

Journal of Language Teaching and Research

ISSN 1798-4769

Volume 16, Number 1, January 2025

Contents

REGULAR PAPERS

The Case for Mediation: A Conceptual Review <i>Evangelia Xirofotou</i>	1
The Criteria and Challenges in Evaluating the Performance of the Writing Skills of German Language Students <i>Sadije Rexhepi and Çliresa Suka</i>	13
Effects of Task-Based Language Teaching on Improving Grade 11 Students' Essay Writing Skills <i>Bekelech Frenah Anito, Wondwosen Tesfamichael Ali, and Zeleke Arifich Ayele</i>	23
Exploring ChatGPT as a Tool for Thesis Writing: Perspectives of EFL Supervisors in Jordanian Universities <i>Mamoun I. Bani Amer, Luqman M. Rababah, and Mahmoud Ali Rababah</i>	33
Exploring Interpersonal Meaning Through Linguistic Analysis: A Study of President Duterte's Political Speech <i>Roland A. Niez, Noel P. Tancinco, Beltram C. Sabonsolin, Vicente Q. Solteo Jr., Jelyn M. Magno, Ayesna O. Sabocohan, Francisco M. Ebio Jr., Jed Priam Nuñez Cerera, and Dina Sudario Superable</i>	43
From Postfeminism to Foucault: The Revival of Medusa in Emma Hamm's <i>Becoming Medusa</i> <i>Estabraq Yahya Mohammed and Amirhossein Vafa</i>	52
Diverse Linguistic Portrayals: Analyzing Character Dialogue in Chitra Banerjee Divakaruni's Two Novels <i>Anu. R and P. Deepa</i>	61
Listening Strategies Utilized by Thai EFL Students for Comprehending ASEAN Englishes-Accented Conversations <i>Wachirapong Yaemtui</i>	71
EFL Students' Perceptions of Their Graduation Internship: A Study at a Center of Foreign Languages in Vietnam <i>Luu Nguyen Quoc Hung</i>	83
Enhancing Vocabulary Acquisition Efficiency Through Metacognitive Strategies and Vocabulary Tasks: A Study of EFL Learners in a Taiwanese University of Technology <i>Hsiu-Lien Tu</i>	89
Words That Propel: The Power of Motivational Quotes in the EFL Class <i>Amal A. Alwasidi and Lubna A. Alnaeem</i>	97
-

Psychological Suggestive Connotations in Fahd Al-Askar's Poetry: "Woman and Wine" Poem as a Model <i>Ismeel M. M. Al-Gayam, Basma A. S. Al-Rawashdeh, Ahmad H. M. Bany Essa, and Mahmoud A. Rababah</i>	107
Naming and Describing as a Textual-Conceptual Tool in Woolf's <i>Mrs. Dalloway</i> <i>Azhar H. Sallomi and Iman M. Obied</i>	118
Translator's Style in Fiction Translation: A Ten-Year Systematic Literature Review <i>Yao Jinfang, Shaidatul A. A. Kasuma, and Mohamed A. Moindjie</i>	125
Ecollexicon of Flora and Fauna in Makassarese Proverbs: An Ecolinguistic Study <i>Mirsa Umiyati, Nur Afnita Asfar, and Rika Purnama Sari</i>	134
Empowering EFL Learners: A Multilayered Deep Learning Framework for EMI Universities <i>Aziz Thabit Saeed, Hayat Al-Khatib, Kaldun Mohamednur Said, and Ghada Abdel Hafeez</i>	145
The Impact of ChatGPT on EFL Medical Track Students' Affective Filter <i>Aeshah M. Almineeai, Mohammed A. Alrashed, Taha A. Hezam, Asma F. Alharthi, and Salma F. Alharthi</i>	158
English Language Teachers' Perspectives on Technological Applications Used for Students With Disabilities <i>Omar Ismail Alorani, Sarp Erkir, Suzie Yaseen Rababa'h, Baker Mohammad Bani-Khair, Ali Ata Alkhaldi, Mahmoud Ali Rababah, Basma Mohammad Al-Hawamdeh, Abdelsalam Fahad Al-Awamrah, and Feras Ali Al-Habies</i>	168
Perceptions of Middle School Arabic Language Teachers Towards the Development of Argumentative Writing Skills <i>Abeer S. AlSalem</i>	180
Dissenting Female Voices: A Comparative Reading of Nathaniel Hawthorne's <i>The Scarlet Letter</i> and Fadia Faqir's <i>My Name Is Salma</i> <i>Najah A. Alzoubi, Motasim O. Almwajeh, Abdullah F. Al-Badarneh, and Haitham M. Talafha</i>	190
Empowering Adult EFL Learners: A Self-Directed, Process-Oriented Writing Program <i>Nouf Aljasir</i>	197
Analysis of Japanese Learners' Mother Tongue Interferences in Speaking English Language <i>I Nyoman Muliana, Julius Faozanolo Sarumaha, and Rahmat Gaho</i>	210
Film Subtitling's Challenges and Solutions: An Empirical Study of Saudi Translation Learners' Perceptions and Attitudes <i>Talal Musaed Alghizzi, Anwar Alharbi, and Tariq Elyas</i>	219
Politeness Strategies in Arabic-Scripted Friday <i>Khutbah</i> ("Sermons") <i>Fathi Migdadi, Kawakib Al-Momani, and Ibrahim Hammouri</i>	232
English Language Needs of Thai Cruise Ship Crew Members: A Target Situation Analysis <i>Chariti Khuanmuang</i>	242
Ecollexicon of Balinese Medical Plants in <i>Lontar Usada Putih</i> : An Ecolinguistics Study <i>I Wayan Suardiana, I Made Dwika Hadinata, Rahmat Gaho, Anak Agung Gde Alit Geria, and I Made Budiasa</i>	252
The Relationship Between Students' L2 Engagement and Learning Success <i>Ibrahim H. Alzahrani</i>	266

