaticalization*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.
- [29] Hopper, P. J., & Traugott, E. C. (2003). *Grammaticalization*. Cambridge University Press.
- [30] Kanakri, M. A., & Al-Harabsheh, A. M. (2013). The discourse analysis and pragmatics of ?a:di in Jordanian spoken Arabic. *International Journal of English Linguistics*, 3(6), 59-63. <https://doi.org/10.5539/ijel.v3n6p59>
- [31] Labov, W. (1984). Field methods of the project on linguistic change and variation. In John Baugh & Joel Sherzer (Eds.), *Language in use: Readings in sociolinguistics* (pp. 28-53). Englewood Cliffs, NJ: Prentice-Hall.
- [32] Lenk, U. (1998). Discourse markers and global coherence in conversation. *Journal of Pragmatics*, 30(2), 245-257.
- [33] Muller, S. (2005). *Discourse markers in native and non-native English discourse*. Amsterdam: John Benjamins.
- [34] Narrog, H. (2012). *Modality, subjectivity, and semantic change: A cross-linguistic perspective*. Oxford University Press.
- [35] Östman, J. O. (1981). 'You Know': A discourse-functional study. John Benjamins Publishing.
- [36] Redeker, G. (1991). Linguistic markers of discourse structure. *Linguistics*, 29(6), 1139-1172.
- [37] Schiffrin, D. (1987). *Discourse markers*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.
- [38] Schiffrin, D. (1985). Conversational coherence: The role of well. *Language*, 61(3), 640-667.
- [39] Schourup, L. C. (1999). Discourse markers. *Lingua*, 107(3-4), 227-265.
- [40] Traugott, E. C. (2002). From etymology to historical pragmatics. In Elizabeth Closs Traugott, Bernd Kortmann, Donka Minkova, & Robert Stockwell (Eds.), *Studies in the history of the English language: A millennial perspective* (pp. 19-49). Berlin: Mouton de Gruyter.
- [41] Traugott, E. C. (1982). From propositional to textual and expressive meanings: Some semantic-pragmatic aspects of grammaticalization. In Winfred P. Lehmann & Yakov Malkiel (Eds.), *Perspectives on historical linguistics: Papers from a conference held at the meeting of the Language Theory Division, Modern Language Assn., San Francisco* (pp. 245-271). John Benjamins Publishing.
- [42] Urgelles-Coll, M. (2010). *The syntax and semantics of discourse markers*. A. & C. Black Publishers Ltd.
- [43] Ziegeler, D. (2011). The grammaticalization of modality. In Heiko Narrog & Bernd Heine (Eds.), *The Oxford handbook of grammaticalization* (pp. 595-604). Oxford: Oxford University Press.

Zeyad Yousef Al-Daher received his PhD degree in linguistics from the University of Manitoba, Canada in 2017. He is currently assistant professor of linguistics in the department of English language and literature at Al-Balqa Applied University, Jordan where he has been teaching linguistics for six years. Dr. Al-Daher's research interests include sociolinguistics, humor, code-switching, politeness theory and syntactic theory.

Othman Aref Al-Dala'ien received his PhD degree in linguistics from Aligarh Muslim University (AMU), India in 2016. He is currently assistant professor of linguistics at the Department of English language and literature, Al-Balqa Applied University (BAU), Jordan. Dr. Al-Dala'ien's area of interest includes Morphology, Morpho-syntax, Semantics, Pragmatics, Semiotics, and Historical linguistics.

Mohammad Yahya Al-Rousan obtained his PhD degree in Linguistics from The National University of Malaysia (UKM), Malaysia in 2017. He is currently Assistant Professor of Linguistics at Ajloun National University (ANU), Ajloun, Jordan. Dr. Al-Rousan's research interest is in discourse analysis, Pragmatics and semantics.

Meera B. Sahawneh received her PhD degree in Linguistics from the University of Manitoba, Canada in 2017. She is currently assistant professor in the Department of English Language and Linguistics at Jordan University of Science and Technology, Irbid, Jordan. She teaches syntax, discourse analysis, functional grammar, and morphology. Dr. Sahawneh's research interests include syntax, discourse analysis, and pragmatics.

Saada Bader received her PhD in Clinical Linguistics from Bielefeld University, Germany in 2010. She is currently a lecturer in the Department of English Language and Linguistics, Jordan University of Science and Technology, Irbid, Jordan. She teaches Phonetics & Phonology, Child Language Acquisition and Applied Linguistics. Dr. Bader's articles on Phonetics & Phonology, Language Acquisition and Sociolinguistics have appeared in journals like Humanities and Social Sciences, Journal of Higher Education Theory and Practice, and Poznan Studies in Contemporary Linguistics.

Constructing Research Preferences by Prospective Indonesian EFL Teachers

Erikson Saragih*

Department of Linguistics, Universitas Sumatera Utara, Medan, Indonesia

Nenni Triana Sinaga

English Education Department, Universitas HKBP Nommensen, Medan, Indonesia

Elina Lulu Bimawati Rumapea

Department of Accounting, STIE Petra Bitung, Bitung, Indonesia

Rohdearni Wati Sipayung

English Education Department, Universitas Simalungun, Pematangsiantar, Indonesia

Sri Ninta Tarigan

English Education Department, Universitas Prima Indonesia, Medan, Indonesia

Irma Khoirot Daulay

English Education Department, IAIN Kediri, Kediri, Indonesia

Abstract—Several studies have discussed the features and characteristics of research on English language teaching in Indonesia by both lecturers and students. However, there is very little research that discusses topics, research methods, designs, and reasons for choosing topics, as well as the efforts to improve the quality of research conducted by prospective EFL teachers in the Indonesian context. The study aims to identify, assess, and characterize the research conducted by prospective Indonesian EFL teachers. The study used mixed research methods utilizing 477 research works as the objects of study, while the research participants were 67 prospective Indonesian EFL teachers and 5 heads of the English education program. The results showed that students' selected research topics were the process of learning English at the secondary school level and that their preferred methodologies were quantitative research, qualitative research, and classroom action research (mixed methods). The most popular topics in English language learning research were methods for learning, classroom action research, textbook analysis, media for learning English, and viewpoints on English teaching concerns. The reasons for choosing certain research topics and methods were dominated by issues of ease of research completion. The results contribute as a basis for future research to select variables, designs, issues, or study subjects to explore as well as for directing and defining the themes and research topics in the English Education study program.

Index Terms—constructing, research, preference, prospective, Indonesian EFL teachers

I. INTRODUCTION

Higher education institutions must continue to uphold the standard of teaching, research, and community service to improve the quality of education. University graduates contribute significantly to the production of quality human resources (Succi & Canova, 2020; Hassan et al., 2013). As one of the study programs run by the majority of universities in Indonesia, the English Language Education Study Program is responsible for producing highly competent graduates for future EFL teachers in Indonesia. Each English language education study program seeks to generate competent English teachers by integrating aspects of hard skills, pedagogy, and soft skills (Bauer-Marschallinger et al., 2021) based on the needs of their users in the community, as defined in the goals and objectives of the study program. One of the objectives pursued is to encourage its students to graduate on time, 4 years for a Bachelor's degree (Indrawati & Kuncoro, 2021). As a study program planned to prepare quality English teachers in Indonesia, the English Education Department in each university should provide its graduates with research competence as a part of students' requirements to finish their studies.

Based on preliminary observations, English language education study programs have given less substantial consideration to the research conducted by their prospective graduates. As a result, there was an uneven distribution of

* Corresponding Author. Email: eriksonsaragih@usu.ac.id

research topics among the subjects previously taught. The reason for selecting the subject and the research strategy used by the students were also the two intriguing aspects of the research topic selection.

An imbalance in the selection of research topics in the early observations of research has been never revealed and published by previous studies. This suggests that neither research supervisors nor the heads of the English language study program have given much thought to equality in the selection of research topics (Puad & Ashton, 2021). Additionally, it is commonly found that most of the research topics chosen do not reflect the most recent advancements in language teaching techniques, which should adjust to advancements in the teaching of English (Pustika, 2020). In reality, data gathered from some potential EFL instructors showed that the study they conducted was solely intended to satisfy the criteria to finish their studies, not to perfect their abilities in conducting scientific investigations.

Actual issues with teaching and learning English should be reflected in the research conducted by prospective English teachers (Loan, 2019). These issues may be seen from a variety of perspectives, including those related to methodology, linguistics, education, and learning (Çamlıbel-Acar & Eveyik-Aydın, 2022). Aside from that, the chosen study subjects should also take into account how the curriculum's course distribution has evolved, rather than only concentrating on aspects of teaching that are perceived as being simple to grasp.

Briefly, this study investigated the preferred research topics by prospective Indonesian EFL teachers of the English education department, the research methodologies they chose, their reasons for choosing the topics and methodologies, and efforts taken by the head of the program to enhance the quality of their students' research. The results can contribute as basic information for the heads of English education programs, supervisors, lecturers, and students about how to equalize research topics chosen and improve research quality based on the subjects previously learned by the prospective EFL teachers during their study. The findings can also contribute to the body of knowledge on mapping research projects to increase the publication possibility in both nationally and internationally reputable journals.

Briefly, the research seeks to answer the following research questions:

1. What research topics do prospective Indonesian EFL teachers select?
2. Which research designs do prospective Indonesian EFL teachers choose for their research projects?
3. What are prospective EFL teachers' underlying reasons for selecting research topics and designs?
4. What do the heads of English education programs do to improve the quality of research works by prospective EFL teachers?

II. LITERATURE REVIEW

A. Conducting Research in the Indonesia Context

Prospective teachers should be equipped not just to teach subject matter in class, but also to assess and design learning materials and approaches (Supriyoko et al., 2022). As a result, they should develop strong research abilities in university. New university graduates in Indonesia are required to conduct research in their specialty. Similarly, a prospective English teacher must be competent in the language as well as capable of undertaking research, preferably in the field of language teaching and learning (Zein, 2016). Because there is a high demand for English language teachers, higher education institutions need to increase the quality of their research programs.

Through research, a future Indonesian EFL teacher can learn about the subject matter, educational technologies, and fresh approaches to numerous issues that arise throughout the teaching and learning process (Sulistiyo et al., 2020). This is highly advantageous for many parties, including potential teachers, schools, universities, and the community. Through research activities, they will be able to critique current teaching methods once they have graduated. They can become active and creative teachers in addition to being passive knowledge consumers. This is why aspiring English instructors are required to do pertinent research in their specialty to enhance already developed course materials. Therefore, a potential teacher might create content through research activities that would be taught to his students later (Saragih, 2019). Through the support of research results, future EFL teachers can be innovative and creative in responding to every challenge in carrying out their duties as professional English teachers.

B. Research Regulation for Prospective Teachers

In the eyes of the wider community, a university institution corresponds to a focus on various sciences (Suryani, 2020). Ethically, universities are indebted to participate in refining the lives of the people around them. Through research activities on various education problems, universities can produce solutions or innovations that can provide direct benefits to the surrounding community. In addition, research activities can support community service (Al-Qatawneh et al., 2021). More research produced by lecturers at a university can encourage improvements in the reputation rankings of that institution. Logically, when a researcher publishes in various scientific journals, he will automatically state the name of the institution as an affiliation (Saragih et al., 2023).

In Indonesia's context, the English Language Education study program has a responsibility to raise the standard of research and broaden the research subjects pursued by future graduates (Ma et al., 2022) as one of the study programs that generate prospective English teachers at various levels of education. This study program is expected to map student research by taking into account the applicability of the courses provided to students and the choice of research subjects.

In this regard, the study plan must be able to give students clear direction on the subjects they are researching and choose supervisors based on their expertise and experience in the subject matter they are studying.

C. Pedagogical Benefits to Conduct Research in Teaching and Learning

Prospective English Teachers should conduct research for several reasons (Cheon et al., 2020). Firstly, the activity helps teachers stay updated with the latest educational theories, practices, and technologies, allowing them to continually improve their teaching methods. Secondly, it enables English teachers to identify effective teaching strategies, curriculum materials, and assessment methods that can enhance student learning outcomes. Thirdly, it allows teachers to tailor their instruction to meet the diverse needs of their students, considering factors like learning styles, abilities, and interests.

Some other benefits of conducting research are also identified by some scholars (Magalhães et al., 2020). It develops fair and valid assessments to gauge student progress accurately. This helps in making data-driven decisions about instruction. It helps teachers address specific classroom issues or challenges, such as student engagement, classroom management, or teaching students with special needs. English teachers can engage in research to contribute to the broader field of education. Their findings may be published, shared with colleagues, or used to inform educational policies and practices. It enhances a teacher's professional reputation and opens up opportunities for career advancement. In essence, research is a valuable tool for English teachers to continuously enhance their teaching skills and create a more effective and engaging learning environment for their students.

III. METHODOLOGY

A. Objects and Participants

This study was conducted in the second semester of 2022-2023 and aimed at revealing the research topics chosen by prospective EFL teachers at 5 tertiary educations in Medan, Indonesia. These five colleges' English study programs have graduated thousands of students over the course of an average of more than 20 years. The objects of this research were 477 research reports by undergraduate program students in the English education department completing their studies within the last 3 years. The research objects were the collection of research documents obtained from 5 English education departments in Medan City, Indonesia. The university consisted of one state-owned university and 4 private universities. The secondary data from 5 Universities were then filtered or selected based on inclusion criteria, namely research that was concerned with language learning and teaching.

A total of 100 students were asked to respond to the online questionnaire; however, only 67 participants responded to the questionnaires. Therefore, the student participants consisted of 67 undergraduate students of the English education department. They were asked to state three reasons for choosing both research topics and research methods. The allocated time provided to fill out the instrument was 2 months, July and August 2023. The 5 head department participants in this research were selected by using a convenient sampling technique.

B. Design of Study

The research used a case study research design to gather specific, contextual, in-depth knowledge regarding research choices by prospective EFL teachers. The design is appropriate to explore the key characteristics, meanings, and implications of the case to find certain concepts. The design is suitable for exploring the case's important traits, consequences, and meanings to uncover specific concepts to improve research quality and open up new directions for future research. The intention is to comprehend the case and its context with as much detail as possible.

C. Instruments: Procedures and Validation

To collect data, the study used thematic analysis to analyze secondary data (collection of research works), an online questionnaire survey to explore the students' underlying reasons for choosing certain topics and methods and an interview to explore opinions from the head departments to improve the quality of student research. In the thematic analysis, the researcher analyzed qualitative data (research topics) that involved reading through a data set and looking for patterns to derive themes as well as finding meaning within the data.

The questionnaire in this study explored the reasons for choosing research topics and research designs by students. The open-ended questions asked in the questionnaire include the reasons for choosing the research topic and research design. Before being distributed to students, the two questions were validated by the five heads of English Education departments from the five universities. To fulfill ethical clearance in this research, the questionnaire also states permission for data collection, the purpose of using the data, and the transparency of the data obtained.

The purpose of the interview tool in this study is to investigate the efforts made by the study program leader to raise the standard of student research. It also looks at their efforts to ensure that the research topics chosen by students are distributed fairly and accurately reflect the subjects they are studying in the classroom.

IV. RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

A. Results

(a). *Preferred Research Topics*

This section examines the topic of interest for the research as well as the decisions made by aspiring teacher candidates. The selection of the research topic was made using secondary data, namely a summary of the three years' worth of student research from five different English Language Education study programs at five different colleges in Medan City, Indonesia in 2020–2022. The following table lists descriptions of the research subject options.

TABLE 1
CHOICE OF RESEARCH TOPICS BASED ON RESEARCH OBJECTS

No	Topics	Total	Frequency
1.	Teaching Methods	87	18.23%
2.	Textual/Content analysis (translation)/Novel/textbook/songs	76	15.90%
3.	Modes of Learning (PBL), CTL	92	19.28%
4.	Linguistic Research; Pure/interdisciplinary/applied	27	5.70%
5.	Language skills (listening, speaking, reading, writing, vocabulary)	142	29.76%
6.	Perceptions/Attitudes (teachers/learners)	29	6.07%
7.	Teaching/learning materials/books	24	5.03%
	Total	477	100%

The selections of study subjects made by students are seen in Table 1 above. The majority of the 477 data that were analyzed and divided into seven different categories for research topic choices—142 (29.76%)—were related to language skills, followed by 92 studies on modes of learning (PBL) and 87 studies on teaching methods (18.23%). The three topics that came in last place, however, were researched on learning materials/books with a total of 24 studies (5.03%), pure/interdisciplinary/applied linguistics with 27 studies (5.50%), and 29 studies on instructors' and students' perspectives.

(b). *Preferred Research Methods*

Based on the research methodologies and designs, the codes outline the division and categorization of student-conducted research. Depending on the methodology, the research is divided into four main categories: qualitative research, quantitative research mixed research, and classroom action research. The following figure shows the distribution of student research based on the methodology:

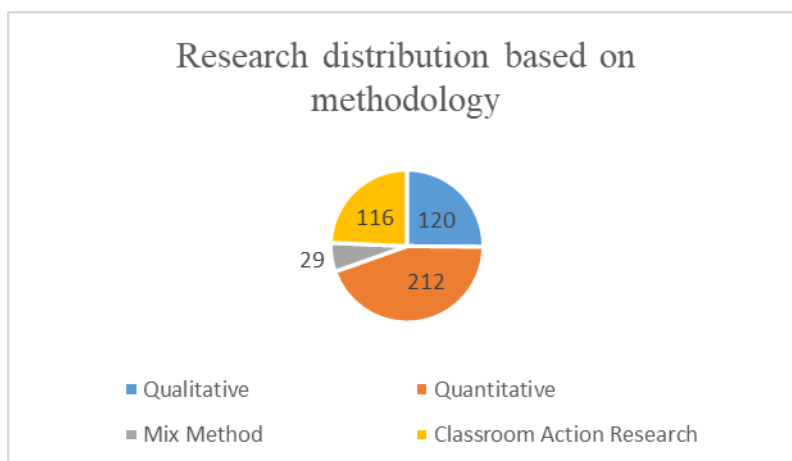


Figure 1. Preferred Research Method

Figure 1 above shows the distribution of research methods chosen by prospective EFL teachers. The order of research method categories based on the number they chose was quantitative methods 212 (44.4%), qualitative methods 120 (25.2%), classroom action research methods 116 (24.3%), and mixed methods 29 (6.1%). Figure 2 below describes the distribution of research in the quantitative research category.

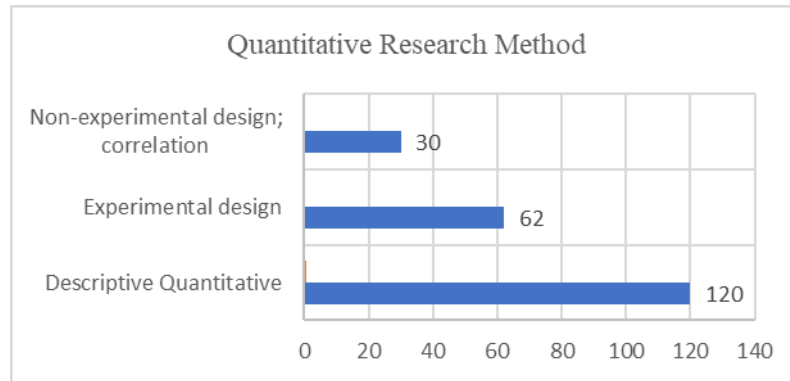


Figure 2. Distribution of Quantitative Research Method

Based on the category of quantitative research method, quantitative descriptive research design was the design most often chosen by students with 120 (56.6%), followed by experimental research design with 62 (29.2%), and non-experimental (correlation) research design with 30 studies (14.2%). Meanwhile, based on the qualitative research method category, the distribution of research designs chosen by students is depicted in Figure 3 below.

The third research method category chosen by students was the classroom action research method which reached 116 research works (24.31%), where this research design emphasized a combination of the research process and research results. The research method category that was chosen least by students was mixed method research reporting up to 29 research works (6.07%).

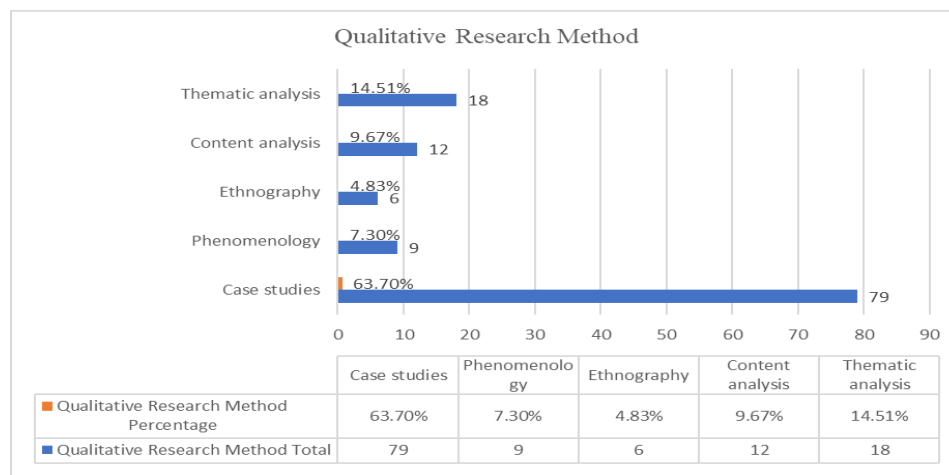


Figure 3. Distribution of Research Design on Qualitative Method

Figure 3 shows that the case study research design is the design most often chosen by students, reaching 79 research works (63.70%). This research design was then followed by thematic analysis design 18 (14.51%), content analysis design 12 (9.67%), phenomenology design 9 (7.30%), and finally ethnography design 6 (4.83%).