The Adaptation of William Shakespeare's <i>Othello</i> in Nicole Galland's <i>I, Iago</i> <i>Jasmine Mohammad Hasayen and Nasaybah Walid Awajan</i>	274
Measuring Vocabulary Knowledge for Secondary Graduate Students <i>Yasser Alsuhaibani</i>	282
Benefits of Digital Editing for Japanese Writing Instruction <i>Kazuhito Uni</i>	289
Implementing a Genre-Based Approach to Enhance Essay Writing Skills in Saudi EFL Learners <i>Albandary Ibrahim Alhammad</i>	295
Gender Differences in Using Expressions of Agreement in Jordanian Spoken Arabic <i>Entessar M. Alharahsheh and Rashed A. Alharahsheh</i>	302
Expanding English Learning Beyond Classroom Boundaries: Investigating EFL Students' Perceptions of the Effects of Listening to Online Stories on Incidental Vocabulary Acquisition <i>Amal Abdul-Aziz Mohammad Al-Othman</i>	311
An Innovative Method of Teaching English for Hospitality: A Case in Bali Tourism College, Indonesia <i>Denok Lestari, Kadek Ayu Ekasani, Ni Luh Supartini, and Ni Made Ayu Sulasmini</i>	324
English Literature Studies Online: Insights From Graduate and Undergraduate Students at The Hashemite University <i>Haitham M. Talafha, Kifah M. Al-Omari, Marwan M. Obeidat, and Baker M. Bani-Khair</i>	335
The Implementation of TPACK-Based Metacognitive Listening Strategies in Improving Students' Critical Listening Skills <i>Arono, Nadrah, Elvi Susanti, Laspida Harti, Catur Wulandari, Nafri Yanti, and Y. Claudia Dhian A. Harbelubun</i>	346

The Case for Mediation: A Conceptual Review

Evangelia Xirofotou

Foreign Language Centre, University of Thessaly, Volos, Greece

Abstract—This conceptual review investigates the use of mediation in English language teaching contexts. Following a review of mediation and its background and uses. The Common European Framework of Reference for Languages (CEFR) and multilingualism are explained, along with its history and goals. The various definitions of mediation are examined, including those from the CEFR, as well as definitions related to translation and interpretation, and the one underpinning the mediation aspect of the National Foreign Language Exam System (KPG). It is argued that mediation is critical in all linguistic, social, and cultural contact zones, including language teaching and learning contexts. Mediators have a vital role in settings where the meanings of languages, identities, and relationships are being reassessed and renegotiated, and English as a foreign language (EFL) learners' mediation ability should be developed to enable them to fulfill this critical role in society. Teaching mediation strategies should constitute a new objective in foreign language learning and teaching by adopting new methodological approaches.

Index Terms—mediation, multilingualism, Common European Framework of Reference for Languages (CEFR), National Foreign Language Exam System (KPG), English language teaching

I. INTRODUCTION

Intercultural encounters are increasingly common in a globalized society. People with different languages and cultures must communicate and work together to achieve their goals. Mediation is a process that serves as a bridge between two (or more) cultures and plays a key role in a range of contexts. This article explores the use of mediation in English language teaching environments, arguing for the need to update traditional perceptions of the translator's role to include intercultural mediation and to develop English as a foreign language (EFL) learners' mediation ability to advance diverse societies. The paper begins with a brief overview of mediation (Section II). Section II gives a brief introduction to mediation and section III discusses multilingualism and the history and goals of the Common European Framework of Reference for Languages (CEFR). Then, definitions of mediation according to CEFR (Section IV), translation and interpretation (Section V), and the National Foreign Language Exam System (KPG) (Section VI) are discussed. Finally, Section VII focuses on the written mediation tasks included in the KPG, followed by concluding remarks.

II. THE ROLE OF MEDIATION

Mediation is the voluntary assistance of a third party with limited or no authoritative decision-making authority to help the parties engaged in a negotiation or conflict come to a mutually agreeable resolution (Moore, 2014, p. 15). Mediators are neutral intermediaries delivering information from one source to another; in the case of languages, the source language is adapted into a target language for recipients. To avoid or settle disputes and strengthen links with other parties, diplomats frequently participate in mediation (Berridge, 2022; Ruhe, 2020; United Nations, 2012; Wallenstein & Svensson, 2014).

Mediation has a rich history in many cultural, social, and religious traditions and has been used for centuries to achieve peace and harmony in informal, community-based systems. The Phoenicians, Greeks, and Romans solved their conflicts through mediation (Chern, 2014; Horowitz, 2007; Malkin, 2011; Roebuck, 2007), and in many cultures, mediators are important and highly respected community members. In the past, both inside and outside of their communities, mediators have translated what people said to one another, explained specific phenomena, and passed along information about social and everyday happenings (Xirofotou, 2012). The process of mediating between languages depends on this knowledge transfer (Tsaryk et al., 2021). The mediator stands between the source and recipient as a third party to ensure that the flow of communication is easy, clear, and as close to the original as possible.

Mediation remains essential in modern society and is applied in many contexts, such as diplomacy and resolving family conflicts after separation or divorce (Parkinson, 2020; Roberts, 2016; Roberts & Moscati, 2020). Mediation can also be used in school settings to prevent or reduce conflict by using learners trained as mediators to help peers involved in disputes tell their stories and reach a mutual agreement (Cohen, 2005; Gilhooley & Scheuch, 2000; Hansberry et al., 2017). Mediation may help to resolve legal disputes, for instance, when a neutral third party facilitates an out-of-court settlement (Goldberg et al., 2020; Lovenheim & Guerin, 2004; Menkel-Meadow, 2015; Spencer & Brogan, 2007). Although mediation often focuses heavily on language/s and resolving communication challenges, social and cultural implications typically occur, too, meaning that the mediator must consider a wide range of factors affecting the dynamics between the parties. This review focuses broadly on factors beyond language to provide a deeper understanding of the complexities of written mediation tasks.

Mediation within the language classroom is relevant to changes in society. Migration has led to homogeneous societies searching for ways to restructure their new worlds, including developing new relationships often characterized by linguistic differences. Translators and interpreters can no longer be regarded as 'walking dictionaries' who translate words and phrases directly. Their role has changed to include producing an equivalent meaning based on the social and cultural contexts where a text is used. In a dynamic society, translating and interpreting serve two primary functions: firstly, as professionals who convert texts from one language to another with fidelity and adequacy, and secondly, as 'intercultural mediators' who bridge the gap between different cultures and languages with a good understanding of the involved communities (Katan & Taibi, 2014). The latter approach is of interest here and provides the rationale for the present study. Migration wave to Europe, particularly in Greece, as well as globalization in general have made mediation essential to language comprehension to ensure social understanding on a broader scale (Pollastri, 2021). Therefore, this new translation and interpretation role corresponds to the description of an 'interlinguistic mediator' presented by Taft (1981), who claims that a person who helps others coming from diverse languages and/or cultures communicate, comprehend, and act. Interpreting one group's intents, expressions, and perceptions for another is his or her responsibility. to create the necessary communication equilibrium, because:

... a person that possesses... a deep knowledge of the languages, a high grade of cultural sensibility... to negotiate the meaning between both cultures and... transmit it to the members of the other community (Taft, 1981, p. 75).

Authors such as Taft (1981) and Viaggio (2006) reinforce the need for cultural awareness, viewing mediation as a process through which social communication and meaning are interpreted and circulated between people who cannot participate in direct communication, with the help of an intermediary. Mediation can occur within or between different societies, nations, and cultures where the lack of shared ideas and values may lead to misunderstandings. The social context in Greece has changed dramatically in recent years. The country hosts large numbers of economic immigrants, increasing everyday intercultural encounters between Greeks and people from other countries who do not know Greek. Explaining Greek literature frequently requires transferring the key concepts from Greek into English, either verbally or in writing (Xirofotou, 2012). Thus, the modifications strengthened the addition of a mediation exercise to the National Foreign Language Exam System (KPG) in the Greek social landscape where interaction between cultures is common (Panzarella & Sinibaldi, 2018). Mediation facilitates and improves intercultural communication in contexts such as Greece by bridging gaps and reconciling linguistic and cultural differences. Mediation also assists parties from different cultural backgrounds in managing social and communicative needs, helping them adapt to the changing needs of societies. The following section considers the implications of multilingualism and multiculturalism in the face of these changing needs. The CEFR is introduced, and its relationship to the policies adopted in language classrooms is discussed.

III. MULTILINGUALISM AND THE COMMON EUROPEAN FRAMEWORK OF REFERENCE FOR LANGUAGES

As EU member states have become increasingly multilingual and multicultural, implementing policies, strategies, and practices to facilitate communication and understanding between EU citizens has become necessary and has contributed to dialogue between groups at local, regional, and national levels. In general, multilingualism and appreciation of cultural diversity help promote international communication and are of paramount importance (Mackiewicz, 2009). Europe's political and social transformations are marked by the accession of additional countries to the EU, tourism development, and student exchange initiatives facilitating greater mobility and contact with Europeans. These developments have contributed to the EU's expansion and the implementation of educational policies that foster and support multilingualism (Erling & Moore, 2021; Gunesch, 2013; Hogan-Brun, 2010; Schedel, 2018).

Thus, in 2001—the European 'Year of Languages', to encourage openness and uniformity in foreign language instruction throughout Europe, was established the CEFR (Council of Europe et al., 2001). The CEFR originated from over 40 years of work on modern languages in various Council of Europe projects (Heyworth, 2004). Several important achievements occurred before the CEFR, e.g., the notional-functional approach (Wilkins, 1976) and the detailed syllabus specification at several language learning levels (Curipallo Lizano, 2019; Rahimpour, 2010). The CEFR (2001) has been translated into at least 36 languages and surpasses all expectations in terms of its influence on the language classroom. Still in use today, the original CEFR can now be used in conjunction with the CEFR Companion Volume (Council of Europe, 2020), which expands on many of the concepts introduced in the earlier version. Mediation is one of the concepts that was only briefly introduced in 2001 and has subsequently benefited from further research, leading to the development and expansion of the updated framework (discussed in Section IV of this paper). The CEFR (Council of Europe, 2020; Council of Europe et al., 2001) underpins this research, and its particular focus on multilingualism is the rationale for the written mediation task included in the KPG exams.

The CEFR (Council of Europe, 2020; Council of Europe et al., 2001) primarily aims to provide a unified framework for discussing language syllabuses, curriculum guidelines, examinations, and textbooks throughout Europe. The framework also aims to facilitate teachers', learners', publishers', and testers' communication across languages, educational sectors, and national boundaries (North, 2004, 2021). The Council of Europe encourages Europeans to look beyond their own culture and develop their understanding of the languages spoken in other European countries. The 1+2 language learning policy emphasizes acquiring multilingual skills through learning community languages, specifically the official languages of the EU, advocating that all European citizens should be proficient in at least two community languages besides their native language. This approach underscores the significance of foreign language learning for

cultural enrichment, mobility, and enhancing European competitiveness (Earls, 2016). The shift in foreign language teaching methods was primarily driven by multilingualism, which gained a new significance with the formation of the EU in 1992 and has been deeply connected to the EU's societal, political, and economic changes (Rindler Schjerve & Vetter, 2012).

The protection of individual rights is one facet of multilingualism that the EU supports, and hence, the CEFR (Clouet, 2008). Encouraging the sharing of talents and ideals is related to these rights and is a primary aim of the democratic citizenry that includes rights to employment prospects and access to different cultures and services. Authors such as Biseth (2008), Liddicoat et al. (2014), and Wiley et al. (2014) argue that language proficiency is crucial for member states to embrace linguistic diversity, as democracy requires the involvement of all citizens, including those from linguistic minority groups and advocate for the strong connection between language education, multilingualism, and democracy. Furthermore, according to Mackiewicz (2009), multilingualism should be viewed from the perspectives of mediation and language acquisition/competence. To promote successful cross-cultural communication in multilingual society, people must hone their mediation skills rather than rely just on their language proficiency and interaction, characterized by information exchange and efforts to understand each other.