In summary, students' choice of research methods and designs to complete their studies in the English language education study program are shown in Table 2 below:

TABLE 2
RESEARCH DISTRIBUTION BY METHOD

No	Method	Total	Frequency
1	Qualitative		120 (25.15%)
	Case studies	79	16.56%
	Phenomenology	9	1.89%
	Ethnography	6	1.26%
	Content analysis	12	2.51%
	Thematic analysis	18	3.77%
2	Quantitative		212 (44.44%)
	Descriptive Quantitative	120	25.2%
	Experimental design	62	13.0%
	Non-experimental design; correlation	30	6.28%
3	Mix Method	29	6.07%
4	Classroom action research	116	24.31%
	Total	477	100%

Table 2 above describes the distribution of student research topic choices based on research methods. Of the 4 categories of research methods chosen by students (quantitative, qualitative, mixed method, Classroom Action Research), the largest portion they chose was the quantitative research method (212 or 44.44%), followed by qualitative research methods (120 or 25.15%), Classroom Action Research (116 or 24.31%) and Mix method (29 or 6.28%). From the quantitative research category, the method most frequently chosen by students was the experimental research design (182=38.15%), followed by the classroom action research design (116 or 24.31%). Meanwhile, from the qualitative research method, the research design that was most chosen was the case study design (120 or 25.15%).

(c). *The Underlying Reasons for Choosing Research Topics and Designs*

In this section, 100 students were asked to state one of their reasons for choosing a research topic or research method that they had previously sent through the former head of the study program on their campus. This question was sent in the form of a Google form. 100 students were asked to fill out the Google form; however, only 67 participants filled out the Google form by the set date. The questions were their three main reasons for choosing the research topics and research methods they had done. The description of their response is described in the following table.

TABLE 3
THE REASONS FOR CHOOSING THE RESEARCH TOPICS AND METHOD (N=67)

No	Topics	Total	Frequency
1	Ease of retrieval of research data	55	82.10%
2	The speed of implementation of the research process	60	89.55%
3	Ease of analyzing research data	45	67.16%
4	Suggestions and input from supervisors	56	83.58%
5	Literature Accessibility/Availability	25	37.31%
6	The research Novelty	14	20.89%

According to the 67 respondents' responses, 6 factors guided their selection of study subjects and techniques. The majority of responders cited the study process' quick completion as the primary factor most frequently, which was mentioned by 60 respondents (89.55%), followed by suggestions or input from supervisors (56 or 83.58%), retrieval ease of research data (55 or 82.10%), ease of analyzing research data (45 or 67.16%), Literature accessibility/availability (25 or 37.31%), and the research novelty reason (14 or 20.89%).

TABLE 4
EFFORTS TO EQUALIZE RESEARCH IN ALL FIELDS OF RESEARCH TEACHING (N=5)

No	Topics	Total	Frequency
1	Disseminate various research methods for lecturers and students	5	100%
2	Equip students with research skills	2	40%
3	Encouraging research collaboration between lecturers and students through the subjects taught	3	60%
4	Provide funds for publication incentives in certain fields	1	20%

The initiatives taken by the study program to encourage lecturers and students to do research in the area of knowledge being studied in balance are detailed in Table 4 above. According to the information gathered, teachers and students should be informed about different research methods. Professors should also be encouraged to collaborate on research projects. Students should also be given research skills that are appropriate for the subject being taught.

B. *Discussion*

The findings of this study provide a clear description of the selection of the applied linguistics research topic, the selection of the research methodology, and the justifications for these decisions based on what students and the study program director/supervisor of the student thesis thought.

Students' research topic selection typically involves a protracted procedure (Turan & Akdag-Cimen, 2020). Students must take a lot of factors into account regarding the length of their studies and their capacity for research because they are inexperienced researchers and writers. This tendency supports the findings of numerous other studies (Zou et al., 2022; Rezlescu et al., 2020) stating that students tend to select research subjects they believe to be simple and the research procedure to be straightforward. Students also steer clear of challenging research data analysis; therefore, they tend to choose research topics that only require simple data analysis (Kalman, 2019).

Based on the research findings, students frequently select quantitative research methodologies for their projects. Naturally, this decision was made since this approach makes it easier to conclude and because conducting research usually takes less time overall (van den Berg et al., 2020). Students often frequently select research techniques that are more comfortable for them, such as testing hypotheses with statistical formulas (Wu et al., 2020). They frequently choose research techniques that demand extensive data processing. The second type of research that students are most interested in is classroom action research. Their choice of this research method is based on their familiarity with the topics they generally find in their learning process (Taategen, 2013). Similar to previous studies (Huynh et al., 2021; Mudipanu, 1989; Spiers & Riley, 2019) the findings of this study also reveal that phenomenological and ethnographic research designs receive a very small selection portion. Besides the difficulty of integrating this research design with the

topic of teaching English, these two designs were also not widely socialized either by the supervisors or in the research courses they received (Dennis & Huf, 2020).

According to the study's findings, students frequently choose their research subjects depending on how quickly they can complete the task at hand. They fear that if they pick a subject that necessitates in-depth examination, they won't be able to finish their research before the due date (Goktepe & Kunt, 2021). Additionally, it is frequently difficult for them to combine their study time with their lecture time. As a result, they frequently select study questions that just call for straightforward or descriptive data analysis. They frequently reject their supervisor's recommendations of exciting or new topics because they believe they won't be able to carry them out and complete them in time (Haim et al., 2022).

The head of the English education department needs to take numerous steps to ensure fairness in the research subjects selected by students in the field of language teaching (Zou et al., 2022). This must be performed to evenly examine, research, and develop the domains of knowledge offered in the English Language Education study program. The results of this study indicate that research dissemination to lecturers and students is necessary for English study programs to help students and lecturers make better decisions when choosing, analyzing, and researching a topic. For lecturers and students to do cooperative research on learning English, they must get joint training in conducting research. And to encourage lecturers and students to conduct research, study programs should, if at all possible, allot research funding to them.

The results of this study undoubtedly offer a fresh perspective on how to analyze, rate, and evaluate the research methods used by aspiring English teachers in Indonesia (Zein et al., 2020). The findings of this study are crucial, particularly for administrators of English education institutions who need to be able to map the research on English language instruction in their institutions (Amalia & von Korflesch, 2021). Based on the objectives of the study program, the research conducted by students should be able to contribute to innovation in research (Balchin & Wild, 2022). The results of this study represent the phenomena of English language education research in Indonesia, despite several limitations in the study's goals, subjects, and methodologies.

V. CONCLUSION

The research seeks to address the preferred research topics, the selection of research methods and designs, the justifications for selection, as well as attempts to improve the research quality as well as keep balance on the selection of topics based on the courses offered in the English education program. The study's findings show that students still select research subjects based mostly on how straightforward they are to complete, disregarding the quality of the research they generate to finish their studies more quickly. This phenomenon shows that to ensure that all applied linguistics clusters receive an equal share of research, English students' research in higher education still needs substantial attention from stakeholders, including study programs, lecturers, and students. For the results of the research to advance the advancement of teaching English in Indonesia, lecturers and academic programs should guide students to carry out studies that would be truly beneficial for enhancing Indonesia's English language instruction. Although this study's findings are very helpful to the people who are involved in English-language learning in Indonesia, it still has some limitations, particularly in terms of the application of the research methods, the number of respondents, and the data analysis that needs to be performed by future researchers.

ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

The authors wish to express their gratitude to The Research Center of Universitas Sumatera Utara which provides funding for this study under research grant No. 10489/LIPI HKI/2023. They also acknowledge the editor and reviewer team who supported to revision the article manuscript to become its present format.

REFERENCES

- [1] Al-Qatawneh, S. S., Alsalihi, N. R., Eltahir, M. E., & Siddig, O. A. (2021). The representation of multiple intelligences in an intermediate Arabic-language textbook, and teachers' awareness of them in Jordanian schools. *Heliyon*, 7(5), e07004. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.heliyon.2021.e07004>
- [2] Amalia, R. T., & von Korflesch, H. F. O. (2021). Entrepreneurship education in Indonesian higher education: mapping literature from the Country's perspective. In *Entrepreneurship Education* (Vol. 4, Issue 3). Springer Singapore. <https://doi.org/10.1007/s41959-021-00053-9>
- [3] Balchin, K., & Wild, C. (2022). Exploring the role of context and collaboration in normalizing technology use in English language teaching in secondary schools in Malaysia. *Computer Assisted Language Learning*, 35(7), 1437–1457. <https://doi.org/10.1080/09588221.2020.1803360>
- [4] Bauer-Marschallinger, S., Dalton-Puffer, C., Heaney, H., Katzinger, L., & Smit, U. (2021). CLIL for all? An exploratory study of reported pedagogical practices in Austrian secondary schools. *International Journal of Bilingual Education and Bilingualism*, 0(0), 1–16. <https://doi.org/10.1080/13670050.2021.1996533>
- [5] Çamlıbel-Acar, Z., & Eveyik-Aydın, E. (2022). Perspectives of EFL teacher trainers and pre-service teachers on continued mandatory distance education during the pandemic. *Teaching and Teacher Education*, 112. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.tate.2022.103635>

- [6] Cheon, S. H., Reeve, J., & Vansteenkiste, M. (2020). When teachers learn how to provide classroom structure in an autonomy-supportive way: Benefits to teachers and their students. *Teaching and Teacher Education*, 90(3), 103004. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.tate.2019.103004>
- [7] Dennis, B., & Huf, C. (2020). Ethnographic research in childhood institutions: participations and entanglements. *Ethnography and Education*, 15(4), 445–461. <https://doi.org/10.1080/17457823.2020.1722951>
- [8] Goktepe, F. T., & Kunt, N. (2021). “I’ll do it in my class”: novice language teacher identity construction in Turkey. *Asia Pacific Journal of Education*, 41(3), 472–487. <https://doi.org/10.1080/02188791.2020.1815648>
- [9] Haim, O., Orland-Barak, L., & Goldberg, T. (2022). The role of linguistic and cultural repertoire in novice bilingual and multilingual EFL teachers’ induction period. *International Journal of Multilingualism*, 19(1), 63–84. <https://doi.org/10.1080/14790718.2020.1715412>
- [10] AlHouli, A. I., & Al-Khayatt, A. K. A. (2020). Assessing the Soft Skills Needs of Teacher Education Students. *International Journal of Education and Practice*, 8(3), 416–431.
- [11] Huynh, V. S., Giang, T. V., Nguyen, T. T., & Dinh, D. H. (2021). Exploring the challenges of social-emotional learning integration in secondary schools: A phenomenological research in Vietnam. *Psychology Research and Behavior Management*, 14, 621–635. <https://doi.org/10.2147/PRBM.S300748>
- [12] Indrawati, S. M., & Kuncoro, A. (2021). Improving Competitiveness Through Vocational and Higher Education: Indonesia’s Vision For Human Capital Development In 2019–2024. *Bulletin of Indonesian Economic Studies*, 57(1), 29–59. <https://doi.org/10.1080/00074918.2021.1909692>
- [13] Kalman, M. (2019). “It Requires Interest, Time, Patience and Struggle”: Novice Researchers’ Perspectives on and Experiences of the Qualitative Research Journey. *Qualitative Research in Education*, 8(3), 341–377. <https://doi.org/10.17583/qre.2019.4483>
- [14] Loan, N. T. T. (2019). Reflective teaching in an EFL writing instruction course for Thai pre-service teachers. *Journal of Asia TEFL*, 16(2), 561–575. <https://doi.org/10.18823/asiatefl.2019.16.2.8.561>
- [15] Ma, Q., Tang, J., & Lin, S. (2022). The development of corpus-based language pedagogy for TESOL teachers: a two-step training approach facilitated by online collaboration. *Computer Assisted Language Learning*, 35(9), 2731–2760. <https://doi.org/10.1080/09588221.2021.1895225>
- [16] Magalhães, P., Ferreira, D., Cunha, J., & Rosário, P. (2020). Online vs traditional homework: A systematic review on the benefits to students’ performance. *Computers and Education*, 152(March 2019). <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.compedu.2020.103869>
- [17] Mudipanu K. N. (1989). Code-mixing and modernization. *World Englishes*, 8(3), 321–332.
- [18] Puad, L. M. A. Z., & Ashton, K. (2021). Teachers’ views on classroom-based assessment: an exploratory study at an Islamic boarding school in Indonesia. *Asia Pacific Journal of Education*, 41(2), 253–265. <https://doi.org/10.1080/02188791.2020.1761775>
- [19] Pustika, R. (2020). Future English Teachers’ Perspective towards the Implementation of E-Learning in the Covid-19 Pandemic Era. *Journal of English Language Teaching and Linguistics*, 5(3), 383. <https://doi.org/10.21462/jeltl.v5i3.448>
- [20] Rezliescu, C., Danaila, I., Miron, A., & Amariei, C. (2020). More time for science: Using Testable to create and share behavioral experiments faster, recruit better participants, and engage students in hands-on research. In *Progress in Brain Research* (1st ed., Vol. 253). Elsevier B.V. <https://doi.org/10.1016/bs.pbr.2020.06.005>
- [21] Saragih, E. (2019). The effect of semantic mapping technique on technical vocabulary mastery for Midwifery students. *Studies in English Language and Education*, 6(2). <https://doi.org/10.24815/siele.v6i2.14786>
- [22] Saragih, E., Zein, T. T., Sumbayak, D. M., Sumatera, U., & Utara, U. S. (2023). Contextualizing Corrective Feedback in Scientific Writing through Online Learning Platforms. *Studies in English Language and Education*, 10(3), 1216–1235.
- [23] Spiers, J., & Riley, R. (2019). Analyzing one dataset with two qualitative methods: The distress of general practitioners, and a thematic and interpretative phenomenological analysis. *Qualitative Research in Psychology*, 16(2), 276–290. <https://doi.org/10.1080/14780887.2018.1543099>
- [24] Succi, C., & Canovi, M. (2020). Soft skills to enhance graduate employability: comparing students and employers’ perceptions. *Studies in Higher Education*, 45(9), 1834–1847. <https://doi.org/10.1080/03075079.2019.1585420>
- [25] Sulistiyo, U., Haryanto, E., Widodo, H. P., & Elyas, T. (2020). The portrait of primary school English in Indonesia: policy recommendations. *Education 3-13*, 48(8), 945–959. <https://doi.org/10.1080/03004279.2019.1680721>
- [26] Supriyoko, Rochmiyati, S., Irfan, M., & Ghazali, I. (2022). Online Survey: Evaluation of Indonesian Higher Education Curriculum. *Pegem Egitim ve Ogretim Dergisi*, 12(4), 235–240. <https://doi.org/10.47750/pegegog.12.04.24>
- [27] Suryani, A. (2020). “I chose teacher education because...”: a look into Indonesian future teachers. *Asia Pacific Journal of Education*, 00(00), 1–19. <https://doi.org/10.1080/02188791.2020.1783202>
- [28] Taatgen, N. A. (2013). The nature and transfer of cognitive skills. *Psychological Review*, 120(3), 439–471. <https://doi.org/10.1037/a0033138>
- [29] Turan, Z., & Akdag-Cimen, B. (2020). Flipped classroom in English language teaching: a systematic review. *Computer Assisted Language Learning*, 33(5–6), 590–606. <https://doi.org/10.1080/09588221.2019.1584117>
- [30] van den Berg, Y. H. M., Lansu, T. A. M., & Cillessen, A. H. N. (2020). Preference and popularity as distinct forms of status: A meta-analytic review of 20 years of research. *Journal of Adolescence*, 84(June), 78–95. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.adolescence.2020.07.010>
- [31] Wu, J., Li, P., Wang, D., Ren, X., & Wei, M. (2020). Statistical and multivariate statistical techniques to trace the sources and affecting factors of groundwater pollution in a rapidly growing city on the Chinese Loess Plateau. *Human and Ecological Risk Assessment*, 26(6), 1603–1621. <https://doi.org/10.1080/10807039.2019.1594156>
- [32] Zein, S. (2016). Pre-service education for primary school English teachers in Indonesia: policy implications. *Asia Pacific Journal of Education*, 36(May 2015), 119–134. <https://doi.org/10.1080/02188791.2014.961899>
- [33] Zein, S., Sukyadi, D., Hamied, F. A., & Lengkanawati, N. S. (2020). English language education in Indonesia: A review of research (2011–2019). *Language Teaching*, 53(4), 491–523. <https://doi.org/10.1017/S0261444820000208>

- [34] Zou, D., Luo, S., Xie, H., & Hwang, G. J. (2022). A systematic review of research on flipped language classrooms: theoretical foundations, learning activities, tools, research topics, and findings. *Computer Assisted Language Learning*, 35(8), 1811–1818.



Erikson Saragih, S.Pd, M.Hum is an Associate Professor in Linguistics, at the Department of Linguistics, Faculty of Cultural Sciences, Universitas Sumatera Utara, Indonesia. Besides being active in teaching linguistic/applied linguistics-related subjects and translation, he also conducts a lot of research dealing with applied linguistics, cultures, and translation activities. He also teaches research methods and scientific writing subjects. He completed his Bachelor's degree in English Education from IKIP Medan in 1996, Master's degree in Applied Linguistics from Universitas Negeri Medan in 2014, and Doctoral degree from the Linguistic Department, Universitas Sumatera Utara, Medan majoring in Translation studies in 2017. In addition, he also has research experience in Translation studies from the University of New South Wales, Australia in 2014. At present, he is actively writing in both National accredited journals and reputable international journals.

Besides, he also actively reviews article manuscripts in 12 nationally accredited journals (Sinta 2) and 6 internationally -reputable journals (Scopus-indexed journals).



Nenni Triana Sinaga, S.S., M.Pd., is an Associate Professor in Linguistics at the English Education Study Program, Faculty of Teacher Training and Education, Universitas HKBP Nommensen, Indonesia. Besides actively teaching applied linguistics, she conducts much research on applied linguistics and culture. She completed her bachelor's degree in English literature from the faculty of literature and arts at Universitas HKBP Nommensen in 2008, her master's degree in Master of Education from Universitas HKBP Nommensen in 2011, and her Doctoral Degree from the linguistics Department at Universitas Sumatera Utara, majoring in Anthropolinguistics Studies in 2022. She has research experience in applied linguistics and actively writes in nationally accredited journals and reputable international journals. She also actively writes textbooks/books, reviews article manuscripts in nationally accredited journals, and journal manager in three journals: the

International Journal of Education, the National Journal of Education, Literature, and Culture, and the last is Journal of Community Service and Engagement.



Elina Lulu Bimawati Rumapea, S. Pd, M. Pd is an English Lecturer at STIE Petra Bitung, Indonesia. She completed a Bachelor's degree in English Education from HKBP Nommensen University Medan in 2000, Master's degree in English Education from UHN Medan in 2010.



Rohdearni Wati Sipayung, S.Pd, M.Hum as a Dean in the Faculty of Teacher Training and Education of Universitas Simalungun, Indonesia. Besides being active in teaching, she also conducts some research dealing with education and translation. She also teaches pedagogies, linguistics, and translation. She completed her S1 degree from FKIP HKBP Nommensen, Pematangsiantar in 2003, her Master's degree in Applied Linguistics from Universitas Negeri Medan in 2008, and her Doctoral degree from Linguistics Department, Universitas Sumatera Utara, Medan majoring in Translation Studies in 2016. In addition, she also has research experience in Translation Studies from Nanyang Technological University, NIE, Singapore in 2013. At present, she is actively writing in both nationally accredited journals.



Sri Ninta Tarigan, SS., M.Hum. is a Lecturer of English Education at Universitas Prima Indonesia. Besides being active in teaching English Education, she also conducts a lot of research dealing with applied linguistics, cultures, and education. She also teaches research methods and scientific writing subjects. She completed her Bachelor's degree in English literature from Universitas Katolik St. Thomas Medan Sumatera Utara in 2005 Master's degree in Applied Linguistics from Universitas Negeri Medan in 2008, and study Doctoral degree in Linguistic Department, Universitas Sumatera Utara, Medan. At present, she is actively writing in Local and National accredited journals. She is also active in writing English books for children and Literature Books for university students.



Irma Khoirot Daulay was born in Medan on March 13th, 1990. She pursued her bachelor, master and doctoral degrees from the State University of Medan. She is a Lecturer at the English Education Program in The State of Islamic University Kediri, East Java. Additionally, she teaches many subjects such as Writing, Qualitative Research Methods, Teaching English as A Foreign Language (TEFL), and Discourse Analysis in ELT. Her research interest includes Discourse analysis in ELT, Systemic Functional Linguistics, and EFL Writing. Furthermore, she received a dissertation scholarship from the Education Fund Management Agency (LPDP) in 2018 and a Young Lecturer Research grant from the Ministry of Research and Technology in 2019. In line with the lecturer's role, she is an active participant in community service and research that is indexed by Sinta and International. One of her best articles, titled "The Effect of Media Guessing Game Towards

University Students' Writing Ability on Descriptive Text Local Tourism Content" (2021), is indexed by Sinta two. Moreover, she has participated in international conferences such as the 4th International Conference on Language and Education (2018), The 2nd International Seminar on Language, Art and Literature Education (2019), The 66th TEFLIN International Conference and English Language Education Expo (2019), The 4th Annual International Conference on Language and Literature (2022) as a committee member, and the 1st Hybrid International Conference on ELT (2022).

A Critical Look at How Lecturers in Linguistics Can Leverage Generative Artificial Intelligence in Enhancing Teaching Proficiency and Students' Engagement

Shadi Majed Alshraah

English Department, Preparatory Year Deanship, Prince Sattam bin Abdulaziz University, 151 Al-Kharj 11942, Saudi Arabia

Nizaam Kariem*

English Department, Preparatory Year Deanship, Prince Sattam bin Abdulaziz University, 151 Al-Kharj 11942, Saudi Arabia

Ahmad Marzouq Alshraah

Language Center, The Hashemite University, P.O. box 330127, 13133, Zarqa, Jordan

Tahani I. Aldosemani

Prince Sattam bin Abdulaziz University, Kharj, Saudi Arabia

Khadijah AlQarni

English Language Institute, King Abdulaziz University 42801, Jeddah 21551, Saudi Arabia

Abstract—This paper focused on how lecturers in linguistics can leverage GenAI to enhance their teaching proficiency and student engagement. The paper used a quantitative approach, including 293 university lecturers teaching linguistics. The TPACK theoretical model was adopted, wherein two main segments of the theory, namely technological knowledge (TK) and technological content knowledge (TCK), were used to explore the importance of leveraging GenAI to enhance teaching proficiency. The results indicated that these tools greatly enhanced the linguistics lecturers' teaching proficiency. The study revealed that a significant majority of lecturers acknowledged using Quizizz for test and exercise generation in linguistics, followed by a substantial portion who utilized the ChatGPT series for teaching and learning enhancement without compromising academic integrity. Additionally, many lecturers reported frequent usage of Education Copilot for lesson planning and student record tracking, as well as Google Bard (now Geminin) for teaching enhancement and increased student engagement. The study also found high acceptance rates among lecturers for the effectiveness of ChatGPT, Bard, Quizizz, and Educational Copilot in translation courses, with similarly positive responses for discourse analysis courses, teaching proficiency enhancement, and student engagement across various pedagogical areas. Thus, these tools can enhance teaching and learning at the university level and students' engagement when the lecturers have the Tk and the TCK.