Therefore, developing intercultural skills that enable multicultural people to act as intercultural mediators is an important asset for Europe and the globalized world. Teaching mediation strategies is one way to achieve this goal and should constitute a new objective in foreign language learning classrooms. Little (2006) noted that advancing and accepting these values requires educational effort and that language teaching is of fundamental significance. The KPG includes aspects of intercultural communication tested through mediation performance, which requires relaying messages from one language to another. Serving as a mediator between discourses, texts, cultures, and languages entails imparting mediation techniques that are necessary for citizens to be productive in such diverse communities (Guillot & Pavesi, 2019).

The CEFR shows that there are no universally accepted approaches to teaching in different languages (Horváth Futó & Hózsá, 2016). However, many approaches can be used based on the principle that foreign language learning can be adjusted to suit context. The framework is not directive but descriptive, intending to induce language teachers to reflect on and question their aims and methods (North, 2021). Instruction can be varied according to proficiency levels, phases of language learning, oral or written comprehension, and genres (Liddicoat, 2016). The variety of courses, skills, and organization levels is the foundation of multilingualism, deciding on objectives and what is exactly expected of students—is a necessary part of teaching (Lewandowska-Tomaszzyk, 2024). By analyzing and comprehending different viewpoints and challenging what is accepted in their own society, the language learner in this educational scenario gains the skills necessary to serve as a mediator between two cultures (Xirofotou, 2012). The next section focuses on the aims and methods associated with the concept of mediation in the CEFR. It explains CEFR's mediation activities, along with the information needed to complete written mediation assignments.

IV. THE CONCEPT OF MEDIATION IN THE CEFR

The inclusion of mediation in the CEFR indicates a change in direction for foreign language pedagogy, opening new dimensions in language teaching, learning, and assessment. Emphasized as a critical communication skill, mediation is defined as meaning-making and facilitating communication across linguistic and cultural barriers through collaborative processes. It is one of four language modes, along with reception, production, and interaction (Council of Europe, 2020). This role of mediation in the Companion Version of the CEFR (2020) is one of the key differences from the original CEFR (2001). North (2021) considers that mediation was introduced by the CEFR in 2001, but it took some time for research and industry practitioners to advance in order to create the framework for their further development and broader distribution in the updated 2020 version (North, 2021, p. 5).

The original CEFR placed significant emphasis on mediation through translation and interpretation. Language users were seen as intermediaries facilitating communication between individuals who would otherwise be unable to understand each other (Council of Europe et al., 2001). Mediation activities included oral interpretation, written translation, and summarizing or reformulating texts in the same language when the original text was not comprehensible to the intended audience. Oral mediation encompassed simultaneous interpretation at conferences and meetings, consecutive interpretation during speeches or guided tours, and informal interpretation in social or transactional contexts. On the other hand, written mediation encompassed precise translation of legal, scientific, and literary documents, along with translation, paraphrasing, or summarizing the main points of an article within the same language or between different languages. The CEFR (2001) viewed a mediator as a language user who primarily (though not exclusively) speaks different languages and serves as a bridge between interlocutors who are unable to understand one another directly (Xirofotou, 2012). The mediator is not concerned with expressing his or her own meanings (Council of Europe et al., 2001, pp. 87–88). Positioned between a source and a recipient, the mediator was perceived as impartial. However, given that every communicator is concerned with their own meanings that facilitate sense-making and involvement in the exchange of meanings, Dendrinos (2006) contended that the aforementioned viewpoint was uncommon.

Furthermore, the goal of mediation is to facilitate communication between parties or assist them in resolving a dispute or issue, which necessitates a more thorough understanding of what is spoken or written. Therefore, the mediator is also a social actor who oversees interactions and intervenes when necessary to aid communication and potentially influence

the outcome (Dendrinos, 2006, p. 11). The mediator also facilitates social situations where communication breakdowns or differences arise between two or more parties. Additionally, the mediator serves as a negotiator of meaning, functioning as an agent to create understanding, particularly in situations requiring meanings to be reconciled or compromised. Thus, the mediator must interpret and generate meaning—through writing or speech—for readers or listeners from diverse language or cultural backgrounds in order to fulfill the position as best they can (Xirofotou, 2012). In this case, the mediator actively acts as a meaning arbiter or arbitrator, making decisions on the meaning of something said or written to help both interlocutors. This view of the mediator as an active meaning-making agent was explicitly incorporated in the updated CEFR (2020). The companion version of the framework (Council of Europe, 2020) moved beyond the initial narrow scope of mediation to a broader conceptualization. Here, mediation is now related to social agents and the action-oriented approach (Piccardo et al., 2019) and is seen as a collaborative process of co-creation that may involve mediating a text, a concept, or communication. Linguistic mediation involves cultural and social mediation, necessitating a broader perspective that invokes the importance of working with others in a process of co-construction.

The CEFR (2001) outlined the process of creating equivalent meaning in the target language through several stages: (1) planning, which involves developing background knowledge, identifying supports, preparing a glossary, considering the needs of interlocutors, and selecting units of interpretation; (2) execution, which includes previewing in real-time, noting possibilities and equivalences, and bridging gaps; (3) evaluation, which entails checking the similarity of two versions and ensuring consistency of usage; and (4) repair, which involves refining by consulting dictionaries or thesauruses and seeking advice from experts and sources (Council of Europe et al., 2001, p. 88).

Although these stages remain relevant (North, 2021), the updated CEFR broadens the mediation descriptors to encompass seven specific aspects necessary at the execution level such as to relay on concrete information, clarify data, edit and translate the content, take notes, evaluate content as well as to analyze and criticize creative texts (Council of Europe, 2020). Effective execution also involves connecting to prior knowledge, adapting language, simplifying complex information, expanding dense text, and streamlining text (Council of Europe, 2020). None of these descriptors are new but represent a synthesis of findings from prominent researchers in the field (e.g., Bimmel & van Schooten, 2004; Dendrinos, 2006; Shreve, 2006; Wong, 2005) and the development of the initial version of the CEFR (2001).