Index Terms—generative artificial intelligence, linguistics, students' engagement, teaching proficiency

I. STUDY BACKGROUND

According to Lim et al. (2023), systems that can generate various forms of unique material, such as text, graphics, and code, by extending the patterns learned from massive volumes of data that have been pre-trained are known as generative artificial intelligence (AI). Text-to-image generators like Dall-E and Midjourney were the initial GenAI resources to gain widespread attention; these tools encouraged users to test the limits of their newly increased creative abilities (Lan & Chen, 2024). Effectively managing the risks associated with these new technologies has the potential to improve teaching and learning, but the initial emphasis on educational honesty infractions has overshadowed this possibility. Although colleges and universities have shown reluctance to embrace new technology on occasion, teaching and learning, like the rest of daily life, need adaptability for success. Researchers have debated whether to ban students from using ChatGPT, a prominent GenAI (Gaspard-Richards, 2023).

Nevertheless, some studies have argued that schools should not have to crack down on it as they cannot keep tabs on everyone. While the second point is correct, it does not constitute the main argument against banning some GenAI, such

* Corresponding Author

as ChatGPT. In the first place, GenAI technologies like ChatGPT have the potential to revolutionize higher education, mainly in teaching and learning. In addition to the realm of higher education, they have become an integral part of the daily lives of both students and lecturers. The educational system underpins the real opportunity to make the most of AI's capabilities in the classroom.

Generative AI constantly improves its capacity to emulate human communication, the basis for teaching and learning, via pattern detection, imitation, and probability. Although pattern recognition and imitation are building blocks for many types of intelligence, they are just the beginnings and not the ends. As a result, GenAI integration has the potential to enhance linguistics lecturers' teaching proficiency and further develop their patterns of engagement with students. With little human intervention, GenAI systems may produce many representations, such as text, graphics, and more, to facilitate teaching and learning in the higher educational system.

This paper focuses on unveiling the strategic importance of GenAI in enhancing the teaching proficiency of lecturers in linguistics and how GenAI can help students further develop patterns for engagement through chatbots and interactive systems. The paper is mainly aimed at analysing specific areas in which lecturers in linguistics can leverage GenAI to enhance their teaching proficiency, mainly in the use of GenAI models such as ChatGPT models, Google Bard (now Gemini), and others as teaching aids, as assessment and evaluation tools, in helping the lecturers set personalized feedback systems, and in other areas. The study remains significant as it contributes to the ongoing discourse on the importance of generative AI in enhancing lecturers' and students' teaching and learning experiences. It also contributes to the studies on how artificial intelligence models have impacted educational activities at the university level.

II. REVIEW OF THE LITERATURE

A. *Generative Artificial Intelligence in Linguistics; a Foundational Review*

The transforming nature of the GenAI field is a topic that draws the attention of many scientists, including linguists. GenAI will change the landscape of language teaching and learning; hence, a careful analysis of its foundations and implications in education is necessary, especially, in the technology revolution. This paper focused on the critical components of GenAI, how its use in education is still controversial, and the positive impact of GenAI on linguistics pedagogy. GenAI is a term for algorithms that can produce natural-like linguistic outputs, like text, speech, and code generation. Advocates like Salina-Navarro et al. (2024) pointed out that it can help with personalized learning. AI-powered programs can design lessons and learning experiences tailored to all students' preferences and capabilities, outperforming traditional learning approaches. In addition, AI can offer instant feedback on pronunciation, grammar, and the mechanics of writing, thus, facilitating instructors' focus on higher-order thinking skills and enabling them to create an active learning environment for all students (Liu et al., 2023).

The application of GenAI in the linguistics education area requires an in-depth investigation to explore how GenAI can deal with the complicatedness of the human tongue, including sociolects, pragmatics, and the history of its development. According to Kadaruddin (2023), GenAI can be a helpful tool for generating authentic language materials and immersing learners in different speech environments. In contrast, Nyaaba et al. (2023) further assert that most GenAI models only address the superficial elements of language, disregarding the profound social and cultural components that form the basis of linguistic proficiency. Further, the ethical aspects of applying GenAI in education must be considered. Specific GenAI platforms' proprietary algorithms and data collection practices raise student privacy issues and possible bias (Nyaaba, 2023; Gimpel et al., 2023).

Indeed, exploring the connection between GenAI, fairness, and pedagogy is indispensable. Nasir and Javid (2024) proposed adding fairness metrics to GenAI algorithms and AI curriculum design to minimize bias risk. According to Nasir and Javed (2024), a human-centered approach in which GenAI supports, but does not substitute, lecturers are recommended to ensure that the human dimension is retained in linguistics instruction. GenAI is a potent educational tool that enhances the teaching excellence of linguistics lecturers and fosters student involvement. Apart from the advantages for the students highlighted above, GenAI can contain a plethora of tools to be used to improve the lecturer's practice and make the learning process effective and enjoyable. One more aspect is directly connected to the individual learning routes. GenAI can evaluate student data, including course results, test papers, and discussions, to understand individual strengths and weaknesses. Equipped with this information, lecturers can integrate Gen AI into their curriculum by designing tailored learning materials, suggesting specific exercises, and suggesting supplementary resources that meet the needs of each student. This ensures a more diverse learning environment, whereby students work more deeply with challenges that match their abilities (Healy, 2023).

Interestingly, GenAI reduces the monotony of repetitive tasks, permitting lecturers time for more creative tasks. GenAI can take over the dull automatic grading of quizzes and essays that lecturers commonly have to handle. Although it is not a replacement for rich feedback on advanced thinking and in-depth arguments, GenAI-powered grading can become an essential layer of evaluation in the process, providing a space for lecturers to work with students on argument structure, language comprehension, presentation of theses, and cohesiveness (Law, 2024; Baidoo-Anu et al., 2023; Nyaaba, 2023). Equally paramount are the benefits to the student's engagement (Amresh, 2023). GenAI has the potential to create a pool of learning environments that are interactive, responsive, and adaptable to any learning style (Petrovska et al., 2024). AI-driven simulations have become an option that can take students to any era of history

and cultural environment, allowing them to immerse themselves in the specificities of language use over time and space (Benmamoun, 2023).

B. Findings of Previous Studies on GenAI in Education

According to Ally (2019), the rapid transition of learning into the era of digital technology necessitates significant shifts in how lecturers perceive and implement technology in their lessons. To get a sense of the recommended abilities lecturers would need to fulfil the requirements of future-oriented education, Liu et al. (2023) surveyed 34 professionals in educational technology from six different nations and collected their written comments. These findings informed the development of the "Competency Profile for the Digital Teacher (CPDT) 2030," which comprises nine domains and 105 individual skills. The recommended qualities included proficiency in performing duties in virtual settings, digital literacy, exceptional interpersonal abilities, personality adaptability, open-mindedness, eagerness to learn about and utilize assistive multimedia technologies, and the capacity to produce and modify digital learning materials.

Artificial intelligence (AI) stands apart from other types of educational technology due to its intrinsic complexity, breadth of use, and novelty. Other kinds of technology often had specific, well-defined functions. Kaplan-Rakowski et al. (2023), based on their review of papers dating back to 2000, determined that the first study on lecturers' active engagement in GenAI usage for instructional purposes began in 2004, with the most significant increase in studies occurring in 2018.

Although studies on lecturers' perspectives on artificial intelligence in education have appeared since 2020, there still needs to be more research in this field, mainly in teaching and learning at the university level. Lan and Chen (2024) employed a modified version of the Technology Acceptance Model (TAM) to investigate how Chinese university professors feel about AI in the classroom. They augmented the initial TAM scale with two more components. According to Lan and Chen (2024), the updated scale retained the traits of perceived utility, perceived ease of use, attitudes towards usage, and behavioural intention to use while adding anxiety and self-efficacy as new components. Two critical results from the new scale were that attitudes towards use had the most deciding power among these factors and that nervousness, self-assurance, perceived value, perceived simplicity of utilization, and attitudes towards use predicted 70.4% of changes in behavioural intention to use. In order to change lecturers' attitudes regarding the use of AI and increase their tendencies toward AI technology adoption, Wang et al. (2021) suggested investing in professional development opportunities.

Diwan et al. (2023) surveyed Serbian foreign language lecturers to assess their knowledge of artificial intelligence (AI), how often they used AI in the classroom, and their expectations compared to their actual experiences with the technology. According to the results, a favourable relationship exists between lecturers' perceptions of artificial intelligence in education, their chances of encountering it, and their behavioral intentions to include AI in their lessons. Consistent with previous research, the internal impediments included a need for more knowledge of AI and its educational applications, differences of opinion on the best way to teach or incorporate AI into existing curricula, and a lack of self-assurance or interest in using AI.

C. Theoretical Framework for the Study

Mishra and Koehler's Technological Pedagogical and Content Knowledge (TPACK) framework (2006) provides a powerful tool for lecturers in linguistics to analyze the challenges and opportunities that are associated with the usage of Generative AI (GenAI) to improve their proficiency as lecturers and increase a student's engagement. TPACK is aligned with TK, PK, and CK by focusing on an exact concrete framework to explore more GenAI tools and sound teaching techniques. Various aspects of the theory form the basis for the adoption, as explained:

- a) **Technological Knowledge (TK) and GenAI Tools:** When discussing the TPACK framework, TK comes as the first core domain. This component indicates the instructor's knowledge and skills in technology. In the context of TK and GenAI, this means knowing different generative AI applications and having the skills and the ability to choose from the many available AI tools that have different language-teaching capabilities. In this context, this study analyzes the features of various AI platforms, including automated pronunciation feedback systems, interacting grammar drills, or AI-powered live conversations. Lecturers with sufficient TK can only make the correct choice of GenAI tools that align with their way of teaching and prove to be productive as far as the condition of the linguistic concept of students is concerned (Chan, 2023).
- b) **Pedagogical Knowledge (PK) and Designing Engaging Activities:** In this domain, lecturers demonstrate their proficiency in various teaching approaches and efficiency in delivering learning outcomes. PK delivers powerful tools to the lecturers to create entertaining and interactive activities that best explain the functioning of the AI platform. For example, a student-centered interactive lecturer with developed PK may allow AI agents to interact with students in role plays, where communication skills can be practiced in simulated real scenarios (Weller, 2023). The technology has been used innovatively, guided by proven educational principles. This facilitates adopting new teaching approaches, allowing deeper engagement with the subject matter (Liu et al., 2023).
- c) **Content Knowledge (CK) and the Nuances of Linguistics:** The last building block, CK, is a lecturer's profound comprehension of their instructional content. In linguistics, this comprises an understanding of linguistic theories, historical language development, sociolinguistics, and other applicable subfields. High-quality CK is essential for the lecturers to harvest the AI-generated content and ensure it is appropriate for the learning goals.

III. STUDY METHODOLOGY

A. Study Approach

This paper adopts a quantitative research approach to survey how linguistics lecturers can leverage GenAI to enhance teaching proficiency and improve learners' engagement. According to Creswell (2014), the quantitative study approach offers researchers the tools to evaluate a topic from an objective point of view using non-sentimental data that will be subjected to statistical treatment. To understand how leveraging GenAI can enhance the teaching proficiency of university lecturers in linguistics and increase the engagement skills of their students, there is a need to carry out a survey based on the various units of the TPACK theory, assessing the participants' views using statistical measures.

B. Study Questions

The following research question formed the basis for the data collection and analysis:

1. In what ways does linguistics lecturers' technological knowledge (TK) of the GenAI impact their teaching proficiency?
2. In what manner does linguistics lecturers' technological pedagogical knowledge (TCK) of the GenAI facilitate their appropriate integration of GenAI tools to enhance students' engagement and improve proficiency in teaching linguistics courses?

C. Study Sampling

Randomisation has become a common sampling strategy for scientific studies, wherein researchers select their sample population based on a random process. The sample was selected from forty universities offering linguistics courses in a separate department. The participants are lecturers who have been in the academic industry for at least four years and are mainly linguistics lecturers, although some teach foreign languages and translation. Through this process, a total of 293 lecturers participated in the study. The table below summarises their demographic information.

TABLE 1
DEMOGRAPHIC VARIABLES OF THE STUDY PARTICIPANTS

Variable	Group	Repetition	Percentile
Gender	Male	109	37.21%
	Female	184	62.79%
Age	30-39	52	17.74%
	40-49	114	38.91%
	50 years and above	127	43.35%
Academic Qualifications	Masters	54	18.44%
	PhD and above	239	81.56%
Academic Ranking	Graduate Assistant	47	16.05%
	Researcher	69	23.55%
	Senior Lecturer	98	33.44%
	Professor	79	26.96%

Table 1 offers a clear understanding of the demographic variables of the participants in the study of how GenAI impacts the teaching proficiency of lecturers in linguistics and influences students' engagement. The results in the table suggest that there are more female participants (62.79%) than male participants (37.21%). This percentile dominance by female lecturers can be attributed to different factors, including the fact that recruitment methods and discipline may influence gender distribution. The data also contains details about the age distribution of the participants. The data reveals that most participants are mid-career, with the largest groups within the age bracket of 50 years and above at about 43%, and those aged 40–49 fall within 39% of the study population. The participants below that bracket comprise about 17.74% of the total population.

Furthermore, the results revealed that the participants are highly experienced professionals in linguistics pedagogy, mostly PhD holders, senior lecturers, and professors. The demographic data offered a clear picture of the pool of participants with a strong foundation in linguistic content, technological, and pedagogical knowledge. The focus on senior lecturers and professors suggests a strong interest in analysing how GenAI can be leveraged to improve lecturers' teaching proficiency in linguistics. These demographic features have set the standard for applying TPACK in analysing and answering the research questions.

D. Study Tools and Administration

A survey was administered to collect data from the study population through this quantitative study approach. Google Forms was used to design a questionnaire fully anchored on the three main models of the TPACK theory. The questionnaire was segmented into four main parts, wherein the first part included the relevant demographic features of the participants. The second part is based on six study questions derived from participants' technological knowledge (TK) in evaluating how they understand and use the GenAI models in academic activities. The third part of the survey contains five questions anchored on content knowledge (CK), while the fourth section includes five questions on technological content knowledge (TCK). A consent form to participate in the study was attached to the survey. The surveys used a four-point Likert scale (strongly agree, SA.; agree, A; disagree, D; and strongly disagree, SD) to explore

participants' attitudes. To ensure the validity and reliability of the survey items, the researchers engaged linguistics professors who were not part of the study population to evaluate the items' reliability to elicit data that could answer the research questions.

E. Data Treatment and Analysis

The choice of a survey questionnaire directly necessitates using statistical tools to analyse the collected data. As such, all the collected data were subjected to statistical measures, including calculating the percentile values of the Likert scales and the mean and standard deviation of the measuring items. All the results are presented in descriptive statistics tables and charts. The presentation is followed by a detailed analysis of the presented data, which includes an assessment of the implication of the findings about TPACK, which is the adopted theoretical framework in the study.

IV. RESULTS AND DISCUSSIONS

A. Results

The collected data results are presented and analysed in connection to the three TPACK models: the TK, CK, and TCK. As such, the presentation of the results is segmented into three sections, which also reflect the three research questions.

(a). Results of the Surveys on Technological Knowledge

The first research question is the basis for developing six survey questions that explore the technological knowledge of the lecturers who participated in the study, mainly regarding the usage and importance of GenAI models in enhancing teaching proficiency. The results are summarised in Figures 1 and 2 and Table 2 below.

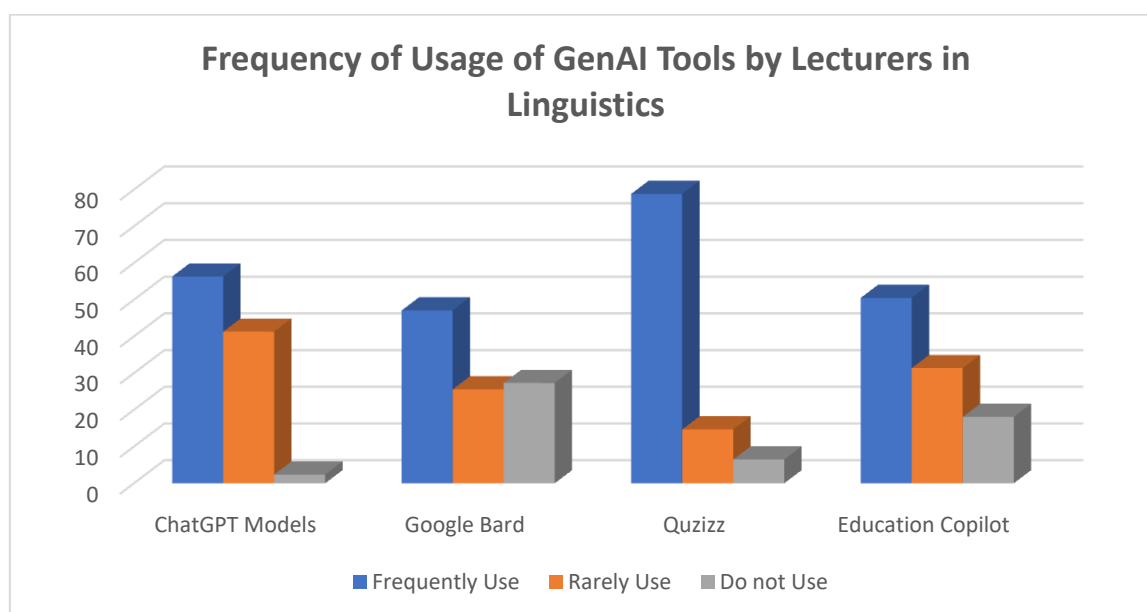


Figure 1. Results of the Survey Item "I Understand How to Use GenAI Models to Enhance Teaching Activities, Mainly in Developing Personalised Learning Materials, Customised Exercises, Tailored Quizzes, and Save Time"

Figure 1 summarises the frequency of usage of the GenAI tools employed by lectures. Over 78% of the lecturers accepted that they frequently use Quizizz to generate tests and exercises in linguistics. This is followed by more than 56% of the lecturers who admitted that they frequently use the ChatGPT series, including the main ChatGPT and ChatGPT-4, for enhancing the teaching and learning of linguistics courses without compromising academic integrity. Over 50% of the lecturers also agree that they frequently use Education Copilot, another GenAI, for lesson plans and tracing students' academic records to enhance teaching and learning. More than 47% further agreed that they frequently use Google Bard, recently renamed Geminin, to enhance teaching and improve student engagement. Most of these GenAI tools function as chatbots wherein lecturers can generate relatively accurate information for course plans and contents, tracking students' academic performance and other activities to enhance teaching proficiency.

Interestingly, over 27% of the lecturers affirm that they never used Google Bard for any activity to enhance teaching. Only 2.39% of the lecturers said they never used ChatGPT, 6.49% said they never used Quizizz, and 18.09% said they never used Education Copilot. Generally, most lecturers have technological knowledge (TK) of using GenAI models to enhance and improve teaching proficiency.

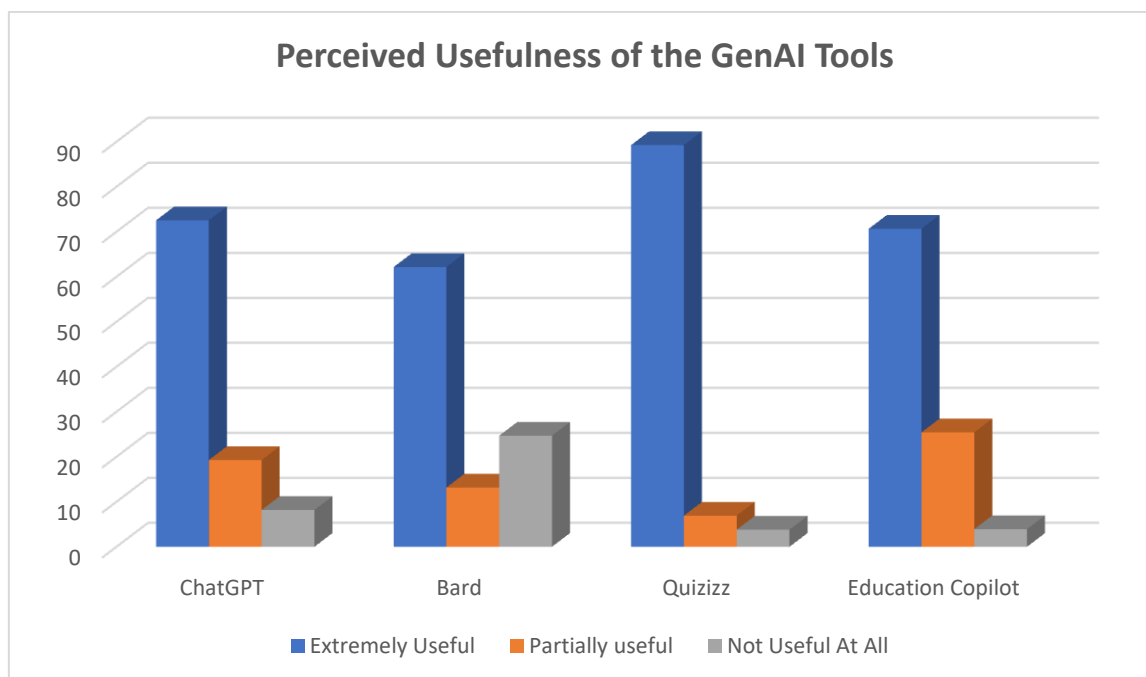


Figure 2. Results of the Question “These GenAI Tools Are Very Helpful in Enhancing Teaching Proficiency”

Figure 2 summarises the results of the usefulness of the GenAI tools in enhancing the teaching proficiency of the lecturers in linguistics. The results suggest that the most useful GenAI, according to the lecturers, is Quizizz, wherein about 89.27% of the study population affirmed that it is instrumental in enhancing teaching proficiency. This is closely followed by ChatGPT at 72.54%, Education Copilot at 70.66%, and Bard at 62.15%. These results generally indicated that the lecturers affirm how useful the GenAI tools have been in enhancing their teaching proficiency in linguistics. The results also indicated that the negative attitude in the academic circle towards the adoption and usage of AI tools by university lecturers is gradually changing.