While textual mediation and serving as an intermediary in informal contexts are well integrated into curricula and assessments in countries such as Germany (Kolb, 2016) and Greece (Stathopoulou, 2015), the 2020 CEFR update expands the concept of 'Mediating a text' to encompass non-verbal, creative, and literary information. Thus, mediation in a broader sense could involve mediation for self through reception and note-taking, mediating a text through the exchange of concepts garnered through research, and collaboration in constructing meaning during the planning and creation of an artifact.

As evident from the preceding text, the meaning and significance of mediation developed considerably from 2001 to 2020, and its evolution is detailed in the CEFR documents (North, 2021). The 2001 CEFR viewed mediation mainly as translation and interpretation, in contrast with the 2020 update, which broadened the scope of mediation. The following section considers mediation in more detail in the context of and in contrast to translation and interpretation theories.

V. MEDIATION IN THE CONTEXT OF TRANSLATION AND INTERPRETATION THEORIES

The concept of mediation is related to—but different from—translation and interpretation (Viaggio, 2006). Mediation is often understood as diplomatic negotiating or third-party intermediaries in a broader context than an interlinguistic one. This section considers theories of translation and interpretation, providing an alternative, more detailed definition of mediation and making a case for its use as an important language classroom task. Following this, the concept of mediation in the KPG exam is discussed. For the purposes of this paper, no differentiation is made between translation and interpretation. Moreover, only the differences between translation and interpretation and mediation are discussed.

Beyond language issues, interlinguistic mediation mechanisms are intricate. In interlinguistic mediation, translators must meet two criteria. They must possess extensive linguistic and cultural knowledge in order to serve as both linguistic and cultural mediators between languages (Malyuga et al., 2018). To effectively communicate the source language's message to the target, translators acting as mediators in this situation need to be cognizant of cultural nuances and asymmetrical features between languages. (Durán Muñoz, 2011; Viaggio, 2006) Thus, mediation requires more than translation. In general, interlinguistic mediation makes contact between cultures possible by involving the transfer and negotiation of meanings between the source and target, especially in instances where the target text's cultural references must be relayed in order to establish a cultural connection with the recipients. Translators are required to actively engage in the communication process and provide written or spoken content, and manipulate words to ensure the nuanced meaning is transmitted cross-culturally (Xirofotou, 2012).

In this context, Taft (1981) observed that cross-cultural mediation necessitates the exchange of concepts and data between cultural contexts. Although mediation involves more than just translation, this is comparable to the process of language translation. However, a mediator may never be asked to translate words exactly; instead, he will convey the concepts in a way that makes sense to the target culture's members (Taft, 1981, pp. 58–59).

Thus, a literal translation is not anticipated from a translator acting as a mediator (Katan & Taibi, 2014; Lomaka, 2017; Reiss & Rhodes, 2014; Schaffner, 1997; Viaggio, 2006). Instead, they must possess extensive linguistic and cultural expertise to mediate actively between the source and target texts. However, there is no hierarchy among the source,

mediator, and recipient; all hold equal status. Beyond being a translator, the mediator might not even need to use linguistic tools to convey messages and can be considered a 'cultural mediator'—someone who facilitates communication, understanding, and action between individuals or groups from different linguistic or cultural backgrounds (Council of Europe, 2020). Cultural mediators play a unique role as active third parties in the information relay process, which may involve interpreting each cultural group's expressions, intentions, perceptions, and expectations of the other, thereby establishing and balancing communication between them (Katan & Taibi, 2014). To effectively serve as a link, the mediator must have the ability to engage with both cultures to some extent. Thus, Taft (1981, p. 73) notes that a mediator must be bicultural to some extent, possessing "two skills in one skull" and sufficiently flexible to switch their orientation. The CEFR Companion Version (Council of Europe, 2020) refers to plurilingualism and pluriculturalism, essentially the single, interrelated repertoire that individuals combine with their general abilities to accomplish mediation tasks to meet language and/or cultural needs. Mediators require a high degree of intercultural sensitivity to effectively negotiate meaning across both cultures and transmit these meanings to the community (Viaggio, 2006).

The translator is primarily a mediator between two parties for whom mutual communication might otherwise be problematic. The original words, ideas, and information are manipulated into the target language by removing, adding, or modifying the source text to altering the original text to remove any barriers to communication, language, or information when conveying the message from L1 to L2 (Xirofotou, 2012). Hence, the role of the mediator is to link or fill in linguistic and cultural gaps by decoding ideas and behaviors and not just to translate the content. The 'conventional' translator, whose job it is to remove barriers to communication, continues to be an unseen player in the process. The mediator, on the other hand, is a tangible presence who makes use of those barriers as a crucial component of the message delivery process. An impediment has linguistic and cultural significance and contributes significantly to the meaning conveyed.

Byram and Risager (1999) highlight mediation's communication role, claiming that it allows for effective communication. The individual's ability to mediate between the source and target language (spoken or written) is essential for developing intercultural competence. Olk (2009) describes the intercultural mediation process when transferring information between source and target languages, including relating the source and target culture to identify culture-specificity in the source text (Angelone, 2016; Tomozeiu et al., 2016). As a result, learners must attempt to explain one culture in the context of another to find a satisfactory mediating position for cultural differences (Olk, 2009). Additionally, when cultural and social knowledge gaps make it difficult or impossible to convey a message, interpreters may need to step in. By changing the original words, adding justifications, or leaving out specific passages, this active intervention serves as a cultural mediator as opposed to an impartial or invisible force (Gerçek, 2007, p. 8).

The interpreter must sometimes become the mediator, stepping away from their 'invisible' role to add a further dimension of culturally shared knowledge. Viaggio (2006) presented his theory of interlingual mediation based on extensive experience in conference interpreting and literary and pragmatic translation. He argued that although mediation often involves translation, it has a greater purpose. Mediation aims to produce ideational identity and/or pragmatic correspondence in different subjects or situations to achieve relevant identity. The role of the mediator is to communicate whatever is required, practical, wise, or prudent so that the new interlocutor is aware of (a) what the mediator deems to be required, practical, wise, or prudent and (b) how it is necessary, convenient, advisable, or prudent from a metacommunicative standpoint. Viaggio's (2006) perspective on mediation is closely aligned with his view of communication, which is always embedded within a social context, and mediators need to hold pluralistic views of languages and cultures. The ability of the interlocutors to comprehend the linguistic utterances' content and intention, which are entrenched in particular social contexts, is essential to the metacommunicative success of communication (Viaggio, 2006, p. 45). Thus, the ability to modify meaning in order to overcome pragmatic and interpretive challenges is a crucial mediation skill. To ensure that the meaning intended is understood, the mediator should interpret the interlocutors' words while taking into account their goals, motives, and interests. His role is to convey meaning indirectly and make sure that communication is successful in terms of understanding and practical meaning in a particular social context. Interlingual mediation may fail if appropriate, polite forms are not understood and conveyed, even when word-for-word translation is accurate. The development of analytical skills, which include understanding propositional structure and pragmatic aims, is therefore a crucial prerequisite for the mediator.

A client who used the English equivalent of the Spanish phrase "elegido mejor compañero" ("chosen as the best fellow") in his resume is described by Viaggio (2001, pp. 9–10). The young Argentinean economist was applying for postgraduate studies at a US-based institute and considered that including this information in his resume would be helpful. However, this type of information does not meet the acceptability criteria for CVs in the US professional context, where an applicant's accomplishments should rather imply such positive attributes. In fact, including such information could have a detrimental effect on the application and appear too self-serving. Interlingual and intercultural mediation made the applicant aware of this fact and helped him select and present information more relevant to that context. The relationship between translation and pragmatics enables the translator to capture and translate all communication elements, including the verbal and non-verbal elements, by considering the context of the given situation.

Thus, the role of culture in communication is emphasized and, consequently, the role of translators and interpreters as cultural mediators. Similar to Viaggio (2006), Katan and Taibi (2014) contend that in order to appreciate the importance of culture and how it relates to communication, translation, and interpretation, a thorough understanding of it is necessary.

Moreover, when it comes to creating, interpreting, and perceiving reality, culture plays a crucial role. According to Katan and Taibi (2014), translators should understand geography, history, customs, traditions, behavior patterns, and popular culture of the cultures they are mediating. According to Bell (1991, p. 161), a translated text is a new creation that results from careful reading; it is a reconstruction rather than a copy. Also, Cincotta-Strong (2001, p. 108) notes that Katan's approach to translation is not a process of coding—encoding or re-coding—but rather of virtual text creation. This idea of translating as reconstruction continues to draw critical attention (Zelyck, 2019). The translator is a cultural mediator, able to understand the frames of interpretation in the source culture and write a text that can let the target reader reach a similar collection of interpretation frames (Katan & Taibi, 2014, p. 125). Translators serving as cultural mediators should possess the ability to analyze, (re) interpret, and (re) create the complex embedding of metacommunicative frames.

Thus, translators/interpreters have a new more active role than before. Since the world is becoming globalized, they should promote mutual understanding among foreigners, negotiating and promoting understanding between cultures. This new role corresponds to that of the cultural mediator and encompasses other roles such as arbitrator. It is important to point out that before, translators and interpreters were more perceived as a 'walking dictionary', which now needs to shift to incorporate the specialist role of negotiating understanding between cultures and shifting cultural orientation through analysis (Katan, 2015).

Additionally, Katan (2008) suggests that the mediator should take on an assertive position and support collaboration of the interlocutors in accomplishing their communicative goals. As the third person in the hierarchy-neutral triangle of source, the mediator has an empowering role, which allows them active interventions in the communication process, promoting effective transmission through explanation and analysis of the cultural and linguistic context. Also, mediators infuse their own knowledge and beliefs into the processing of texts in order to intervene and negotiate meaning between L1 and L2 texts (Katan, 2008, p. 89).

In order to approach the L1 and L2 texts critically and convey verbal cues as well as cultural beliefs and values embedded in the target communicative and social context, the mediator needs to be knowledgeable about both of the cultures involved (Hatim & Mason, 1990). Figure 1 describes mediation and the identification of communicative purposes in relation to a text. Katan's (2009) 'logical levels table' can assist the mediator in determining how to convey information between the source and target text, and it includes inquiries that guide.

LEVEL	What is going on?	Potential differences to be accounted for in the text	Potential differences to be accounted for between cultures
Environment	Where and when is this 'going on'? In what context of what situation?	Lexicogrammatical resources, genre, intertextual links, specialized language	Physical, political, social environment; period, people, setting, artefacts; culturemes, encyclopaedic knowledge, allusions, culture bumps
Behaviour	What is it that is 'going on'? What is to be translated?	Semantics: visible text, locution, cohesion	Visible action/ descriptions: (non)verbal behaviour, proxemics
Strategies	How are these things 'going on'? How is it to be translated?	Pragmatics: illocutionary intent/force, register, organization of discourse, house rules, individual style, coherence	Communication preferences: development of ideas, spoken/written styles, habits, customs; Norms, appropriacy, rules; linguaculture
Values/Beliefs	Why are these things 'going on'? What is the purpose of the translation?	Intentions: message, hidden message, assumptions, presuppositions	The hierarchy of preferred value-orientations; Beliefs about identity and about what 'right', 'standard' or 'normal'
Identity	Who is involved with this 'going on'? • Original author • Reader(ship)s • Commissioner • Translator as copier/manipulator	Actors in the text: personalities, animated subjects	National, ethnic, gender, religious, class, role; individual personality and cultural provenance(s)
Role, mission in society	Is this 'going on' coherent with my role/mission and the relevant social forces?	Text as agent change or status quo: esteem, ethics (of actors), long-term perlocutionary effects	The social forces, power issues, hegemonies, ideologies; moral issues

Figure 1. 'Logical Levels Table' of Context of Culture and Situation (Katan, 2008, pp. 89-90)

The first two columns of Figure 1 establish the framework for intervention, guiding the mediator to questions pertinent to that level. The third and fourth columns address the source and target texts, as well as the cultural and situational context, highlighting the relevant cultural aspects at each level. Thus, as a result, a new text will be created based on a completely different paradigm with a new perception of the world (Katan, 2008).