Furthermore, over 24% of the lecturers affirm that Bard could be more useful in enhancing their teaching proficiency. The result is surprising as both Bard and ChatGPT are primarily chatbots. Although more than 25% of the study population affirmed that Education Copilot is not very useful in enhancing teaching proficiency, only 3.92% affirmed that this GenAI is not applicable.

TABLE 2
RESULTS OF OTHER QUESTIONS ON THE LECTURERS' TECHNOLOGICAL KNOWLEDGE OF GENAI

Survey Items	A %	SA %	N %	D %	SD %	Mean	Std. Dev
My knowledge of the usage and usefulness of the GenAI tools have improved by teaching capability	76.95	7.33	4.37	10.18	5.54	4.93	0.86
Using the GenAI tools have helped me to tailor academic activities to specific students' needs	80.11	6.85	5.22	6.13	1.69	4.99	0.81
GenAI tools have enabled me to have digital teaching assistants, which help in assessments, setting quizzes, and marking papers.	83.64	9.22	1.17	3.57	2.4	5.32	0.61
Embracing the technological knowledge of GenAI has enhanced my teaching proficiency, even in lesson planning	76.36	15.33	2.06	4.14	2.11	5.29	0.68

Table 2 clearly explains the growing importance of GenAI tools in academia. The results indicated that the lecturers clearly understood the usage and usefulness of these tools in enhancing their academic activities. More than 84% of the lecturers who participated in the survey affirm that their knowledge of the usage and usefulness of the GenAI tools has improved through teaching skills. Only 15.72% of the participants disagreed and strongly disagreed that their knowledge of the application and usefulness of these tools enhanced their teaching skills, indicating that some academics still have a negative attitude towards adopting and using these tools for academic engagement. Similarly, more than 86% of the study participants accepted that using the GenAI tools has helped them tailor academic activities to specific students' needs. One of the challenges of the traditional teaching method is the inability to design academic systems and activities that cater to the specific needs of different students. The lecturers generally accepted that GenAI has helped them overcome this limitation, enhancing their teaching proficiency.

Interestingly, more than 92% of the lecturers agreed that GenAI tools have enabled them to have digital teaching assistants, which aid in assessments, quizzes, and paper marking. Assessment of academic activities, developing quizzes, and marking papers are core academic activities that consume lecturers' time. As such, through the knowledge and usage of these GenAI tools, the teaching proficiency of the lecturers has improved. Only 5.97% refuted this statement,

indicating strong acceptance of the statement with a mean value and standard deviation of 5.32 and 0.61, respectively. Finally, almost 92% of the lecturers agreed that embracing GenAI's technological knowledge has improved their teaching proficiency, even in lesson planning. They indicated that GenAI tools such as Educational Copilot facilitated the planning, development, and integration of lesson activities, which help lecturers develop lesson plans and tailor academic activities to the needs of individual students.

(b). Results of the Research Question on Technological Content Knowledge (TCK)

The second research question explores how the lecturers' technological content knowledge facilitates the effective integration of GenAI tools to enhance students' engagement and improve proficiency in teaching linguistics courses. To address the second research question, we thoroughly examined TK's concerns. Findings revealed that lecturers possess a solid understanding of GenAI tools, actively utilize them, and acknowledge their effectiveness in improving teaching quality and fostering student engagement. There is a need to investigate further how the lecturers' TK impacts their content knowledge. In other words, how does their knowledge of the GenAI tools impact their teaching of linguistics courses and affect students' engagement in those courses? The focus was on grammar (morphology, phonology, and syntax), discourse analysis, and translation. The chart and table below summarise the results.

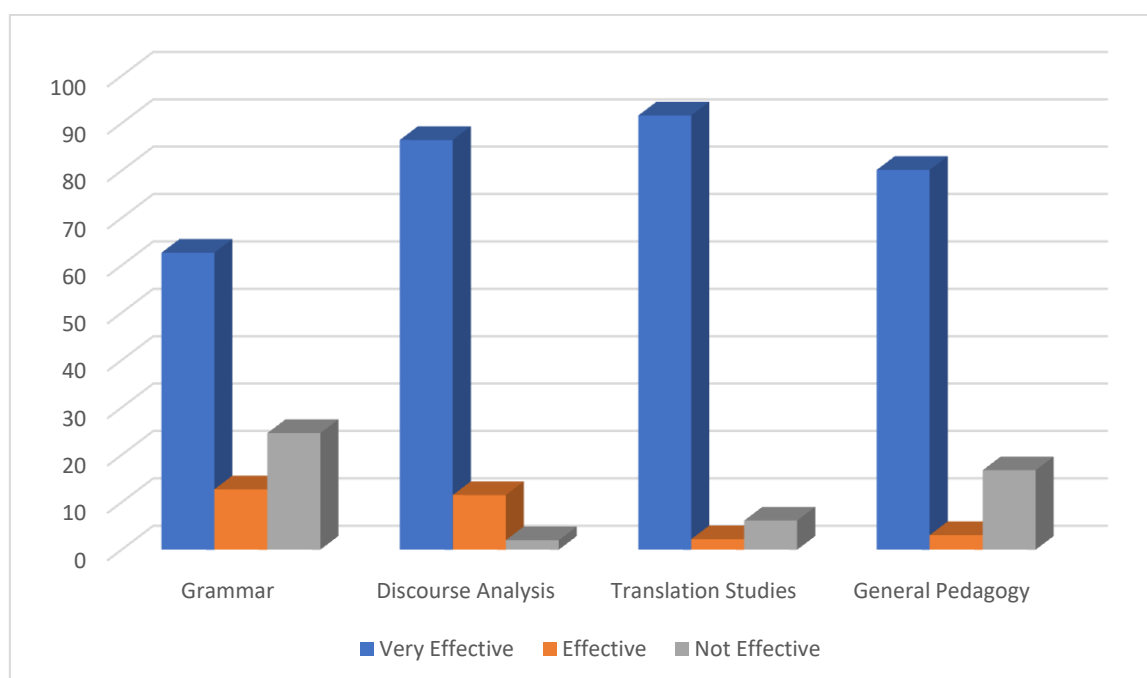


Figure 3. Results of the Efficiency of GenAI Tools in Teaching Linguistics Courses

The results in Figure 3 indicate that the GenAI tools, according to the 293 lecturers who participated in the study, are very effective in all the linguistics courses in the study survey. About 91.63% of the study population accepted that ChatGPT, Bard, Quizizz, and Educational Copilot are very effective in translation courses. This implies that these GenAI tools effectively enhance lecturers' proficiency and students' engagement in translation courses. This is closely followed by discourse analysis courses, including pragmatics, wherein 86% of the lecturers affirm that these tools are very effective. More than 80% agreed that the tools are very effective in enhancing teaching proficiency and students' engagement in general pedagogy, while 62.66% accepted that these tools are effective in grammar. It is important to emphasize that more than 24% of the participants think these tools are ineffective in enhancing grammar teaching.

In comparison, 16.77% stated that the tools are ineffective in general pedagogical concerns. Only 1.99% stated that these tools do not enhance lecturers' proficiency and students' engagement in discourse analysis courses. In comparison, 6.15% noted that the GenAI tools are ineffective in translation courses.

TABLE 3
RESULTS OF OTHER SURVEY ITEMS IN RELATION TO TCK

Survey Items	A %	SA %	N %	D %	SD %	Mean	Std. Dev
My knowledge of GenAI tools have facilitated teaching linguistics courses	85.29	4.63	1.37	5.28	3.43	5.07	0.74
When I began to utilise GenAI tools, my proficiency in different pedagogical practices in linguistics improved	80.11	4.85	5.22	8.13	1.69	5.02	0.84
Through the use of GenAI tools, my students' systems of engagement began to improve.	63.64	29.22	1.18	3.56	2.4	5.31	0.76
It is generally important to consider ethical issues and academic integrity when leveraging GenAI tools to enhancing teaching proficiency	56.36	35.33	2.06	4.14	2.11	5.29	0.78

Table 3 offers an understanding of the importance of technological content knowledge in assessing the importance of GenAI in enhancing lecturers' teaching proficiency and improving students' engagement. The results indicated that over 89% of the lecturers accepted that their knowledge of GenAI tools has facilitated teaching linguistics courses, and over 84% think that when they began to utilize GenAI tools, their proficiency in different pedagogical practices in linguistics improved. Also, almost 93% of the participants agreed and strongly agreed that through the using of GenAI tools, their students' systems of engagement began to improve. In comparison, more than 91% accepted that it is generally necessary to consider ethical issues and academic integrity when leveraging GenAI tools to enhance teaching proficiency. Generally, it could be seen that linguistics lecturers' technological pedagogical knowledge (TCK) of GenAI facilitates their effective integration of GenAI tools to enhance students' engagement and improve proficiency in teaching linguistics courses.

B. Discussion of Findings

Generative Artificial Intelligence (GenAI) tools have the potential to effectively enhance the teaching proficiency of lecturers in linguistics and increase students' engagement. The analysis results indicated that the lecturers understand the technological knowledge required to use GenAI tools to enhance their teaching proficiency and improve students' engagement. The results indicated that over 78% of the lecturers accepted that they frequently use Quizizz for generating tests and exercises in linguistics. This is followed by more than 56% of the lecturers who admitted that they frequently use the ChatGPT series, including the main ChatGPT and ChatGPT-4, for enhancing the teaching and learning of linguistics courses without compromising academic integrity. These findings are similar to those of Kohnke et al. (2023), who indicated that academics extensively utilize ChatGPT to enhance teaching proficiency. Over 50% of the lecturers also agree that they frequently use Education Copilot, another GenAI, for lesson plans and tracing students' academic records to enhance teaching and learning. More than 47% further agreed that they frequently use Google Bard, recently renamed Geminin, to enhance teaching and improve student engagement. Most of these GenAI tools function as chatbots, wherein lecturers can generate relatively accurate information for course plans and contents, track students' academic performance, and engage in other activities to enhance teaching proficiency. According to Hwang and Chen (2023), using chatbots powered by AI models has helped lecturers improve the quality of assessments and enhance their teaching skills, mainly by saving time and effort. Dai et al. (2023) also summarized that GenAI tools have become essential for lecturers in their day-to-day tasks.

Interestingly, over 27% of the lecturers affirm that they never used Google Bard for any activity to enhance their teaching. Only 2.39% of the lecturers said they never used ChatGPT, 6.49% said they never used Quizizz, and 18.09% said they never used Education Copilot. Overall, it is evident that most lecturers possess technological expertise in using GenAI models to enhance their teaching proficiency and improve student learning outcomes.

These findings further offered clear insights into the first research question, indicating that technological knowledge (TK) is fully required to explore the advantages of GenAI in enhancing linguistics lecturers' teaching proficiency. The data further indicated that more than 84% of the lecturers who participated in the survey affirmed that their knowledge of the usage and usefulness of the GenAI tools has improved through teaching skills. Only 15.72% of the participants disagreed and strongly disagreed that their precise knowledge of the application and usefulness of these tools enhanced their teaching capability, indicating that some academics still have a negative attitude towards adopting and using these tools in academic engagement. Similarly, more than 86% of the study participants accepted that using the GenAI tools has helped them tailor academic activities to specific students' learning needs. One of the challenges of the traditional teaching method is the inability to design academic approaches and activities that cater to the specific needs of different students. The lecturers generally accepted that GenAI has helped them overcome this limitation, enhancing their teaching proficiency.

Applying the TPACK theory in this study has provided a valuable tool to evaluate how Gen AI can enhance lecturers' proficiency in teaching linguistics courses. This is more evident in response to the second research question. The results expressly indicated that 91.63% of the study population generally accepted that ChatGPT, Bard, Quizizz, and Educational Copilot are very effective in translation courses. This implies that these GenAI tools effectively enhance lecturers' proficiency and students' engagement in translation courses. This is closely followed by discourse analysis courses, including pragmatics, wherein 86% of the lecturers affirm that these tools are very effective. More than 80%

agreed that the tools are very effective in enhancing teaching proficiency and students' engagement in general pedagogy, while 62.66% accepted that these tools are effective in grammar. It is important to emphasize that more than 24% of the participants think these tools are ineffective in enhancing grammar teaching. In comparison, 16.77% stated that the tools are ineffective for general pedagogical concerns. Only 1.99% stated that these tools do not enhance lecturers' proficiency or students' engagement in discourse analysis courses. In comparison, 6.15% noted that the GenAI tools are ineffective in translation courses.

These findings are similar to those of Kaplan-Rakowski et al. (2023), who highlighted the unique areas of language study in which GenAI can facilitate teaching and learning. However, the results, in general, contradict the findings of the study conducted by Chan (2023), Chan and Hu (2023), Law (2024), and Lim et al. (2023). These studies directly suggested that most lecturers at various universities exhibited absolute negative attitudes towards the use of GenAI tools in both teaching and learning. Sogut (2024) summarized that integrating any of the features of GenAI in the education system impacts academic honesty and requires clear usage policies and guidelines for faculty and students. On the contrary, the findings by Baidoo-Anu and Ansah (2023) concluded that embracing GenAI tools and other technological tools by lecturers has been revolutionary, providing solutions to almost all the limitations of traditional teaching methods and tools.

V. CONCLUSIONS

This paper focused on how lecturers in linguistics can leverage GenAI to enhance their teaching proficiency and student engagement. The aim was to analyze the importance of accepting generative artificial intelligence tools as significant instruments for enhancing teaching skills and increasing students' engagement. The paper used a quantitative approach, including 293 university lecturers teaching linguistics courses across different universities in a survey. The TPACK theoretical model was adopted, wherein two main segments of the theory, namely technological knowledge (TK) and technological content knowledge (TCK), were used to explore the importance of leveraging GenAI to enhance linguistics lecturers' teaching skills.

The results indicated that these tools greatly enhanced the linguistics lecturers' teaching skills. Findings are consistent with Alshraah et al. (2024), who stated that "in educational landscapes where students possess differing levels of language proficiency, lecturers must adeptly manage this heterogeneity in order to provide equal learning opportunities" (p. 656). It showed that over 78% of the lecturers agreed that they frequently use Quizizz to generate tests and exercises in linguistics. This is followed by more than 56% of the lecturers who admitted that they frequently use the ChatGPT series, including the main ChatGPT and ChatGPT-4, for enhancing the teaching and learning of linguistics courses without compromising academic integrity. Over 50% of the lecturers also agree that they frequently use Education Copilot, another GenAI, for lesson plans and tracing students' academic records to enhance teaching and learning. More than 47% further agreed that they frequently use Google Bard, recently renamed Gemini, to enhance teaching and improve student engagement. Most of these GenAI tools function as chatbots, wherein lecturers can generate relatively accurate information for course plans and contents, track students' academic performance, and engage in other activities to enhance teaching proficiency.

An array of implications is evident in the study. First, the results showed that lecturers gradually accepted the positive impacts of GenAI in the educational system with recommendations to maintain academic integrity. The results indicated that the lecturers openly accept and adopt these technological tools in different areas of their pedagogical engagements. Second, the results indicated that these GenAI tools are revolutionizing the patterns of language teaching at the university level. Several limitations of traditional methods and tools have been mitigated by integrating these AI systems into teaching and learning. Thus, these tools can enhance teaching and learning at the university level and students' engagement when the lecturers have the TK and the TCK.

The study on using generative AI (GenAI) tools by linguistics lecturers presents several implications and recommendations for future practice and research. First, it establishes the impact of these resources on teaching effectiveness and student involvement, turning pedagogy into practices that are more interactive and reactive. Lecturers' widespread utilization points to a growing tendency to expand their application in educational settings, thus confirming the need for strong technological abilities as emphasized by TPACK.

To this end, institutions should consider implementing digital literacy training programs for all faculty members so that all can access these advancements equally. Furthermore, GenAI education can be included in the teaching practice as another way in which teachers can strengthen their integration of these systems into teaching approaches. Additional studies should investigate how GenAI affects teaching with reference to long-term development via longitudinal studies as well as qualitative analyses aimed at capturing the subtler aspects of this process.

Nonetheless, limitations such as its exclusive focus on language learning and specific forms of artificial intelligence software, among others, have been faced by this study, which relied solely on quantitative data, with the need for future studies to include control groups or possible biases found in self-reported measures. Moreover, future research should extend across disciplinary boundaries, involving multiple AI technologies and using both qualitative and quantitative research strategies to fully explore how academia is impacted by GenAI tools. Further still, since there is a higher incorporation of these tools within teaching and learning systems, creating guidelines on the ethical use of AI within educational contexts becomes essential to maintaining academic integrity.

ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

This study is supported via funding from Prince Sattam bin Abdulaziz University project number (PSAU/2024/R/1445).

REFERENCES

- [1] Alshraah, S. M., Issa, S. H., Migdadi, H. F., & Nishat, A. S. (2024). Enhancing Pedagogical Strategies for Multilingual Classrooms in Foreign Language Education: Training Lecturers for Linguistic Diversity and Language Variation. *Journal of Language Teaching and Research*, 15(2), 654-663.
- [2] Al Yakin, A., Muthmainnah, M., Apriani, E., Obaid, A. J., & Elngar, A. A. (2023). Transforming Online Learning Management: Generative Models on ChatGPT to Enhance Online Student Engagement Scale (OLE). *Idarah (Jurnal Pendidikan dan Kependidikan)*, 7(2), 135-148.
- [3] Amresh, A. (2023). Leveling Up Education: Harnessing Generative AI for Game-Based Learning. *Proceedings of the 16th Annual ACM India Compute Conference*, 8(2), 142-161. <https://doi.org/10.1145/3627217.3631585>.
- [4] Baidoo-Anu, D., & Ansah, L. O. (2023). Education in the era of generative artificial intelligence (AI): Understanding the potential benefits of ChatGPT in promoting teaching and learning. *Journal of AI*, 7(1), 52-62.
- [5] Benmamoun, M. (2023). Reinventing International Business Education: Integrating the Power of Generative AI. *AIB Insights*, 6(2), 163-176. <https://doi.org/10.46697/001c.90397>.
- [6] Chan, C. K. Y. (2023). A comprehensive AI policy education framework for university teaching and learning. *International journal of educational technology in higher education*, 20(1), 38-52.
- [7] Chan, C. K. Y., & Hu, W. (2023). Students' voices on generative AI: Perceptions, benefits, and challenges in higher education. *International Journal of Educational Technology in Higher Education*, 20(1), 43-57.
- [8] Dai, Y., Liu, A., & Lim, C. P. (2023). Reconceptualizing ChatGPT and generative AI as a student-driven innovation in higher education. *Procedia CIRP*, (11)9, 84-90.
- [9] Diwan, C., Srinivasa, S., Suri, G., Agarwal, S., & Ram, P. (2023). AI-based learning content generation and learning pathway augmentation to increase learner engagement. *Computers and Education: Artificial Intelligence*, 15(2), 654-663.
- [10] Gaspard-Richards, D. (2023). Reflections on the use of Generative AI, Technology Tools, Mobile Applications and Sharing Perspectives from Lecturers and Stakeholders in the Teaching and Learning process. *International Journal of Education and Development using Information and Communication Technology*, 19(3), 3-8.
- [11] Gimpel, H., Hall, K., Decker, S., Eymann, T., Lännermann, L., Mädche, A., ... & Vandrik, S. (2023). *Unlocking the power of generative AI models and systems such as GPT-4 and ChatGPT for higher education: A guide for students and lecturers* (No. 02-2023). *Hohenheim Discussion Papers in Business, Economics and Social Sciences*, 19(2), 601-616.
- [12] Healy, M. (2023). Using Curriculum Theory to Inform Approaches to Generative AI in Schools. *ArXiv*, abs/2309.13053, 8(2), 754-769. <https://doi.org/10.2139/ssrn.4564372>.
- [13] Hwang, G. J., & Chen, N. S. (2023). Editorial position paper: Exploring the potential of generative artificial intelligence in education: Applications, challenges, and future research directions. *Educational Technology & Society*, 26(2), 18-37.
- [14] Kadaruddin, K. (2023). Empowering education through generative AI: Innovative instructional strategies for tomorrow's learners. *International Journal of Business, Law, and Education*, 4(2), 618-625.
- [15] Kaplan-Rakowski, R., Grotewold, K., Hartwick, P., & Papin, K. (2023). Generative AI and lecturers' perspectives on its implementation in education. *Journal of Interactive Learning Research*, 34(2), 313-338.
- [16] Kohnke, L., Moorhouse, B. L., & Zou, D. (2023). Exploring generative artificial intelligence preparedness among university language lecturers: A case study. *Computers and Education: Artificial Intelligence*, 5(2), 554-573.
- [17] Lan, Y. J., & Chen, N. S. (2024). Lecturers' agency in the era of LLM and generative AI. *Educational Technology & Society*, 27(1), I-XVIII, 36(2), 154-167.
- [18] Law, L. (2024). Application of Generative Artificial Intelligence (GenAI) in *Language Teaching and Learning: A Scoping Literature Review*, 73(2), 254-267. [10.13140/RG.2.2.15263.33445](https://doi.org/10.13140/RG.2.2.15263.33445).
- [19] Lim, W. M., Gunasekara, A., Pallant, J. L., Pallant, J. I., & Pechenkina, E. (2023). Generative AI and the future of education: Ragnarök or reformation? A paradoxical perspective from management lecturers. *The international journal of management education*, 21(2), 100-118.
- [20] Liu, M., Ren, Y., Nyagoga, L. M., Stonier, F., Wu, Z., & Yu, L. (2023). Future of education in the era of generative artificial intelligence: Consensus among Chinese scholars on applications of ChatGPT in schools. *Future in Educational Research*, 1(1), 72-101.
- [21] Mishra, P., Warr, M., & Islam, R. (2023). TPACK in the age of ChatGPT and Generative AI. *Journal of Digital Learning in Teacher Education*, 39(4), 235-251.
- [22] Nasir, A., & Javed, T. (2024). *Enriching the Quality of Education Through Implementation of Generative Artificial Intelligence*, 43(4), 435-451.
- [23] Nyaaba, M. (2023). Driving Educational Change in Ghana: The Role of Generative AI in Promoting Practical-Based Teaching and Assessment Methods. *EdArXiv. November*, 59(4), 735-751.
- [24] Nyaaba A. B., Nyaaba, M., & Nabang, M. (2023). Perceptions and Preparedness: Exploring Teacher Lecturers' Views on Integrating Generative AI in Colleges of Education, Ghana. *Matthew and Nabang, Macharious, Perceptions and Preparedness: Exploring Teacher Lecturers' Views on Integrating Generative AI in Colleges of Education, Ghana (November 3, 2023)*, 19(8), 135-149.
- [25] Petrovska, O., Clift, L., Moller, F., & Pearsall, R. (2024). Incorporating Generative AI into Software Development Education. *Proceedings of the 8th Conference on Computing Education Practice*, 99(4), 35-56. <https://doi.org/10.1145/3633053.3633057>.
- [26] Ruiz-Rojas, L. I., Acosta-Vargas, P., De-Moreta-Llovet, J., & Gonzalez-Rodriguez, M. (2023). Empowering education with generative artificial intelligence tools: Approach with an instructional design matrix. *Sustainability*, 15(15), 11-28.

- [27] Salinas-Navarro, D. E., Vilalta-Perdomo, E., Michel-Villarreal, R., & Montesinos, L. (2024). Using Generative Artificial Intelligence Tools to Explain and Enhance Experiential Learning for Authentic Assessment. *Education Sciences*, 14(1), 83-96.
- [28] Söğüt, S. (2024). Generative artificial intelligence in EFL writing: A pedagogical stance of pre-service lecturers and teacher trainers. *Focus on ELT Journal*, 6(1), 58-73.

Shadi Majed D. Alshraah, Ph.D. is Jordanian who is currently a lecturer at Prince Sattam bin Abdulaziz University (PSAU), Kharj, Kingdom of Saudi Arabia. He has 12 years of experience as a lecturer in the English department and a two-year experience as an English teacher in the Ministry of Education, Jordan. He holds PhD in linguistics from University of Sains Islam Malaysia (USIM). He obtained his master's and bachelor's degree in applied Linguistics from Jordan University of Science and Technology (JUST), Irbid, Jordan. His interests revolve around pragmatics, socio-pragmatic, and teaching English as a second/foreign language (ESL/EFL). Affiliation: | Prince Sattam bin Abdulaziz University (PSAU), EMAIL: s.alshraah@psau.edu.sa. <https://orcid.org/0000-0003-4656-2917>

Nizaam Kariem is currently a lecturer at Prince Sattam bin Abdulaziz University (PSAU), Kharj, Kingdom of Saudi Arabia. He has 20 years of experience as a lecturer in the English department in King Saud University and PSAU. His interest is in ESP, sociolinguistics and sociopragmatics and education.

Ahmad Marzouq Alshraah is currently a lecturer at The Hashemite University, Language Center. He has 15 years of experience as a lecturer in the Arabic department at Hashemite University. He holds MA and PhD in Arabic syntax. His interest is in linguistics and education. His address is P.O. box 330127, 13133, Zarqa, Jordan. Email: Ahmad_ashraah@hu.edu.jo

Tahani I. Aldosemani is an associate professor of Educational Technology and Instructional Design at Prince Sattam bin Abdulaziz University, Saudi Arabia. She also serves as Program Director for Skills and Lifelong Learning at the Education and Training Commission in Saudi Arabia. She is a Certified Professional in Talent Development from the Association of Talent Development, an alumnus of the MIT Digital Transformation program, and holds a certificate in Online Learning Global Leadership from the Online Learning Consortium. She earned her PhD from the University of Wyoming, USA in 2014. Dr. Aldosemani's research interests include distance online education tools, resources and approaches, instructional design, open educational courses and resources, virtual environments, and skills development.

Khadijah ALQarni is a full-time English Language Instructor who was working at the ELI of King Abdulaziz University, Jeddah, KSA. She has almost seven years of experience in teaching the foundation year students. She obtained a bachelor's degree in English Language from University of Tabuk with an excellent evaluation and a class honor. She is highly interested in different fields of language study such as linguistics, computational linguistics, teaching English as a second/foreign Language. khadijahalqarni2015@gmail.com. <https://orcid.org/0009-0004-1861-5289>

Navigating the Gray Zone: When Interpreters Become Mediators and Communication Facilitators

Obaida Almommani

Department of English Language & Literature, Al-Ahliyya Amman University, Amman, Jordan

Abstract—Beyond the realm of mere word-for-word translation, interpreters often find themselves traversing the delicate terrain of communication facilitation and mediation. This article delves into the intricate dance between interpreting and these additional roles, exploring the factors that propel interpreters into the mediator's shoes and the subsequent challenges they face. The article dissects the circumstances that necessitate an interpreter's shift from neutral conduit to active mediator. Cultural clashes, implicit biases, and emotional undercurrents can all trigger this transition, demanding the interpreter to navigate sensitive dynamics and bridge communication gaps that extend beyond language. The article then grapples with the question of control: What elements of this mediation role can be consciously managed and overcome by the interpreter, and which ones remain stubbornly embedded in the communication landscape, posing significant hurdles? This nuanced analysis sheds light on the interpreter's agency and limitations within the complex realm of cross-cultural communication. By examining the gray zone between interpreting and mediation, this article offers valuable insights for both interpreters and those who rely on their expertise. It paves the way for a deeper understanding of the multifaceted nature of interpreter roles and the challenges that come with navigating the delicate dance between languages and cultures.

Index Terms—interpreter, mediation, communication facilitator, cultural clashes, cross-cultural communication

I. INTRODUCTION

While interpreters and mediators play seemingly distinct roles in facilitating communication across languages and cultures, the lines between them can sometimes blur. Interpreters may find themselves adopting mediatory behaviors for various reasons, leading to questions about the overlap and potential boundaries between these professions. This paper explores the nuances of interpreter overreach into mediation, examining both avoidable and inevitable factors contributing to this phenomenon.

It is crucial to recognize that mediation in interpreting contexts should not be conflated with the core function of interpreting itself. Mediation represents an additional and arguably distinct service that addresses communication gaps beyond the scope of an interpreter's ethical and professional code (Jongsma, 2009; Pöchlacker, 2011). This distinction arises from the fundamental difference in their goals: whereas interpreters strive for linguistic accuracy and neutrality, mediators focus on empowering clients, facilitating informed decision-making, and navigating cultural complexities (Martín & Phelan, 2009; Angelelli, 2006). So, it is worth mentioning that while both may involve bridging cultural barriers, the approaches differ. Interpreters typically expect participants to ask clarifying questions, fostering a dialogical process, while mediators might proactively provide explanations to address potential misunderstandings (Lee, 2013). According to Hale (2007), interpreters hold a crucial role in bridging communication gaps amidst cultural clashes or linguistic discrepancies. When faced with situations where participants struggle to understand each other due to conflicting cultural beliefs, practices, or a lack of linguistic equivalents, interpreters can, with the explicit consent of all parties involved, facilitate effective communication by offering cultural insights or assisting in the development of explanations comprehensible to everyone. This intervention can prove invaluable in overcoming roadblocks in communication and fostering mutual understanding (Hale, 2007).

Comprehending the factors propelling interpreter overreach into mediation is essential for promoting effective communication and upholding professional boundaries. Subsequent sections will delve deeper into these factors, differentiating avoidable cases arising from training gaps or personal inclinations from those rooted in inherent limitations of language translation in complex intercultural contexts.

II. MAPPING THE INTERPRETER: DEFINITIONS & ROLES

Interpreters and mediators, though often intertwined in practice, fulfill distinct and complementary roles across various settings. While bilingualism might be a prerequisite, it alone does not qualify someone as either (Witter-Merithew et al., 2004). Generalist interpreters, defined as possessing "more than superficial knowledge and competence to accurately and reliably interpret a wide range of low-risk communication interactions" (Witter-Merithew et al., 2004),

primarily focus on bridging language barriers. Their core responsibility lies in accurate and nuanced conveyance of the source language message, ensuring completeness and faithfulness (Wadensjö, 2008). This doesn't translate to word-for-word replication but rather a meticulous transfer of meaning and intent (Baker, 2005). By doing so, interpreters enable effective communication between individuals who wouldn't otherwise understand each other.

Pöchhacker maintains that competence in both languages and cultures involved is paramount for interpreters (Pöchhacker, 2016). They must possess strong listening and comprehension skills and the ability to accurately interpret what they hear and translate it into the target language while adhering to the nuances of both cultures (Nunan, 2004). In this regard, Mart ín & Phelan state that preparation for a specific assignment is crucial, encompassing relevant terminology and, ideally, background information about the context (Mart ín & Phelan, 2009).

Furthermore, interpreters need a clear understanding of their professional boundaries and adherence to ethical codes (Jongsma, 2009). While core principles like accuracy, objectivity, impartiality, and confidentiality are common across codes of ethics, cultural and regional variations exist, necessitating careful consideration (Waddock, 2010).

While the code of ethics serves as a valuable guide, outlining expected conduct and providing frameworks for navigating unexpected ethical dilemmas, it's crucial to remember that it's not a foolproof solution to every predicament (Pym, 2010). As Lee aptly emphasizes, interpreters must possess critical thinking skills to identify and address ethical dilemmas responsibly, even when equipped with a code (Lee, 2013). This point becomes particularly salient when considering the concerns that arise when interpreters assume mediatory roles without proper training or awareness. According to Hale, untrained interpreters are less likely to appreciate the nuances of the code and its implications in such situations, potentially leading to violations of professional boundaries and jeopardizing the accuracy and impartiality of communication (Hale, 2007).

Mikkelsen (2008) aptly highlights the interpreter's "difficult role" of faithfully portraying the speaker's intention, emphasizing accuracy beyond mere word-for-word translation (2008, p. 115). This focus on meaning aligns with ethical codes that guide interpreters to maintain impartiality and neutrality. However, Wadensjö argues that interpreters are not simply translating; they are actively performing actions on behalf of others, including persuading, agreeing, explaining, and even lying (1998). This raises the question: if interpreters act on behalf of others, does that make them mediators rather than interpreters?

In the context of medical settings, this line can become particularly nuanced. While interpreters should primarily focus on accurate language facilitation, situations may arise where a client's well-being is at risk. In such instances, stepping into a mediatory role to protect the client might be ethically justifiable. Hale suggests that interpreters may act as advocates to address mistreatment or abuse, for example, by alerting supervisors to patterns of disrespect towards patients (as cited in Hale, p. 6). However, this intervention should be approached with caution. Organizations like the International Medical Interpreters Association (IMIA) and the National Council on Interpreting in Health Care (NCIHC) emphasize that advocacy and intercultural mediation should only be undertaken when necessary for effective communication and with careful professional judgment (IMIA, 2006; NCIHC Health Care Standards of Performance). Interpreters are not cultural experts, and offering unsolicited advice can be detrimental, potentially providing inaccurate information and jeopardizing the client's case (ITIA).

The key lies in maintaining a clear distinction between interpretation and mediation. Interpreters should primarily focus on bridging the language gap and refraining from providing personal opinions or advice. This ensures impartiality and protects both the client and the service provider. As the IMIA and NCIHC guidelines state, interpreters "will not interject personal opinions or counsel patients" and should "limit their professional activity to interpreting" (IMIA, 2006; NCIHC Health Care Standards of Performance).

III. THE MEDIATOR ROLE IN INTERPRETING: BEYOND LANGUAGE FACILITATION

While professional interpreters play a crucial role in bridging language gaps, "ad-hoc" interpreters within familial or social networks often emerge in scenarios where individuals lack proficiency in the dominant language. These untrained individuals, operating outside professional frameworks, are frequently referred to as mediators (Gim énez Romero, 1997). However, their function extends beyond mere language translation, venturing into the realm of cultural brokerage and conflict prevention.

In medical settings, for example, mediators act as cultural bridges, facilitating communication between patients and service providers. They help service providers understand cultural nuances that might impact the interpreting process and, ultimately, the overall healthcare experience (Gim énez Romero, 1997). Additionally, they can empower patients by informing them about their entitlements, navigating the healthcare system, and encouraging them to voice concerns (Mart ín & Phelan, 2009).

Beyond facilitating communication, mediators can foster respect and trust between parties by meeting individually beforehand, especially when dealing with diverse linguistic backgrounds. However, it's crucial to remember that their role primarily focuses on cultural brokering, not language translation, as effective mediators require specific knowledge and skills. They must be familiar with mediation methodologies and possess a keen understanding of how culture and contextual factors influence interactions (Mart ín & Phelan, 2009). Additionally, they should be adept at handling pressure, particularly in situations involving heated arguments or sensitive topics.

Unlike interpreters, who are expected to remain neutral, mediators can offer opinions and evaluate situations. This inherent subjectivity, however, highlights a potential drawback. Moreover, unlike professional interpreters, whose knowledge and judgment are honed through extensive training and experience, mediators' assessments may not always be grounded in solid expertise. Service providers should, therefore, consider this potential knowledge gap when weighing advice or opinions offered by mediators on culture-related issues.

Furthermore, the impartiality of mediators, often friends, family members, or relatives, is another key distinction from trained interpreters. Their personal connection can lead to bias, potentially alienating service providers and compromising the patient's empowerment (Martín & Phelan, 2009). Therefore, it is always recommended that even trained mediators should be mindful of this bias and avoid assisting close relatives or friends to maintain impartiality.

Finally, the emphasis on cultural understanding in mediation can sometimes come at the expense of translation accuracy. Mediators, not necessarily possessing the same level of language proficiency and terminology knowledge as professional interpreters, might prioritize facilitating communication over verbatim translation. This can lead to inaccuracies and misunderstandings, further emphasizing the distinct roles and skillsets of interpreters and mediators.

IV. FORMS OF MEDIATION IN INTERPRETING CONTEXT

Mediation is a complex process that can take many forms in interpreting sessions. Interpreters may need to mediate between different parties, cultures, or even languages. While both interpreters and mediators aim to empower, their approaches differ. Interpreters strive for neutrality, intervening only to prevent conflict arising from cultural misunderstandings. Mediators, conversely, may advocate for the service recipient, ensuring their needs and concerns are heard (Martín & Phelan, 2009). Some common forms of mediation include:

- a) **Intervening in the topic of interpreting:** This may involve clarifying or rephrasing what has been said or providing additional information that is relevant to the interpretation. For example, an interpreter might need to explain a cultural reference that is not familiar to one of the parties involved (Lee & Slotte, 2012).
- b) **Further explanation of issues they come across in the course of interpreting:** This could include explaining the meaning of a particular term or phrase or providing background information on a topic that is being discussed. For example, an interpreter might need to explain the legal system in their country to a foreign visitor (Gonzalez, 2013).
- c) **Advocacy of a certain idea, advocacy of client:** Interpreters may sometimes need to advocate for a particular idea or position or for the interests of their client. This should always be done in a neutral and objective manner, and the interpreter should avoid expressing their own personal opinions or beliefs (American Psychological Association, 2017).
- d) **Expressing one's own opinion in relation to the interpreting topic:** In some cases, it may be appropriate for an interpreter to express their own opinion on a topic that is being discussed. However, this should only be done if it is clear that the interpreter is not taking sides or trying to influence the outcome of the conversation (Bowen, 2016).
- e) **Offering help in issues not related to the interpreting assignment:** Interpreters may sometimes be asked to provide help or advice on issues that are not related to their interpreting assignment. For example, an interpreter might be asked to help a client find a doctor or lawyer (Chiu, 2010).
- f) **Sympathising or desympathising with the client:** Interpreters should avoid expressing sympathy or antipathy for any of the parties involved in an interpreting session. This could bias their interpretation and make it difficult for them to remain neutral (Jarvis, 2014).

It is worth mentioning that mediation is not always necessary or appropriate in interpreting sessions. In some cases, it may be best for the interpreter to simply provide a neutral and objective interpretation of what is being said. However, in other cases, mediation may be essential for ensuring that the communication is clear and effective.

V. THE COMPLEMENTARY ROLES OF INTERPRETING AND MEDIATION IN CROSS-CULTURAL COMMUNICATION

Effective communication across cultural and linguistic barriers is crucial in various settings and situations. While interpreting and mediation often appear intertwined, they represent distinct yet complementary roles that enhance communication and facilitate conflict resolution. The following sections explore the importance of both interpreting and mediation, clarify their roles, and highlight the potential pitfalls of conflating them.

A. Interpreting as a Tool to Bridge the Language Gap

While mediators navigate the complexities of cross-cultural communication through interpretation and opinion, interpreters, on the other hand, focus on the technical precision of language translation. Their primary role is to ensure clear and nuanced communication of verbal and nonverbal messages between individuals who speak different languages (Baker, 2005; Pöchhacker, 2016). This meticulous approach involves paying close attention to cultural nuances, idiomatic expressions, and nonverbal cues to faithfully convey the intended meaning (Nunan, 2004; Wadensjö, 2008). When it comes to healthcare, this attention to detail becomes particularly crucial, as interpreters play a vital role

in ensuring patients understand medical information, consent to procedures, and actively participate in their care (Lee & Joo, 2017; Purnell & Paulanka, 2005).

B. Mediation as a Bridge to Understanding

While skilled interpreters bridge language barriers, mediators take communication a step further, acting as facilitators and helping individuals express concerns, navigate cultural differences, and reach mutually agreeable solutions (Jongsma, 2009; Mart  & Phelan, 2009). Baker (2011) maintains that interpreters' expertise extends beyond language translation, encompassing conflict resolution strategies, cultural awareness, and active listening. In healthcare settings, this expanded skillset proves invaluable. Mediators can assist patients and providers in understanding diagnoses, treatment options, and the cultural values surrounding illness and communication (Betancourt et al., 2003; Green & Bouleware, 2013). For instance, as Dohan et al. highlights, a mediator might help an elderly Russian patient's family understand the cultural implications of disclosing a cancer diagnosis and facilitate effective communication with the healthcare provider.

C. Collaboration and Confusion

While both interpreting and mediation are essential for effective cross-cultural communication, confusion can arise regarding their distinct roles. The terms "interpreter", "cultural mediator", and "intercultural mediator" are often used interchangeably in countries like France and Italy, blurring the lines between language and cultural facilitation (P chhacker, 2008). This confusion can lead to misunderstanding and underutilization of each role's unique skills. For instance, relying solely on an interpreter to address cultural differences might overlook the need for conflict resolution strategies provided by a mediator.

D. Harmonious Collaboration

To optimize communication and conflict resolution, interpreting and mediation should be seen as complementary rather than alternative approaches. Mediators can effectively prepare both interpreters and clients for potential cultural misunderstandings, ensuring accurate and culturally appropriate communication (Hale, 2007). Additionally, interpreters can provide essential language support during mediation sessions, facilitating the exchange of information and emotions. This collaborative approach can significantly enhance understanding, build trust, and pave the way for successful conflict resolution.

VI. FACTORS PUSHING INTERPRETERS INTO MEDIATOR ROLES

Interpreters navigate language gaps, but additional elements can push them into a mediatory stance. These include both linguistic and non-linguistic challenges, coupled with varying interpretations of interpreter and mediator roles and the interpreter's commitment to their ethical guidelines. Such factors may include:

A. Linguistic Factors

While interpreters strive for neutrality, certain linguistic factors can subtly nudge them towards a mediating role in an interpreting session (Waddock, 2010). One such factor is ambiguity in language. Words and phrases often hold multiple meanings (Baker, 2011), requiring the interpreter to choose the most fitting based on context. This choice, however, can inadvertently influence the speaker's message, potentially leaning toward an interpretation favored by the interpreter (P chhacker, 2016). For example, translating "He made a strong statement" could carry various nuances, ranging from highlighting conviction to implying aggression, depending on the interpreter's chosen vocabulary and emphasis (Wolf, 2004).

Cultural and idiomatic expressions present another challenge. Literal translations often fail to capture their true essence (Lee, 2011), forcing the interpreter to adapt or explain, potentially reshaping the message for better cultural resonance (Pym, 2010). The wording of these adaptations can subtly influence the tone and intent of the original message, pushing the interpreter towards a mediating role (Baker, 2011). For example, translating "He's pulling my leg" as a metaphor for joking might differ depending on the target culture's understanding of "leg pulling," potentially altering the perceived humor or seriousness of the statement (Nunan, 2004).

Power dynamics reflected in language use can also nudge interpreters towards mediation. An interpreter might unconsciously find themselves "softening" the language of a lower-ranking speaker to avoid conflict or misunderstanding with a higher-ranking one (Waddock, 2010). This "smoothing" process, while aiming for politeness, can subtly alter the power dynamics at play, blurring the interpreter's neutral position (Baker, 2011). For instance, a speaker's clenched fists and raised voice while saying "I disagree" might be translated with a neutral tone and open body language by the interpreter, aiming to de-escalate the situation and bridge the emotional gap (Tannen, 1994).

Finally, emotional language can trigger the interpreter's empathy, leading them to soften phrases or add qualifiers to the translated message (P chhacker, 2016). While this protects the recipient from harsh emotions, it can also dilute the impact of the original message's tone and intent (Baker, 2011). Wolf (2004) gives an example and argues that translating "I'm absolutely furious!" to "He seems quite upset" might downplay the speaker's anger, inadvertently shaping the audience's emotional response and minimizing the potential for conflict resolution.

B. Extra-Linguistic Factors

The role of an interpreter is often viewed as a technical feat – the seamless transfer of words from one language to another. However, the reality is far more nuanced. Often, interpreters find themselves entangled in a web of **extra-linguistic factors** – cultural expectations, emotional undercurrents, power imbalances – that push them beyond mere translation. The following sections examine these invisible forces, uncovering how they can propel an interpreter from a neutral channel to an active mediator, navigating delicate situations and influencing outcomes.