Disregarding ethnic groups and culture could accentuate racial, cultural, and linguistic differences, and Valero-Garcés (2006) draws attention to the mediator's ability to address ethnocultural differences. Mediators require both parties to have global knowledge to avoid cultural misconceptions. They must be aware of attitudes held by people from diverse backgrounds, including traits that must be adapted through intercultural communication, such as ethnocentric beliefs, phobias, prejudices, or preconceptions (Valero-Garcés, 2014). A major factor in promoting communication is the mediator's cultural background (Valero-Garcés, 2014). While mediators may belong to both, one, or neither cultures involved (Valero-Garcés, 2006), the mediator's ability to observe and study the involved cultures is the most important factor. Cambridge (2002) distinguishes between 'advocacy' and 'impartial' models—qualities frequently discussed in relation to mediation (Mayordomo, 2023)—by regarding the role of the interlinguistic mediator. Some institutions supporting migrants adopt a distant and objective attitude, with translators and interpreters considered mere reproducers of the message. For example, in Spain, some institutions involved in interlinguistic communication offer free translations and interpretations for migrants and recommend that interpreters should not assume functions when interpreting other than those inherent to the work and that they should remain objective and avoid putting themselves in the user's or provider's place (Valero-Garcés, 2006).

Thus, opposing views exist regarding the impartiality or involvement of the mediator. However, it is clear that needs to be totally involved in the information-sharing, reformulation, and summarization process (Wallenstein & Svensson, 2014). Thus, mediators must create a text that satisfies the language and cultural standards of all participants in order to foster a connection amongst role-players from various backgrounds. In addition to having a thorough understanding of the languages, this new role for translators and interpreters calls for someone with a high level of cultural sensitivity, which enables them to negotiate meaning between two cultures and effectively communicate it to members of the other community (Taft, 1981, p. 75).

The job of the translator, who concentrates on the literal or faithful transfer of concepts and subject matter from L1 to L2 texts, is different from that of the interlinguistic mediator and frequently results in misunderstandings for the recipients (Zelyck, 2019). The mediator actively participates in deciding what information should be kept, left out, hidden, or added in order to bridge this cultural communication gap and foster understanding between individuals from different backgrounds (Stathopoulou, 2019). This description offers insights into the abilities necessary for interlinguistic mediators in the EFL context. Language teachers could use these insights to help learners acquire, develop, and use strategies for effective mediation.

Thus, the ideas of translation and interpretation in connection with the mediation process were reviewed in this part. Translation is only one aspect of mediation. Mediators should be visible agents actively intervening to overcome linguistic and cultural obstacles. Although the translation of words and linguistic expressions is often involved, mediation entails the further skills of reformulation, addition, omission, and adaptation through selecting and explaining cultural information, conveying meaning, and ensuring expectations are met in terms of communicative purpose and social context. The text produced may not abide by the principles of faithful translation. The mediator actively participates in the transfer of concepts, knowledge, and values as well as the negotiation of meaning between the source and target texts. The following section focuses on the concept of mediation underpinning the KPG exam.

VI. THE NATIONAL FOREIGN LANGUAGE EXAM SYSTEM (KPG) AND THE CONCEPT OF MEDIATION

With an emphasis on written mediation techniques, exercises, and performance, this part addresses written mediation comprehension in relation to the KPG English language tests. Candidates must mediate, or transmit information verbally or in writing, from a text written in the source language (Greek) to the target language (e.g., English), as part of the written mediation assignments in the KPG exam. For the mediated text to be functionally adequate in the target language, the candidates must take into account the communicative goal and social context. To achieve a different communicative goal and impact on the intended reader, candidates must extract information from Greek texts and convey pertinent points in English.

The concept of mediation articulated by Dendrinos (2006) involves negotiation and interpretation of (social) meanings conveyed to individuals who may not fully understand the source text; this concept underpins the philosophy of the KPG mediation activities. One issue with the CEFR's idea of mediation is that foreign language programs do not provide simultaneous and consecutive interpretation/translation; as a result, the way they are regarded as separate communicative tasks (Xirofotou, 2012). There are many types of translation, each with its own purpose and required expertise, e.g., being well-read and having a background in the arts is necessary for literary text translation.

On this basis, Dendrinos (2006, 2013) maintains that mediation is altogether different from professional translation. It is an everyday exchange that uses 'meaning-making agents' to communicate, negotiate, and deliver the meaning between languages, taking from the source and 'feeding' it to the recipient. Consequently, the concept of mediation for the KPG exams for English and other languages significantly diverged from the original perspective in the 2001 CEFR (Council of Europe et al., 2001). However, it has influenced the updated companion version (Council of Europe, 2020),

contributing to developing the broader notion of mediation currently in use. Translators are expected to remain invisible and adhere strictly to the original source without injecting their views or standpoints or appearing in the final output. They are not permitted to alter the text's discourse, genre, or register. Mediators, in contrast, are communicative agents. In mediation, the source and recipient rely on judgment from a third party about aspects of relevance (Viaggio, 2006).

Consequently, the goal of mediation exercises is to help learners become more adept at considering the social and functional significance of language forms in the L2. According to Dendrinos (2006, p. 12), the mediator's position is all-encompassing for mediation as a social activity, and when someone accepts or is assigned this duty, they also take on the responsibility of interpreting social meanings for others. Phrases like "What she means is..." or "What he really wants to say..." are occasionally used to qualify the mediating statement.

Mediation is related to the power because the mediator takes the opportunity given to them by the source to interpret social meanings for another party (Dendrinos, 2006). In the KPG exam, the mediator may act as a meaning negotiator, facilitator or meaning-making agent, among other functions (Xirofotou, 2012). Their communicative purpose is to promote communication between two parties or assist them in settling a problem, necessitating a profound understanding of spoken or written language. As a facilitator, the mediator would assist two or more parties experiencing a communication breakdown at a social event. They would act as a negotiator of meanings in situations requiring reconciliation, settlement, or compromise. The role of a meaning-making agent would be accomplished by interpreting and generating meanings through speech or writing for audiences from diverse linguistic, cultural, or social backgrounds (Dendrinos, 2006). The context determines which part of the message should be transferred together with the type of register used. The following section provides further detail on the mediation task in the KPG exam.