(a). Interpreter-Related Factors

While interpreters play a crucial role in facilitating communication across linguistic and cultural barriers, there can be instances where they overstep their boundaries and venture into mediation territory. This phenomenon can be attributed to a range of interpreter-related factors, including:

1. Personal Competence

An interpreter's personal competence, a blend of emotional intelligence and cultural awareness, can unexpectedly propel them into a mediator role. High emotional intelligence, as Angelelli (2006) notes, can evoke a strong desire to address emotional undercurrents and conflicts beyond mere translation, blurring the lines between facilitation and dispute resolution. Similarly, deep cultural understanding, while invaluable, can lead to misinterpreted boundaries, as Mart ın and Phelan (2009) suggest, causing interpreters to unintentionally wade into cultural mediation during client interactions. Thus, these valuable personal strengths, while crucial for effective interpretation, also hold the potential to subtly shift the interpreter's role, demanding careful navigation of the complex landscapes of communication.

2. Professional Attitudes

While professional qualities like empathy and client engagement are crucial for effective interpretation, they can also subtly push interpreters towards unexpected mediation roles. This potential shift can be influenced by several factors, including over-identification of an interpreter, lack of professional boundaries, and professional self-efficacy. For one thing, interpreters who form strong bonds with clients ("over-identification", as Jongsma (2009) terms it) may feel compelled to extend beyond mere linguistic accuracy, offering unsolicited advice or even acting as peacemakers. For another thing, those with ambiguous professional boundaries (Pöchhacker, 2011) can morph into cultural advisors or confidantes, blurring interpreters with advocates. Moreover, interpreters lacking confidence in their translation skills ("professional self-efficacy" in Author, 2012) might resort to mediation as a way to patch communicative holes, using non-linguistic interventions to smooth interactions. In such cases, noble professional attitudes, like empathy and a desire to help, can unintentionally push interpreters into roles beyond their intended scope.

3. Interpreter's Personal Experience

Such extra-linguistic factors include both life experiences and personal biases. The personal tapestry of an interpreter can unexpectedly unravel into unexpected mediation. Interpreters with a history of navigating cultural misunderstandings or conflicts might feel uniquely equipped to intervene, potentially blurring the lines between their lived experiences and professional responsibilities (Wadensjö 2008). However, these experiences can also harbor unseen biases, as Lee (2013) warns. Unconscious leanings towards either party can lead interpreters to overstep their role, potentially favoring one client over the other or subtly influencing the communication flow in an unwarranted manner. Thus, while personal experiences can enrich interpretation, they can also present a delicate tightrope walk between empathy and unintended influence.

4. Inadequate Language or Interpreting Skills

This includes hiring unqualified interpreters, interpreters with limited vocabulary, and translation errors. The delicate line between interpretation and mediation can be easily blurred by the limitations of some interpreters. Unqualified individuals, often hired solely on bilingualism (Jongsma, 2009), can struggle with inaccuracies and misunderstandings, prompting them to clarify meaning and unintentionally step into a mediator role. This is further exacerbated by the lack of regulations in many countries (Jongsma, 2009), allowing anyone with basic language skills to enter the field. Then, the limited vocabulary adds another layer of complexity, as interpreters might resort to paraphrasing or explanations that unintentionally alter the message or inject personal interpretations (Nunan, 2004). Furthermore, unintentional translation errors can even trigger conflict and necessitate mediation as interpreters attempt to repair miscommunication and clarify messages (Baker, 2005). Thus, without proper qualifications, fluency, and accuracy, interpreters can unknowingly drift into a mediator role, highlighting the importance of stringent regulations and professional development within the interpreting field.

5. Lack of Competence, Training, or Guidance

This includes lack of competency of the interpreter, inadequate training of interpreters, and lack of institutional support. While professional attitudes and interpersonal skills can push interpreters towards mediation, even competent interpreters can be pulled into the role due to external factors. Inadequate training in professional boundaries, ethical considerations, and clear distinctions between interpreter and mediator roles can leave interpreters susceptible to

overstepping their mandate (Waddock, 2010). Similarly, a lack of institutional support, with organizations failing to provide clear guidelines and resources, can contribute to confusion and role ambiguity, leading to unintentional mediation (Jongsma, 2009). This is why professional organizations like IMIA and CIOL emphasize continuous assessment and adherence to ethical codes, and frameworks like the "Entry-to-Practice Competencies for ASL-English Interpreters" (Witter-Merithew & Johnson, 2005) prioritize areas like professionalism and ethical knowledge. Ultimately, ensuring clarity in roles, providing adequate training, and offering institutional support is crucial in preventing unintended mediation and safeguarding the ethical practice of interpretation.

(b). Client-Related Factors

Such factors mainly evolve around the educational background of the client. Martín and Phelan (2009) argue that a client's education level can significantly impact the interpreting process. Interpreters must adjust their strategies based on the client's vocabulary and comprehension level. Clients with higher education may require less explanation, while those with lower levels may benefit from a more mediatory approach to bridge conceptual gaps.

(c). Service Provider-Related Factors

Such factors mainly evolve around the speaker's consistency. The consistency of the service provider's speech also plays a crucial role. Clear and organized speakers allow for accurate interpretation, while inconsistent speakers with erratic ideas or vague language can necessitate a more detective-like approach from the interpreter (Pöchhacker, 2011). In such cases, deciphering intent, inferring meaning, and bridging logical gaps can blur the lines between interpretation and mediation, potentially straining the interpreter's ethical boundaries.

(d). Awareness Level of the Interpreter's Role by Either Party Involved in the Process of Interpreting

The awareness level of the interpreter's role by either party involved in the process of interpreting is another factor that can be taken into consideration. Beyond language barriers, interpreters navigate a complex landscape of expectations and misconceptions surrounding their role. These can inadvertently push them into a mediator role, potentially compromising ethical boundaries and hindering effective communication.

(e). Client and Service Provider Misconceptions About the Interpreter's Role

Clients and service providers often hold inaccurate beliefs about interpreter roles. Mistaking them for advocates or advisors can be detrimental. Clients might expect embellishments, biased translations, or even personal opinions from the interpreter, blurring the lines between neutrality and advocacy (Angelelli, 2008). This pressure to take sides can compromise the interpreter's ethical obligation to remain impartial and deliver accurate information. As Angelelli (2008) aptly points out, "reconciling the ethical principle of impartiality" becomes challenging when interpreters are expected to act as advocates or social workers within healthcare settings (p. 150).

Similarly, service providers might unintentionally involve interpreters in mediation duties. Asking them to explain cultural nuances, handle emotional outbursts, or navigate tense situations can overburden them with tasks beyond their core function. While interpreters can certainly contribute to building rapport and understanding, they should not be burdened with resolving conflicts or acting as therapists (Pöchhacker, 2016).

So, preventing unintended mediation hinges on clear communication and education for both clients and service providers. The interpreter's core purpose must be established upfront to bridge the language gap with accuracy and impartiality. Pre-assignment briefings outlining interpreter roles and limitations can set expectations and avoid misunderstandings. Additionally, training clients and service providers on the interpreter's ethical code, especially neutrality and confidentiality, fosters trust and respect. During sessions, consistently reminding everyone of the interpreter's role and encouraging direct communication between clients and service providers keeps the focus on accurate language transfer and optimized interactions. By taking these proactive steps, we can empower interpreters to excel in their core role and prevent unintentional forays into mediation.

By emphasizing the interpreter's commitment to neutrality, professionalism, and their specific skillset, we can ensure they remain focused on their primary task: facilitating accurate and unbiased communication between parties who do not share a common language. This empowers everyone involved to engage in constructive communication and work towards mutually beneficial outcomes.

(f). Level of Adherence to the Codes of Ethics

While interpreter codes of ethics prioritize neutrality and impartiality (Jongsma, 2009), their application in real-world scenarios can inadvertently push interpreters towards mediation or communication facilitation due to several factors. The first relates to cultural explanation. Encouraged by some codes, this practice blurs the lines during sensitive topics as interpreters navigate complex cultural nuances beyond simply conveying words (Lee, 2013). Wadensjö (2008) maintains that this "fixing" of communication, emphasized in some codes, involves actions like paraphrasing, smoothing awkwardness, and filling cultural gaps. So, while facilitating understanding, these actions deviate from the ideal of pure information transfer.

Furthermore, confidentiality requirements can unwittingly place interpreters in mediator roles. Trusting their neutral position, parties may confide in them, potentially influencing outcomes and blurring the lines between facilitator and

mediator (Pöchhacker, 2011). This gap between the ethical ideal and real-world application necessitates recognizing this nuance. Both interpreters and users of interpreting services require effective navigation of these situations while minimizing potential bias and undue influence (Jongsma, 2009).

In essence, interpreter codes of ethics, despite striving for neutrality, can, through factors like cultural explanation, communication "fixing," and confidentiality, nudge interpreters towards mediating and facilitating roles. Recognizing this is crucial for ensuring effective communication and minimizing unintended consequences.

(g). Ideologies and Beliefs of Interpreters

Intermediaries in cross-cultural communication, interpreters often navigate a complex landscape where language is just one layer of understanding. Beyond technical proficiency, their personal ideologies and beliefs can significantly influence how they approach their role, potentially pushing them towards a more mediatory function. Here's how interpreter ideologies and beliefs can shape their mediatory role:

1. Ideological Alignment and Bias

Interpreters' own ideologies and biases, while ideally minimized, can influence their interpretation and communication, potentially leading to unintentional mediation (Pöchhacker, 2018). For example, an interpreter with strong political views might unintentionally soften or amplify certain messages based on their alignment with the speaker's ideology. This can create tension and necessitate a conscious effort to maintain neutrality and avoid influencing the outcome of the interaction.

2. Cultural Sensitivity and Empathy

Interpreters with strong cultural awareness and empathy may naturally gravitate towards resolving misunderstandings and facilitating cultural bridges (Hammer, 2019). In addition to that, understanding the cultural context of messages and the underlying values of participants can help them identify potential conflicts and bridge communication gaps. For example, an interpreter familiar with the collectivist values of a particular culture might interpret a seemingly direct statement as a nuanced expression of concern, preventing misunderstandings (Ting-Toomey, 1985).

3. Personal Values and Moral Compass

Interpreters' personal values and ethical beliefs can influence their decisions when faced with ethical dilemmas or conflicting perspectives (Adler & Jönsson, 2012). For instance, an interpreter with strong human rights beliefs might feel compelled to advocate for a client facing discrimination, even if it goes beyond strict language translation. This can lead to them taking on a more mediatory role, facilitating fair communication and addressing underlying power imbalances.

So, it is important to note that the extent to which interpreter ideologies and beliefs influence their mediatory role varies depending on individual characteristics, context, and training. Moreover, maintaining neutrality and professionalism should remain paramount, with conscious effort required to avoid imposing personal beliefs on the interpretation process.

VII. CONCLUSION

Venturing beyond the confines of mere translation, interpreters often find themselves traversing the complex and dynamic terrain of communication facilitation and mediation. This article has illuminated the intricate dance between these roles, highlighting the factors that nudge interpreters towards the mediator's shoes, from cultural clashes and implicit biases to emotional undercurrents. By demystifying the gray zone between these professions, we gain a deeper understanding of the multifaceted nature of interpreter roles and the critical contribution they make to bridging cross-cultural communication gaps.

However, the journey doesn't end with recognizing diverse roles. Embracing the distinctness and, crucially, the complementarity of interpreters and mediators paves the way for a future where communication across divides flourishes. In healthcare settings, for instance, recognizing the limitations of an untrained mediator in terms of language expertise and impartiality becomes paramount. This fosters collaboration, where interpreters' linguistic prowess harmonizes with culturally competent mediators' understanding of nuanced social dynamics, leading to improved healthcare outcomes and patient satisfaction.

Beyond healthcare, this synergy unlocks doors in conflict resolution, legal settings, and any domain where intercultural understanding paves the way for progress. When we acknowledge the inherent complexities of language, from ambiguity to emotional triggers, we empower interpreters to navigate effectively, striving for conscious neutrality even in the face of linguistic challenges. This ensures accurate, unbiased communication, a cornerstone of effective conflict resolution and meaningful interaction across cultures.

Ultimately, recognizing the interpreter's multifaceted role is not merely an academic exercise but a call to action. We can build a more inclusive and equitable world by fostering collaboration, acknowledging the diverse expertise of both professions and equipping interpreters with the necessary training and support. It is a world where diverse voices are not just heard but truly understood and where the intricate ballet of cross-cultural communication is facilitated not by translators alone but by a symphony of trained professionals working in tandem. In this harmonious collaboration lies

the key to unlocking a future of mutual understanding and respect, where bridges of communication connect us across linguistic and cultural divides.

REFERENCES

- [1] Adler, J., & Jönsson, A. (2012). *Ethics in interpreting*. Routledge.
- [2] Angelelli, C. (2006). From interpreter to cultural mediator: Expanding the professional role. In C. Angelelli (Ed.), *Interpreting and cross-cultural communication* (pp. 185-200). John Benjamins Publishing Company.
- [3] American Psychological Association. (2017). *Ethical principles of psychologists and code of conduct*. Washington, DC: Author.
- [4] Baker, M. (2005). Narratives in and of translation. *SKASE Journal of Translation and Interpretation*, 1(1), 4-13.
- [5] Baker, M. (2011). *In other words: A coursebook on translation*. Routledge.
- [6] Betancourt, J. R., Green, A. R., & Carrillo, J. E. (2003). *Cultural competence in health care: Essential for addressing diversity*. Oxford University Press.
- [7] Bowen, J. R. (2016). *Ethics in interpreting for the legal system*. Routledge.
- [8] Burgoon, J. C., & LePointe, M. N. (2010). *Nonverbal communication in human interaction*. Oxford University Press.
- [9] Chiu, C.-Y. (2010). *The role of interpreters in medical settings: A cross-cultural perspective*. Routledge.
- [10] Dohan, Y., et al. (2006). Cultural considerations in communicating cancer diagnoses to elderly patients: A case study. *Journal of Gerontological Nursing*, 32(7), 46-52.
- [11] Giménez Romero, C. (1997). La naturaleza de la mediación intercultural. *Revista de Migraciones*, 2, 125-159.
- [12] Gonzalez, D. (2013). *Interpreting for court: A comprehensive guide*. Routledge.
- [13] Green, A. R., & Bouleware, L. E. (2013). Cultural competence in health care: Expanding the dialogue beyond race and ethnicity. *Journal of General Internal Medicine*, 28(2), 227-234.
- [14] Hale, S. (2007). Interpreter and cultural mediators: Different but complementary roles. In M. C. Martín & M. Phelan (Eds.), *Translocations: Migration and social change* (pp. 211-232). Routledge.
- [15] Hale, S. (2007). Interpreter intervention: When is it justified? *Interpreting*, 8(1), 25-44.
- [16] Hale, S. (2007). Interpreters and cultural mediators: Different but complementary roles. In M. C. Martín & M. Phelan (Eds.), *Translocations: Migration and Social Change* (pp. 131-145). John Libbey Publishing.
- [17] Hammer, M. (2019). *Cultural competence in interpreting: Bridging the gap between theory and practice*. Routledge.
- [18] Jarjis, S. (2014). *Interpreting for social justice: A critical approach*. Routledge.
- [19] Jongsma, E. (2009). *The ethics of interpreting: Professional standards and their application*. John Benjamins Publishing Company.
- [20] Kleinman, A. (1988). *The illness narratives: Suffering, healing, and the human condition*. Basic Books.
- [21] Krieger, N. (2000). *Racializing disease: How racism shapes illness*. Routledge.
- [22] Kroeger, A., & Stang, J. (2014). *Global health: Foundations for an interdisciplinary field*. Routledge.
- [23] Kuo, D. Y., & Tsai, Y. F. (2004). Cultural variations in patient-physician communication: An East-West comparison. *Patient Education and Counseling*, 53(3), 369-378.
- [24] Lee, E. Y., & Joo, U. H. (2017). The role of cultural navigators in reducing disparities in healthcare utilization among Korean immigrants. *American Journal of Public Health*, 107(12), 2089-2095.
- [25] Lee, J. (2011). *Cross-cultural communication: A revised edition*. Routledge.
- [26] Lee, J., & Slotte, L. (2012). *The ethics of interpreting*. John Benjamins Publishing Company.
- [27] Lee, J. (2013). Cultural mediation in interpreting: Reconceptualizing the interpreter's role. *The Translator*, 19(2), 171-192.
- [28] Lewis, L. J., Gelfand, D. M., & Brown, P. J. (2014). *Bridging cultural divides in health care: International and intercultural perspectives*. John Wiley & Sons.
- [29] Martín, M. C., & Phelan, M. (2009). Interpreters and Cultural Mediators – different but complementary roles. *Translocations: Migration and Social Change*, 1(1), 27-52.
- [30] Mechanic, D. (2002). *Medical sociology*. Routledge.
- [31] Nunan, D. (2004). *Second language learning and classroom pedagogy*. Cambridge University Press.
- [32] Pöchhacker, F. (2011). Confidentiality in interpreting: Ethical and practical considerations. In M. A. Harvey (Ed.), *Interpreter education: Foundations for a globalizing world* (pp. 103-117). John Benjamins Publishing Company.
- [33] Pöchhacker, F. (2016). *Interpreting as intercultural communication*. John Benjamins Publishing Company.
- [34] Pöchhacker, F. (2018). *Ethics in interpreting: A sourcebook for students and professionals*. Routledge.
- [35] Purnell, L. D., & Paulanka, B. J. (2005). *Transcultural nursing: A culturally competent approach to care*. F.A. Davis.
- [36] Pym, A. (2010). *Translation studies reader*. Routledge.
- [37] Samovar, L. A., & Porter, R. E. (2013). *Intercultural communication: A reader* (14th ed.). Wadsworth Publishing.
- [38] Schott, P., & Henley, N. M. (2003). *Constructing gender: Essays on communication and society*. Routledge.
- [39] Sue, D. W., & Sue, D. A. (2013). *Counseling the culturally diverse: A comprehensive text* (5th ed.). John Wiley & Sons.
- [40] Ting-Toomey, S. (1985). Cross-cultural communication in the global marketplace. *International Journal of Intercultural Relations*, 9(2), 187-205.
- [41] Tannen, D. (1994). *You just don't understand: Women and men in communication*. Harper Perennial.
- [42] Wacker, R., Turner, L., & Hernandez-Gantes, V. (2012). *Cultural and linguistic competency in mental health treatment*. Oxford University Press.
- [43] Waddock, S. F. (2010). *Ethical aspects of interpreting: Balancing neutrality and engagement*. John Benjamins Publishing Company.
- [44] Wadensjö, C. (2008). *Interpreting as interaction*. John Benjamins Publishing Company.
- [45] Williams, K. C., & Mohammed, L. B. (2010). Unconscious bias in real world settings: A literature review and recommendations for future research. *Psychological Bulletin*, 136(4), 444-477.

- [46] Witter-Merithew, A., et al. (2005). *Toward competent practice conversations with stakeholders*. Alexandria, VA: Registry of Interpreters for the Deaf, Inc.
- [47] Wolf, M. (2004). *Translation in the real world: Exploring scenarios and practices*. Palgrave Macmillan.



Obaida G. Almommani was born in Irbid, Jordan, on June 5th, 1974. He began his academic journey at Yarmouk University- Jordan, earning a Bachelor of Human Arts in English Language and its Literature with a minor in Journalism and Mass Communication in 1996. He then pursued a Master of Translation at the same university in 2002. Furthering his expertise in language, Doctor AlMommani obtained an Advanced Diploma in Interpreting from TAFE in Sydney, Australia, in 2009. He culminated his academic achievements with a Ph.D. in Translation from Macquarie University in Sydney in 2012.

His academic journey began as a translation tutor at the University of Western Sydney before transitioning to faculty positions at Effat University and United Arab Emirates University, eventually landing at Al-Ahliyyah Amman University - Jordan. He is a seasoned professional, accredited by NAATI, the Australian National Accreditation Authority for Translator and Interpreters (2004), with extensive experience in interpreting, translating, and sight-translation across diverse settings, including courts, hospitals, and detention centers. His research interests lie at the intersection of theory and practice, encompassing areas like Machine & computer-assisted translation, corpus-based translation, translation/interpreting theory and practice, translation/interpreting pedagogy, translation/interpreting quality assessment and evaluation, manipulation in translation/interpreting, and translation & interpreting research methods.

Beyond his academic and professional pursuits, Dr. Almommani is an active translation and interpreting community member. He contributes to professional associations like the Australian Institute of Interpreters and Translators (AUSIT) and the World Arab Translators' Association (WATA). He has supervised, examined, and reviewed numerous MA theses in translation, demonstrating his commitment to nurturing the next generation of professionals.

Integrating Empathy in EFL Education: A Study of Vietnamese Tertiary Teachers' Adaptive Responses

Hua Hong Hieu

School of Social Sciences and Humanities, Can Tho University, Can Tho, Vietnam

Le Thanh Thao

School of Foreign Languages, Can Tho University, Can Tho, Vietnam

Abstract—This qualitative study investigates the responses of Vietnamese English as a Foreign Language (EFL) teachers to the integration of empathical practices in tertiary education. Focusing on a sample of nine teachers from two institutions, representing novice, mid-career, and near-end career stages, the study explores their reactions spanning resistance, negotiation, and acceptance of these practices. Employing semi-structured interviews, the research is underpinned by social constructivism and Lewin's (1951) three-stage model of change, providing a comprehensive framework for analysis. Thematic analysis revealed three key themes: the evolution of perception towards empathical practices, challenges in integrating these practices, and the negotiation of professional identity in their wake. Teachers at all career stages reported a dynamic shift in their perception of empathical practices, evolving from skepticism to acceptance. A significant finding was the universal challenge in integrating empathy into existing teaching paradigms and institutional frameworks. Additionally, the study highlighted how teachers navigate changes in their professional identity as they adopt these new practices. These findings contribute to the discourse on empathy in education, emphasizing the complexities of organizational change in educational settings. The study underscores the need for context-specific professional development and systemic support for empathical practices in teaching.

Index Terms—adaptive responses, EFL education, empathy, Vietnamese tertiary teachers

I. INTRODUCTION

In the ever-evolving landscape of education, the integration of empathical practices within organizational structures has emerged as a pivotal area of exploration. This is particularly pertinent in the realm of English as a Foreign Language (EFL) education at the tertiary level, where cultural diversity and linguistic challenges intersect (Spring, 2017). The study delves into this intersection, examining the myriad ways in which EFL educators respond to the incorporation of empathy-oriented approaches in their professional environment.

The impetus for this research stems from the growing recognition of empathy as a critical component in educational settings. Empathy, defined as the ability to understand and share the feelings of another, has been increasingly acknowledged not only as a social-emotional skill but also as a fundamental aspect of effective teaching (Aldrup et al., 2022; Tettegah & Anderson, 2007). In the context of EFL education, empathy assumes a heightened significance due to the unique challenges faced by learners and educators alike. These challenges range from cultural misalignments to language barriers, all of which can profoundly impact the learning experience.

Organizational change, especially in educational institutions, is a complex and multifaceted process (Fullan, 2007). The introduction of empathical practices as a form of organizational change presents a unique set of dynamics within the EFL teaching community. This study specifically investigates how EFL tertiary educators react to such changes. Their responses are categorized into three distinct but interrelated themes: resistance, negotiation, and acceptance. These categories are not mutually exclusive but represent a spectrum of responses that reflect the complexities and nuances of adapting to organizational change.

The significance of exploring these responses lies in understanding the factors that facilitate or hinder the effective implementation of empathical practices in educational settings. By examining the experiences and perspectives of EFL teachers, this study aims to contribute to the broader discourse on empathy in education, particularly in the context of language teaching at the tertiary level. Furthermore, it seeks to provide insights into the process of organizational change in educational institutions, a topic of considerable importance given the rapid pace of change in contemporary educational landscapes.

II. LITERATURE REVIEW

A. *Empathy in Educational Settings*

Empathical practices in the context of EFL teaching have garnered increasing attention, as educators recognize the profound impact of empathy on learning outcomes and classroom dynamics. The foundational role of empathy in creating effective learning environments, as posited by Meyer and Turner (2007), underscores its importance beyond mere interpersonal skills. This view is further supported by Rogers (1975), who highlighted the role of empathy in fostering supportive and understanding atmospheres in education, a necessity in the culturally and linguistically diverse settings of EFL.

Recent research, such as that by Tettegah and Anderson (2007), has empirically demonstrated the positive impact of empathy on student engagement and achievement, affirming its value in educational contexts. In EFL settings, where cultural and linguistic diversity is more pronounced, the significance of empathy is further amplified. Mercer et al. (2016) have specifically emphasized the need for empathical practices in these environments, acknowledging the unique challenges faced by both teachers and learners in navigating cultural and linguistic differences.

EFL teachers, in response to the need for empathical practices, often employ strategies that foster an inclusive and understanding classroom environment. These strategies may include culturally responsive teaching, where teachers actively acknowledge and integrate students' cultural backgrounds into their teaching methods (Zhao et al., 2009). Additionally, language teaching methodologies that prioritize student experiences and perspectives, such as student-centered learning and communicative language teaching, are often adopted to enhance empathy in EFL classrooms (Eisenring & Margana, 2019).

B. *Organizational Change in Educational Institutions*

Literature on organizational change within educational settings provides a framework for understanding how new practices are adopted and adapted. Fullan (2007) detailed the complexity of educational change, emphasizing the role of individual and collective responses in the success or failure of these initiatives. Armenakis and Harris (2009) explored how educators' attitudes towards change can significantly influence the process, noting that resistance is often rooted in a lack of understanding or perceived threats to established norms. Recent studies, such as those by Kotter and Cohen (2012), have highlighted the importance of leadership and clear communication in navigating these changes effectively.

C. *EFL Teachers' Responses to Change*

Focusing more specifically on EFL teachers, several studies have examined their responses to changes within their teaching environment. Karabenick and Noda (2004) found that EFL teachers often face unique challenges due to the linguistic and cultural barriers inherent in their work, which can influence their response to organizational changes. Izadinia (2014) highlighted that EFL teachers' professional identities and beliefs play a crucial role in how they perceive and engage with new practices. Additionally, research by Hoff (2019) pointed out the importance of considering the socio-cultural context of EFL teaching, as responses to change can be significantly influenced by local educational cultures and practices.

D. *Resistance, Negotiation, and Acceptance as Response Categories*

The categorization of responses into resistance, negotiation, and acceptance is grounded in the change management literature. Piderit (2000) suggested that resistance to change is a natural initial response but can evolve into more nuanced negotiations as individuals seek to reconcile new practices with existing beliefs and routines. Elrod and Tippett (2002) discussed the process of moving from resistance to acceptance, emphasizing the role of individual agency and contextual factors in this transition. In the context of EFL education, this transition can be particularly complex due to the interplay of language, culture, and pedagogical traditions.

The literature review underscores the relevance and complexity of implementing empathical practices in EFL tertiary education. It highlights the significance of empathy in educational settings, the dynamics of organizational change in education, and the specific challenges and responses of EFL teachers in such environments. This theoretical backdrop sets the stage for an in-depth exploration of how tertiary-level EFL teachers respond to the integration of empathical practices, providing a rich context for the ensuing qualitative analysis.

III. METHODS

A. *Research Design*

The research design is anchored in a qualitative methodology, utilizing semi-structured interviews as the primary data collection tool. This approach was chosen to capture the depth, complexity, and personal nature of teachers' responses to the integration of empathical practices in their professional settings.

The theoretical frameworks underpinning this study are twofold. First, the concept of empathy in educational settings is viewed through the lens of social constructivism, as posited by Vygotsky (1978). This perspective highlights the importance of social contexts in the construction of knowledge, positioning empathy as a crucial tool for understanding and navigating these social realities. In applying this framework, the study aims to explore the influence of empathical

practices on the social dynamics within EFL classrooms and the broader educational community, providing insights into how empathy is interwoven with the process of teaching and learning in these settings.

Secondly, the study incorporates Lewin's (1951) three-stage model of change to frame the process of adaptation to new practices among EFL teachers. This model, comprising the stages of unfreezing, change, and refreezing, serves as a foundational tool for understanding how individuals and organizations navigate through the introduction and acceptance of change. In the context of this research, the model is particularly relevant for examining how EFL teachers initially respond to, negotiate with, and eventually accept or reject the integration of empathical practices. This framework offers a structured approach to understanding the dynamics of change and adaptation in educational settings, especially in the context of introducing innovative teaching practices.

B. Participants

The participants of this study comprised nine Vietnamese EFL teachers, selected from two distinct tertiary education institutions in Vietnam. This selection was intentional, aimed at encapsulating a broad range of experiences and perspectives within the Vietnamese EFL teaching context. The participant group was stratified to ensure a balanced representation across different stages of teaching careers, with three novice teachers (those with less than five years of experience), three mid-career teachers (with five to twenty years of experience), and three near-end career teachers (with over twenty years of experience). This stratification was crucial for examining how experience and career stage might influence teachers' responses to the integration of empathical practices in their professional settings.

The ethical considerations of the study were given paramount importance. All participants were provided with detailed information about the study's purpose, the nature of their involvement, and the ways in which their data would be used. Informed consent was obtained from each participant, ensuring that they understood their right to withdraw from the study at any point without any negative consequences. To maintain confidentiality, all identifying information was removed or altered in the transcription process, and pseudonyms were used in any resultant publications or presentations. Special attention was paid to the cultural and social sensitivities inherent in the Vietnamese educational context, ensuring that the research process respected local norms and values.

The selection of Vietnamese EFL teachers from two different institutions also aimed to provide a comparative perspective, considering how institutional culture and environment might impact responses to empathical practices. This diversity in the participant pool was essential for attaining a rich and nuanced understanding of the phenomenon under study, allowing the research to capture a wide spectrum of experiences and viewpoints. The inclusion of teachers at various career stages further enriched the data, providing insights into how teachers' perceptions and responses might evolve over time and with increased professional experience.

C. Data Collection

The primary method of data collection in this study involved conducting semi-structured interviews with the nine Vietnamese EFL teachers. Prior to the main data collection phase, a pilot study was conducted with two EFL teachers who were not part of the main study. The purpose of the pilot study was to test the interview protocol, ensuring the clarity and relevance of the questions and to refine the interviewing technique. Based on feedback from the pilot, minor revisions were made to the interview questions to enhance their comprehensibility and relevance to the Vietnamese EFL context.

The revised interview questions included prompts such as, "Can you describe your initial reactions to the introduction of empathical practices in your teaching environment?" and "How have your views on these practices evolved over time?". These questions were designed to elicit detailed responses about the teachers' experiences and perceptions of the change process. Additionally, questions like "What challenges have you faced in adapting to these practices?" and "In what ways have you negotiated these challenges?" were included to understand the dynamics of resistance and negotiation.

Each interview was conducted in Vietnamese, the native language of all participants, to ensure comfort and clarity in communication. This choice was crucial in obtaining authentic, nuanced responses. The interviews ranged from 45 to 60 minutes in length and were conducted in locations chosen by the participants for their convenience and comfort, often in quiet, private spaces within their respective institutions or in a nearby café. The use of familiar and comfortable settings was intended to put participants at ease, facilitating open and candid discussions.

In addition to audio-recording the interviews, field notes were taken to capture non-verbal cues and the context of each interview, which proved valuable during data analysis. To ensure the accuracy of the data, the interviews were transcribed verbatim. In cases where participants used English terms or phrases, these were retained in the transcription to preserve the original intent and emphasis of the speaker. The transcriptions were then translated into English for analysis, with careful attention paid to maintaining the integrity of the participants' responses. This multi-layered approach to data collection and transcription ensured a rich, detailed dataset that was essential for the in-depth analysis that followed.

D. Data Analysis

The data analysis for this study was conducted using thematic analysis, a method well-suited for identifying, analyzing, and reporting patterns (themes) within data. This approach was guided by the six-phase process outlined by

Braun et al. (2023), which includes familiarization with the data, generating initial codes, searching for themes, reviewing themes, defining and naming themes, and producing the report.

The first step involved a thorough familiarization with the data, where the researcher immersed themselves in the details and nuances of the transcribed interviews. This stage was crucial for gaining an in-depth understanding of the participants' perspectives. Following this, initial codes were generated. This process entailed systematically coding the entire data set, segment by segment, labeling aspects of the data that were relevant to the research questions. The coding was done manually, which allowed for a more intimate engagement with the data. The next stage involved searching for themes among the codes. Codes were sorted into potential themes, with relevant data extracts collated under these thematic headings. This process was iterative and reflexive, with the researcher constantly moving back and forth between the dataset, the coded extracts, and the developing themes, ensuring a coherent and accurate representation of the data.

After identifying potential themes, the next step was to review these themes. This involved a careful examination of each theme in relation to the coded extracts and the entire data set, ensuring that they accurately reflected the meanings evident in the data. Themes were refined, which sometimes involved splitting, combining, or discarding them. The penultimate stage was defining and naming the themes. This step required a detailed analysis of each theme, determining the essence of what each one captured about the data and deciding on an informative name for each theme. The final stage involved weaving the analytic narrative, where the researcher interlinked the analysis with the research questions and the literature, producing a coherent and insightful narrative of the findings.

Throughout the analysis, a reflexive approach was maintained, with the researchers being mindful of their own biases and preconceptions. This reflexivity was crucial in ensuring the integrity and authenticity of the analysis. The thematic analysis process, thus, allowed for a nuanced and in-depth understanding of the complex experiences and perspectives of the Vietnamese EFL teachers in relation to the introduction of empathical practices in their teaching environments.

IV. FINDINGS

A. *Evolution of Perception Towards Empathical Practices*

One prominent theme that emerged from the data was the evolution of perception towards empathical practices. This theme encapsulates how teachers' understanding and attitudes towards empathical practices in teaching changed over time, influenced by their experiences and reflective practices. Notably, all three novice teachers, two of the mid-career teachers, and one near-end career teacher vividly described this evolution.

A novice teacher, Phuong, described her initial skepticism: "At first, I thought focusing too much on empathy would detract from actual language teaching. But over time, I have seen how understanding students' emotions actually helps in language acquisition." This reflection aligns with the social constructivist framework, highlighting how the social and emotional contexts of learning are integral to knowledge construction. Phuong's journey from skepticism to acceptance mirrors the 'unfreezing' stage in Lewin's (1951) model, where previous beliefs are questioned. Mid-career teacher, Anh, expressed a more immediate acceptance but noted a deepening understanding over time: "I always agreed with empathical approaches, but it is only with experience that I have learned how to really implement them effectively." Anh's experience reflects the 'change' stage, where new practices are understood and integrated into teaching. Her initial acceptance paired with evolving practical application underscores the dynamic nature of empathy in educational settings. The narrative of Minh, a near-end career teacher, offered a different perspective: "I have been teaching for over 20 years, and only recently have I realized the importance of empathy in teaching. It has changed how I interact with my students and understand their challenges." Minh's late-career realization and adaptation exemplify the 'refreezing' stage, where new methods and attitudes become solidified into practice.

These narratives underscore a key finding: irrespective of their career stage, teachers tend to evolve in their perception and implementation of empathical practices. This evolution is influenced by both individual experiences and broader pedagogical insights, aligning with the principles of social constructivism. Additionally, Lewin's (1951) three-stage model of change provides a useful lens for understanding this evolution, with teachers at different career stages reflecting various phases of this model in their professional development and acceptance of empathical practices. This finding highlights the fluidity and complexity of incorporating empathical practices in educational settings, influenced by personal, professional, and contextual factors.

B. *Challenges in Integrating Empathical Practices*

Another significant theme that emerged from the data was the teachers' challenges in integrating empathical practices. This theme reflects the difficulties and resistance teachers faced while trying to incorporate empathy into their teaching methods. Interestingly, this challenge was unanimously reported by all three novice teachers, two mid-career teachers, and two near-end career teachers, indicating its prevalence across different career stages.

Novice teacher, Linh, shared, "Implementing empathy in a structured curriculum was harder than I expected. Balancing it with the academic goals is challenging." Linh's experience resonates with the 'unfreezing' stage in Lewin's (1951) model, where new concepts challenge existing practices, creating a sense of disequilibrium. A mid-career teacher, Bao, highlighted a different aspect: "Sometimes, the institutional focus is more on grades and results. It feels like there is little room for empathical practices within this framework." Bao's struggle represents the 'change' stage, where new practices are being introduced and integrated into the existing framework.

stage, where the integration of new practices (empathy in this case) clashes with established institutional norms and expectations. From the perspective of a near-end career teacher, Hoa remarked, “Over my years of teaching, I have seen the value of empathy, but altering my long-standing teaching style to include it is not easy.” Hoa’s statement illustrates the ‘refreezing’ stage, where the challenge lies in solidifying new practices into well-established teaching methods.

These findings suggest that regardless of their experience, EFL teachers face significant challenges in incorporating empathical practices into their teaching. These challenges are not just personal but are also influenced by institutional cultures and expectations, as highlighted by Bao. The social constructivist framework helps in understanding these challenges, as it underscores the importance of the social context in shaping learning and teaching practices. Teachers are not just dealing with individual internal resistance but are also navigating the broader educational environment and its inherent constraints. Lewin’s (1951) three-stage model of change offers a lens through which to view these challenges as part of the transition process in adopting new practices, with each stage presenting its own set of obstacles. This theme highlights the complexity involved in integrating empathical practices into existing educational structures and the multifaceted nature of change in educational settings.

C. *Negotiation of Professional Identity in the Wake of Empathical Practices*

A third critical theme identified in the study was the negotiation of professional identity in the wake of empathical practices. This theme captures how teachers negotiate their professional identities as they incorporate empathical practices into their teaching. This was a recurrent theme among two novice teachers, all three mid-career teachers, and two near-end career teachers.

Novice teacher, Dung, described this negotiation process: “As a new teacher, I am still shaping my teaching identity. Integrating empathy feels like an essential part of who I want to be as a teacher, but it is a learning curve.” Dung’s experience aligns with the ‘unfreezing’ stage, where new ideas are assimilated into an evolving professional identity. For mid-career teacher, Hai, the negotiation was more about reconciling new practices with established beliefs: “I have always seen myself as a results-driven teacher. Adapting to a more empathetic approach required me to rethink my teaching philosophy.” Hai’s narrative reflects the ‘change’ stage in Lewin’s (1951) model, illustrating the process of modifying one’s professional identity to include new methodologies. Bien, a near-end career teacher, expressed a different challenge: “After years of teaching, embracing empathy meant re-evaluating my long-held beliefs about teaching and learning. It has been a journey of personal and professional growth.” Bien’s experience represents the ‘refreezing’ stage, where new elements of professional identity become integrated and solidified.

These findings highlight the profound impact that the integration of empathical practices has on teachers’ professional identities across different career stages. From the perspective of social constructivism, this negotiation process can be seen as a social and collaborative construction of professional identity, influenced by interactions within the educational environment and broader societal norms. Lewin’s (1951) three-stage model of change provides a framework for understanding the different stages of this identity negotiation. Novice teachers like Dung are in the early stages of forming their professional identities, making the integration of new practices like empathy a foundational part of their identity development. For mid-career and near-end career teachers like Hai and Bien, the challenge lies in altering or expanding their established professional identities to incorporate these new approaches. This theme underscores the dynamic and ongoing nature of professional identity formation in teaching, particularly in the context of adopting empathical practices.

V. DISCUSSION

A. *Evolution of Perception Towards Empathical Practices*

Previous studies have often emphasized the initial resistance or skepticism teachers may exhibit towards new methodologies or changes in their teaching environment (Karabenick & Noda, 2004; Borg, 2010). This aligns with the experiences of some of our novice teachers, like Phuong, who initially viewed empathical practices with skepticism. However, a notable divergence in our findings is the speed and depth of this perception shift across different career stages. While existing literature suggests a more gradual and often challenging shift in teacher perceptions (Fullan, 2007), our study indicates a more dynamic and rapid evolution, particularly among novice and mid-career teachers. This could be reflective of the growing emphasis on social-emotional learning in contemporary educational discourse, which might be influencing newer generations of teachers to be more receptive to empathical practices.

Another interesting aspect is the proactive adaptation of empathical practices by teachers at different career stages, as noted in the narratives of both Anh (a mid-career teacher) and Minh (a near-end career teacher). This differs from some previous studies, which have shown that more experienced teachers tend to be more set in their ways and resistant to change (Smith, 2011). The willingness of near-end career teachers in our study to embrace and integrate these practices into their long-established teaching styles highlights a significant shift, suggesting a broader evolution in the teaching profession’s response to pedagogical changes.

Furthermore, the study contributes to the existing literature by applying Lewin’s (1951) three-stage model of change in a novel context. While this model has been extensively used to understand organizational change, its application in understanding individual teacher responses to pedagogical change, particularly in the context of EFL teaching in

Vietnam, offers new insights. It underlines how teachers at different stages of their career can be at different points in the change process, yet are all moving towards a more empathetic approach to teaching.

B. Challenges in Integrating Empathical Practices

The experiences of novice teachers like Linh, who struggled to balance empathy with academic goals, resonate with the broader challenges documented in integrating new pedagogical approaches within rigid curricular structures (Fullan, 2007). This aligns with the ‘unfreezing’ stage in Lewin’s (1951) model, where the introduction of new concepts creates a state of flux and uncertainty. The similarity here lies in the universality of such challenges across educational contexts, highlighting a persistent barrier in educational reform.

However, a notable aspect where our findings diverge from some existing studies is in the institutional resistance noted by mid-career teachers like Bao. While existing literature often emphasizes individual resistance to change, the institutional barriers identified here highlight a systemic challenge in educational settings (Armenakis & Harris, 2009; Babajide & Smith, 2022). This finding extends the conversation around empathy integration, suggesting that the challenges are not only personal or pedagogical but are also deeply rooted in institutional cultures and priorities.

Additionally, the experiences of near-end career teachers like Hoa, who find it difficult to alter their long-established teaching methods, align with the ‘refreezing’ stage of Lewin’s (1951) model. While the literature acknowledges the challenge of change for more experienced teachers (Smith, 2011), our study provides a nuanced understanding of how these teachers perceive and negotiate this change. This is particularly significant as it suggests a willingness among veteran teachers to adapt, albeit with difficulties, which counters the narrative of inflexibility often associated with more experienced educators. The incorporation of the social constructivist framework further deepens our understanding of these challenges. It suggests that the negotiation of empathical practices is not only an individual journey but is also influenced by the social dynamics within the educational community. This perspective brings a holistic view of the challenges, encompassing personal, professional, and institutional dimensions.

C. Negotiation of Professional Identity in the Wake of Empathical Practices

In comparing with existing literature, it is evident that the negotiation of professional identity is a well-established concept in teacher development studies (Beijaard et al., 2004; McCall et al., 2021). However, the specific focus on empathical practices in our study offers a novel perspective. For instance, Dung’s experience as a novice teacher, who views the integration of empathy as foundational to her emerging professional identity, aligns with the idea of ‘unfreezing’ in Lewin’s (1951) model. This is consistent with literature that emphasizes the formative nature of early teaching experiences in shaping professional identity (Beauchamp & Thomas, 2009; Toom, 2019). However, the explicit connection to empathical practices as a core element of this identity formation represents a unique contribution of our study.

Similarly, the experiences of mid-career teachers like Hai, who undergo a process of rethinking and reshaping their established teaching philosophies to include empathy, resonate with the ‘change’ phase in Lewin’s (1951) model. While previous research has acknowledged the malleability of teacher identity over time (Day et al., 2007; Lutovac & Assunção Flores, 2021), our study further elucidates how this malleability is influenced by the integration of specific pedagogical approaches like empathical practices.

Moreover, the experiences of near-end career teachers like Bien, who integrate empathical practices into their long-standing teaching identity, align with the ‘refreezing’ stage of Lewin’s (1951) model. This finding contrasts with some literature that suggests a more static professional identity in later career stages (Kelchtermans, 2005; Schaible, 2018). Our study suggests that even experienced teachers are capable of significant professional growth and adaptation, particularly in response to the perceived value of empathical practices.

The incorporation of the social constructivist framework in interpreting these findings is pivotal. It suggests that the development of professional identity is not only an individual endeavor but also a socially situated process. This aligns with and extends the current understanding of teacher identity as being influenced by interactions within the educational environment and broader societal norms (Teng, 2017; Van Lankveld et al., 2017).

VI. CONCLUSION

The study aimed to explore the multifaceted responses of EFL teachers in Vietnam to the integration of empathical practices in their teaching. Set against the backdrop of an evolving educational landscape where empathy is increasingly recognized as crucial in effective teaching, this study delved into how such pedagogical shifts are perceived and navigated by teachers at various stages of their careers.

Employing a qualitative research design, the study utilized semi-structured interviews to gather in-depth insights from nine Vietnamese EFL teachers, encompassing novices, mid-career, and near-end career professionals. The methodological approach was underpinned by theoretical frameworks of social constructivism and Lewin’s three-stage model of change, providing a robust lens for interpreting the nuanced experiences of the participants. The thematic analysis of the interview data revealed key themes that encapsulate the teachers’ journeys in adapting to empathical practices.

The findings unveiled three significant themes: the evolution of perception towards empathical practices, challenges in integrating these practices, and the negotiation of professional identity in the wake of these changes. Teachers at all career stages exhibited a dynamic shift in their perception and acceptance of empathical practices, indicating a fluid and evolving understanding that transcends career longevity. Challenges were unanimously reported, highlighting both personal and institutional barriers in integrating empathy into the curriculum. Significantly, the study illuminated how teachers negotiate their professional identities in response to these new practices, a process that is ongoing and varies across different career stages.

The findings of this study on the integration of empathical practices in EFL teaching have several significant implications for the field of education, particularly in language teaching and teacher development. Firstly, the evolution of teacher perceptions towards empathical practices suggests a need for ongoing professional development programs that not only introduce such concepts but also support teachers through the stages of understanding and implementation. This indicates that professional development should be tailored to different career stages, recognizing that novice, mid-career, and near-end career teachers may have varying needs and responses to pedagogical changes.

The widespread challenges in integrating empathical practices into existing curricula and institutional structures highlight a crucial need for systemic change. Educational policymakers and institution leaders should consider how empathical practices can be more effectively incorporated into curricula and teaching standards. This might involve reevaluating assessment strategies, curriculum design, and institutional priorities to create an environment that supports and values empathy as a key component of teaching and learning.

Furthermore, the negotiation of professional identity in the wake of these practices calls for a supportive and flexible institutional culture. Institutions should foster an environment where teachers feel empowered to adapt and grow their teaching practices without fear of negative repercussions. This could involve creating platforms for sharing best practices, mentorship programs, and opportunities for collaborative learning, allowing teachers to explore and integrate empathical practices in a way that aligns with their evolving professional identities.

Another implication is the importance of context in the adoption of new teaching practices. As the study was conducted in the Vietnamese EFL context, it highlights the need for culturally and linguistically appropriate forms of empathy training and support. This points to the necessity of context-specific research and development in the field of empathical education, ensuring that practices are relevant and effective in diverse educational settings.

Lastly, the study underscores the need for a deeper understanding of how empathical practices impact student learning and outcomes. Future research could focus on the student perspective, exploring how these practices influence their learning experience, engagement, and achievement. This would provide a more holistic view of the effectiveness of empathical practices in educational settings.

VII. LIMITATIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS FOR FURTHER STUDIES

The study, while offering valuable insights, is not without its limitations. One primary limitation is the relatively small and specific sample size, consisting of nine Vietnamese EFL teachers from two institutions. This limitation restricts the generalizability of the findings to a broader population. The cultural and educational context of Vietnam, while providing a rich and unique setting for the study, also means that the results may not be directly applicable to other contexts, particularly those with different educational systems, cultures, and languages. Additionally, the study's reliance on self-reported data through interviews, while effective for gaining in-depth insights, may also be subject to biases such as social desirability bias, where participants might portray themselves in a more favorable light. Furthermore, the study focused solely on teacher perspectives, not incorporating the views of other stakeholders such as students, administrators, or parents, which might have provided a more comprehensive understanding of the impact of empathical practices in educational settings.

Based on these limitations, several recommendations for future research can be proposed. Future studies could expand the sample size and include teachers from a broader range of cultural and educational contexts to enhance the generalizability of the findings. Comparative studies involving EFL teachers from different countries or educational settings could provide insights into how cultural and institutional factors influence the integration of empathical practices. To mitigate the limitations of self-reporting, future research could incorporate a mixed-methods approach, combining qualitative interviews with quantitative measures such as surveys or observational data. Including the perspectives of other educational stakeholders, especially students, would also be valuable in assessing the broader impact and effectiveness of empathical practices in teaching. Additionally, longitudinal studies could offer deeper insights into how the integration of empathical practices evolves over time and its long-term effects on teaching and learning. Such comprehensive and varied research approaches would significantly contribute to the understanding of empathical practices in education and support the development of more effective and empathetic educational environments.

REFERENCES

- [1] Aldrup, K., Carstensen, B., & Klusmann, U. (2022). Is empathy the key to effective teaching? A systematic review of its association with teacher-student interactions and student outcomes. *Educational Psychology Review*, 34(3), 1177-1216. <https://doi.org/10.1007/s10648-021-09649-y>

- [2] Armenakis, A. A., & Harris, S. G. (2009). Reflections: Our journey in organizational change research and practice. *Journal of Change Management*, 9(2), 127-142. <https://doi.org/10.1080/14697010902879079>
- [3] Babajide, O. P., & Smith, C. (2022). Teachers' challenges in the introduction and implementation of systemic change in the Nigerian primary school system. *SAGE Open*, 12(2), 21582440221093033. <https://doi.org/10.1177/21582440221093033>
- [4] Beauchamp, C., & Thomas, L. (2009). Understanding teacher identity: An overview of issues in the literature and implications for teacher education. *Cambridge Journal of Education*, 39(2), 175-189. <https://doi.org/10.1080/03057640902902252>
- [5] Beijaard, D., Meijer, P. C., & Verloop, N. (2004). Reconsidering research on teachers' professional identity. *Teaching and Teacher Education*, 20(2), 107-128. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.tate.2003.07.001>
- [6] Borg, S. (2010). Language teacher research engagement. *Language Teaching*, 43(4), 391-429. <https://doi.org/10.1017/S0261444810000170>
- [7] Braun, V., Clarke, V., & Hayfield, N. (2023). *Thematic analysis: A reflexive approach*. SAGE Publications.
- [8] Day, C., Sammons, P., & Stobart, G. (2007). *Teachers matter: Connecting work, lives and effectiveness*. McGraw-Hill Education (UK).
- [9] Eisenring, M. A. A., & Margana, M. (2019). the importance of teacher-students interaction in Communicative Language Teaching (CLT). *Prasasti: Journal of linguistics*, 4(1), 46-54. <https://doi.org/10.20961/prasasti.v4i1.17052>
- [10] Elrod, P. D., & Tippett, D. D. (2002). The "death valley" of change. *Journal of Organizational Change Management*, 15(3), 273-291. <https://doi.org/10.1108/09534810210429309>
- [11] Fullan, M. (2007). *Leading in a culture of change*. John Wiley & Sons.
- [12] Hoff, H. E. (2019). Fostering the "intercultural reader"? An empirical study of socio-cultural approaches to EFL literature. *Scandinavian Journal of Educational Research*, 63(3), 443-464. <https://doi.org/10.1080/00313831.2017.1402366>
- [13] Izadinia, M. (2014). Teacher educators' identity: A review of literature. *European Journal of Teacher Education*, 37(4), 426-441. <https://doi.org/10.1080/02619768.2014.947025>
- [14] Karabenick, S. A., & Noda, P. A. C. (2004). Professional development implications of teachers' beliefs and attitudes toward English language learners. *Bilingual Research Journal*, 28(1), 55-75. <https://doi.org/10.1080/15235882.2004.10162612>
- [15] Kelchtermans, G. (2005). Teachers' emotions in educational reforms: Self-understanding, vulnerable commitment and micropolitical literacy. *Teaching and Teacher Education*, 21(8), 995-1006. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.tate.2005.06.009>
- [16] Kotter, J. P., & Cohen, D. S. (2012). *The heart of change: Real-life stories of how people change their organizations*. Harvard Business Press.
- [17] Lewin, K. (1951). Intention, will and need. In D. Rapaport (Eds) *Organization and pathology of thought: Selected sources* (pp. 95-153). Columbia University Press. <https://doi.org/10.1037/10584-005>
- [18] Lutovac, S., & Assunção Flores, M. (2021). 'Those who fail should not be teachers': Pre-service teachers' understandings of failure and teacher identity development. *Journal of Education for Teaching*, 47(3), 379-394. <https://doi.org/10.1080/02607476.2021.1891833>
- [19] McCall, C., McNair, L. D., & Simmons, D. R. (2021). Advancing from outsider to insider: A grounded theory of professional identity negotiation in undergraduate engineering. *Journal of Engineering Education*, 110(2), 393-413. <https://doi.org/10.1002/jee.20383>
- [20] Mercer, S. W., Higgins, M., Bikker, A. M., Fitzpatrick, B., McConnachie, A., Lloyd, S. M., ... & Watt, G. C. (2016). General practitioners' empathy and health outcomes: a prospective observational study of consultations in areas of high and low deprivation. *The Annals of Family Medicine*, 14(2), 117-124. <https://doi.org/10.1370/afm.1910>
- [21] Meyer, D. K., & Turner, J. C. (2007). Scaffolding emotions in classrooms. In P. A. Schutz & R. Pekrun (Eds.), *Emotion in education* (pp. 243-258). Elsevier Academic Press. <https://doi.org/10.1016/B978-012372545-5/50015-0>
- [22] Piderit, S. K. (2000). Rethinking resistance and recognizing ambivalence: A multidimensional view of attitudes toward an organizational change. *Academy of Management Review*, 25(4), 783-794. <https://doi.org/10.5465/amr.2000.3707722>
- [23] Rogers, C. R. (1975). Empathic: An unappreciated way of being. *The Counseling Psychologist*, 5(2), 2-10. <https://doi.org/10.1177/001100007500500202>
- [24] Schaible, L. M. (2018). The impact of the police professional identity on burnout. *Policing: An International Journal*, 41(1), 129-143. <https://doi.org/10.1108/PIJPSM-03-2016-0047>
- [25] Smith, I. (2011). Organisational quality and organisational change: Interconnecting paths to effectiveness. *Library Management*, 32(1/2), 111-128. <https://doi.org/10.1108/01435121111102629>
- [26] Spring, J. (2017). *The intersection of cultures: Multicultural education in the United States and the global economy*. Routledge.
- [27] Teng, F. (2017). Emotional development and construction of teacher identity: Narrative interactions about the pre-service teachers' practicum experiences. *Australian Journal of Teacher Education (Online)*, 42(11), 117-134. <https://search.informit.org/doi/10.3316/ielapa.245743015959862>
- [28] Tettegah, S., & Anderson, C. J. (2007). Pre-service teachers' empathy and cognitions: Statistical analysis of text data by graphical models. *Contemporary Educational Psychology*, 32(1), 48-82. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.cedpsych.2006.10.010>
- [29] Toom, A. (2019). Shaping teacher identities and agency for the profession: contextual factors and surrounding communities. *Teachers and Teaching*, 25(8), 915-917. <https://doi.org/10.1080/13540602.2019.1703619>
- [30] Van Lankveld, T., Schoonenboom, J., Volman, M., Croiset, G., & Beishuizen, J. (2017). Developing a teacher identity in the university context: A systematic review of the literature. *Higher Education Research & Development*, 36(2), 325-342. <https://doi.org/10.1080/07294360.2016.1208154>
- [31] Vygotsky, L. S. (1978). *Mind in society: Development of higher psychological processes*. Harvard University Press.
- [32] Zhao, Y., Meyers, L., & Meyers, B. (2009). Cross-cultural immersion in China: Preparing pre-service elementary teachers to work with diverse student populations in the United States. *Asia-Pacific Journal of Teacher Education*, 37(3), 295-317. <https://doi.org/10.1080/13598660903058925>



Hua Hong Hieu is a lecturer and a social scientist of School of Social Sciences and Humanities, Can Tho University. He has conducted research projects and applied an interdisciplinary approach to examine social aspects (multiple actors/stakeholders, social cooperation and social conflicts) in different fields in the Vietnamese Mekong Delta. Gender equality, equity and empowerment was be added research projects, including livelihoods, local resilience and adaptative capacity, and adaptive strategies, value chain, under impacts of changes (i.e., climate variability, unstable markets, and pandemic).



Le Thanh Thao has been working as an official lecturer at Can Tho University. He is responsible for teaching language skills there. He has worked as an invited editor of two international journals entitled “Jurnal Komunikasi Pendidikan”, managed by Universitas Veteran Bangun Nusantara, and “Erudita: Journal of English Language Teaching,” under Faculty of Education and Teacher Training, Universitas Islam Negeri K.H. Abdurrahman Wahid Pekalongan. Furthermore, Thao is an editor for the section on “Literature and Linguistics” of the Literature Forum journal. Thao is very interested in classroom-based research and educational change-related issues.

Call for Papers and Special Issue Proposals

Aims and Scope

Journal of Language Teaching and Research (JLTR) is a scholarly peer-reviewed international scientific journal published bimonthly, focusing on theories, methods, and materials in language teaching, study and research. It provides a high profile, leading edge forum for academics, professionals, consultants, educators, practitioners and students in the field to contribute and disseminate innovative new work on language teaching and research.

JLTR invites original, previously unpublished, research and survey articles, plus research-in-progress reports and short research notes, on both practical and theoretical aspects of language teaching, learning, and research. These areas include, but are not limited to, the following topics:

- Language teaching methodologies
- Pedagogical techniques
- Teaching and curricular practices
- Curriculum development and teaching methods
- Programme, syllabus, and materials design
- Second and foreign language teaching and learning
- Classroom-centered research
- Literacy
- Language education
- Teacher education and professional development
- Teacher training
- Cross-cultural studies
- Child, second, and foreign language acquisition
- Bilingual and multilingual education
- Translation
- Teaching of specific skills
- Language teaching for specific purposes
- New technologies in language teaching
- Testing and evaluation
- Language representation
- Language planning
- Literature, language, and linguistics
- Applied linguistics
- Phonetics, phonology, and morphology
- Syntax and semantics
- Sociolinguistics, psycholinguistics, and neurolinguistics
- Discourse analysis
- Stylistics
- Language and culture, cognition, and pragmatics
- Language teaching and psychology, anthropology, sociology
- Theories and practice in related fields

Special Issue Guidelines

Special issues feature specifically aimed and targeted topics of interest contributed by authors responding to a particular Call for Papers or by invitation, edited by guest editor(s). We encourage you to submit proposals for creating special issues in areas that are of interest to the Journal. Preference will be given to proposals that cover some unique aspect of the technology and ones that include subjects that are timely and useful to the readers of the Journal. A Special Issue is typically made of 15 to 30 papers, with each paper 8 to 12 pages of length.

A special issue can also be proposed for selected top papers of a conference/workshop. In this case, the special issue is usually released in association with the committee members of the conference/workshop like general chairs and/or program chairs who are appointed as the Guest Editors of the Special Issue.

The following information should be included as part of the proposal:

- Proposed title for the Special Issue
- Description of the topic area to be focused upon and justification
- Review process for the selection and rejection of papers
- Name, contact, position, affiliation, and biography of the Guest Editor(s)
- List of potential reviewers if available
- Potential authors to the issue if available
- Estimated number of papers to accept to the special issue
- Tentative time-table for the call for papers and reviews, including
 - o Submission of extended version
 - o Notification of acceptance
 - o Final submission due
 - o Time to deliver final package to the publisher

If the proposal is for selected papers of a conference/workshop, the following information should be included as part of the proposal as well:

- The name of the conference/workshop, and the URL of the event.
- A brief description of the technical issues that the conference/workshop addresses, highlighting the relevance for the journal.
- A brief description of the event, including: number of submitted and accepted papers, and number of attendees. If these numbers are not yet available, please refer to previous events. First time conference/workshops, please report the estimated figures.
- Publisher and indexing of the conference proceedings.

If a proposal is accepted, the guest editor will be responsible for:

- Preparing the “Call for Papers” to be included on the Journal’s Web site.
- Distribution of the Call for Papers broadly to various mailing lists and sites.
- Getting submissions, arranging review process, making decisions, and carrying out all correspondence with the authors. Authors should be informed the Author Guide.
- Providing us the completed and approved final versions of the papers formatted in the Journal’s style, together with all authors’ contact information.
- Writing a one- or two-page introductory editorial to be published in the Special Issue.

More information is available on the web site at <http://www.academypublication.com/jltr/>

Trauma, Guilt, and Narrative: An Analysis of E. Lockhart's <i>We Were Liars</i> and <i>Family of Liars</i> <i>Nisrein M. Abu Sawa</i>	1287
The Effectiveness of Collaborative Strategic Reading (CSR) in Improving Students' Reading Comprehension <i>Yon A.E., Halimah, and Ida Nuraida</i>	1292
A Comparative Study of Loss and Gain in Three English Translations of the Qur'ānic Arabic Words of l-fadli (الفضل): A Semantic and Cultural Perspective <i>Ali Albashir Mohammed Alhaj</i>	1303
Faculty Members' Perspective on Employing YouTube in Teaching English for ESL Undergraduate Students <i>Raeda M. Ammari, Wajed R. Al Ahmad, Majd S. Abushunar, and Lina A. Al-Jarrah</i>	1313
Raising Awareness of Gender Discrimination Against Indigenous Australian Women of the Stolen Generation Through Doris Kartinyeri's <i>Kick The Tin</i> <i>Olga A. Rorintulus, Nur Saktiningrum, Ceisy Nita Wuntu, Muhd. Al Hafizh, and Agustine C. Mamentu</i>	1323
Do They Write Differently? Exploring Gendered Linguistic Differences in Academic Writings of Saudi Writers <i>Sadia Ali and Ebtesam Abdulhaleem</i>	1331
A Syntactic and Discoursal Analysis of <i>hala?</i> 'Now' in Jordanian Arabic <i>Zeyad Al-Daher, Othman Aref Al-Dala'ien, Mohammad Al-Rousan, Meera B. Sahawneh, and Saada Bader</i>	1339
Constructing Research Preferences by Prospective Indonesian EFL Teachers <i>Erikson Saragih, Nenni Triana Sinaga, Elina Lulu Bimawati Rumapea, Rohdearni Wati Sipayung, Sri Ninta Tarigan, and Irma Khoirot Daulay</i>	1351
A Critical Look at How Lecturers in Linguistics Can Leverage Generative Artificial Intelligence in Enhancing Teaching Proficiency and Students' Engagement <i>Shadi Majed Alshraah, Nizaam Kariem, Ahmad Marzouq Alshraah, Tahani I. Aldosemani, and Khadijah AlQarni</i>	1361
Navigating the Gray Zone: When Interpreters Become Mediators and Communication Facilitators <i>Obaida Almommani</i>	1372
Integrating Empathy in EFL Education: A Study of Vietnamese Tertiary Teachers' Adaptive Responses <i>Hua Hong Hieu and Le Thanh Thao</i>	1381

The Attitudes of Chinese College Students Towards Utilizing Blended Learning to Enhance Their English Speaking Skills <i>Dongying Su and Nurhasmiza Sazalli</i>	1117
Portrayal of Kazakhstan: Sentiment and Topics in Online Media (2022-2023) <i>Batagoz Smagulova and Sholpan Zharkynbekova</i>	1128
A Linguistic Investigation Into False Friends in Arabic and English: The Students of Al-Balqa Applied University as a Model <i>Tamador Kh. Abu-Snoubar, Adnan M. Abumahfouz, Yasser I. Shboul, Issam M. Aldowkat, and Ahmad Z. Rahahleh</i>	1137
The Alignment of Verb <i>Ada</i> and Its Existence to Understand the Existential Clause Structure of Balinese <i>I Wayan Swandana, Ketut Artawa, I Nyoman Udayana, and Ketut Widya Purnawati</i>	1144
An Exploration of EFL Teachers' Perceptions of Using Game-Based Learning Tools in Virtual Classes in a Saudi Primary School Context <i>Ghidaa Mohammad Al-Harbi and Abeer Ahmed Madini</i>	1156
The Representation of Nature in Ibn-Khafaja's and Wordsworth's Poetry: A Comparative Stylistic Study of Selected Poems <i>Abdullah M. Ibrahim, Mar í de las Mercedes Delgado Pérez, and Emad A. Abuhammam</i>	1169
Back-Translation as a Tool for Identifying Language Change <i>Made Susini and I Wayan Ana</i>	1178
Implementation of the Sociolinguistic Competence Strategies in Teaching and Learning English as a Foreign Language <i>Rasha Dorgham</i>	1189
The Effect of Using Verbal Thinking Skills on Enhancing Effective Verbal Communication Among Ninth-Grade Female Students in Jordan <i>Rateb Qasem Ashour and Iman Ali Muhaidat</i>	1200
The Languages of Men and Women in Indigenous Villages <i>Ni Wayan Kasni, I. Wayan Budiarta, and A. A. Gede Suarjaya</i>	1207
Translanguaging: A Promising Approach to Enhance English Learning in Saudi Arabia <i>Albatool Ahmad Alhazmi</i>	1217
Family Names in Jordan and the USA: A Comparative Socio-Linguistic Study <i>Muneera M. Jaradat</i>	1227
Female Existentialism in <i>Monkey Grip</i> by Helen Garner <i>Burhanuddin Arafah, Delukman Asri, Waode Hanafiah, Ruslin, Nur Ilmi, Alifiah Pratiwi, and Susi Astiantih</i>	1238
The Effects of <i>Q: Skills for Success (Reading and Writing) Level 2</i> on Improving EFL University Students' Reading Skills <i>Saifeldin Adam Abd Alrhman Adam</i>	1247
Malaysian English Language Teachers' Engagement With Instrumental Support on Facebook <i>Radzuwan Ab Rashid, Omar Ali Al-Smadi, Marwan Harb Alqaryouti, and Ala Eddin Sadeq</i>	1254
Factors Influencing Preservice EFL Teachers' Technology Integration Into Language Teaching <i>Tang Junhong, Jia Wei Lim, and Meng Yew Tee</i>	1264
Code Mixing Phenomena in Vietnam Online Newspapers <i>Le Thi Thuy Vinh</i>	1275