VII. THE WRITTEN MEDIATION TASK IN THE KPG EXAM

Mediation activities in the written test papers for all KPG languages (starting from the B1 level) are based on real-life scenarios and require candidates to selectively extract information, ideas, and meanings from a Greek source text and produce an original content in another language. The target text may be different from the source material in terms of type and communication goal. For example, an article on movies from a Greek daily that tells people about movies at the theater could be used as part of a B2-level written mediation exercise. The mediation task requires candidates to write an English recommendation for two films for children and two for teenagers. In another B2 activity, the mediation task asks candidates to read an article entitled 'The Key to Success' about preparing for school exams from a Greek magazine as the source text and write an English blog post giving advice to their friends preparing for exams. Written mediation tasks and performance requirements differ in the English test papers at each exam level (Stathopoulou, 2009, 2014, 2019).

Candidates must take into account the full context when completing the mediation tasks, which includes the text's setting, readership, and motivations for writing. The tasks draw on linguistic competence and awareness of the intercultural setting in which texts are produced. Candidates should use various mediation strategies based on their instruction in class regarding relaying information from a source to a target, as well as approaches they have learned for evaluating strategies. Dendrinos and Stathopoulou (2010) specifically advise that candidates should be trained to identify and appropriately reformulate information relevant to the communicative purpose, integrate information from various parts of the source text or reorganize relevant details into the target text, add or omit information as needed, restructure the source text, accurately and suitably paraphrase source information, creatively merge source information with additional details, avoid literal translation of entire sentences, and convey the essence of the source text.

These practical pointers enhance EFL learners' ability to effectively respond to KPG exam questions regarding mediation and, more importantly, help develop their mediation skills for practice in culturally and linguistically diverse settings. These pointers are similar to the descriptors included in the CEFR Companion Version (Council of Europe, 2020, Section IV), clearly indicating the contribution of authors such as Dendrinos and Stathopoulou (2010) to the revised CEFR framework.

VIII. CONCLUSION

This paper provides an overview of mediation in the context of linguistic, social, and cultural interactions, where the meanings of languages, identities, and relationships are dynamically being re-evaluated and renegotiated. The concept of mediation was examined from multiple perspectives, along with an exploration of translation and interpretation. The importance of mediators in our culturally diverse globalized society was emphasized, and an argument was made for updating the conceptualization of the translator's role to include complex abilities associated with intercultural mediation. Effective intercultural mediation requires linguistic knowledge in addition to more advanced mediation skills such as cultural awareness, negotiation, and evaluation. Instruction of mediation strategies should be incorporated into language learning classrooms to promote the development of EFL learners' mediation abilities, vital skills needed in globalized societies.

ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

The author wishes to thank her peers and colleagues for engaging in insightful discussions that enriched the conceptualization of this study.

REFERENCES

- [1] Angelone, E. (2016). A process-oriented approach for documenting and gauging intercultural competence in translation. *The Interpreter and Translator Trainer*, 10(3), 304-317. <https://doi.org/10.1080/1750399x.2016.1236560>
- [2] Bell, R. T. (1991). *Translation and translating: Theory and practice* (1 ed.). Longman, coll. Retrieved August 12, 2024 Accessed from <https://doi.org/10.4324/9781315846705>
- [3] Berridge, G. R. (2022). *Diplomacy: Theory and Practice* (6 ed.). Palgrave Macmillan Retrieved August 12, 2024 Accessed from <https://doi.org/10.1007/978-3-030-85931-2>
- [4] Bimmel, P., & van Schooten, E. (2004). The Relationship between Strategic Reading Activities and Reading Comprehension. *L1-Educational Studies in Language and Literature*, 4(1), 85-102. <https://doi.org/10.1023/B:ESLL.0000033844.88918.e7>
- [5] Biseth, H. (2008). Multilingualism and Education for Democracy. *International Review of Education*, 55(1), 5-20. <https://doi.org/10.1007/s11159-007-9079-3>
- [6] Byram, M., & Risager, K. (1999). *Language Teachers, Politics and Cultures* (1 ed.). Multilingual Matters. Retrieved August 12, 2024 Accessed from <https://www.multilingual-matters.com/page/detail/Language-Teachers-Politics-and-Cultures/?k=9781853594410>
- [7] Cambridge, J. (2002). Interlocutor roles and the pressures on interpreters. *Traducción e interpretación en los servicios públicos*, 1, 119-124.
- [8] Chern, C. (2014). *The Commercial Mediator's Handbook* (1 ed.). Informa Law from Routledge. Retrieved August 12, 2024 Accessed from <https://doi.org/10.4324/9781315767444>
- [9] Cincotta-Strong, M. (2001). From Practice to Theory. *International Journal of Translation*, 6, 97-117. Retrieved August 12, 2024 Accessed from <http://hdl.handle.net/10077/2944>
- [10] Clouet, R. (2008). Intercultural language learning: Cultural mediation within the curriculum of translation and interpreting studies. *Ibérica*, 16, 147-167. Accessed from <https://www.redalyc.org/pdf/2870/287024065009.pdf>
- [11] Cohen, R. (2005). *Students Resolving Conflict: Peer Mediation in Schools* (2 ed.). Good Year Books. Retrieved August 12, 2024 Accessed from <https://books.google.co.in/books?id=iwlpIsL16EgC>
- [12] Council of Europe. (2020). *Common European Framework of Reference for Languages Learning, teaching, assessment – Companion volume* (1 ed.). Council of Europe Publishing. Retrieved August 12, 2024 Accessed from <https://rm.coe.int/common-european-framework-of-reference-for-languages-learning-teaching/16809ea0d4>
- [13] Council of Europe, Council for Cultural Co-operation, Education Committee, & Division, M. L. (2001). *Common European framework of reference for languages: Learning, teaching, assessment* Cambridge University Press. Retrieved August 12, 2024 Accessed from <https://rm.coe.int/1680459f97>
- [14] Curipallo Lizano, E. I. (2019). *Funcional-notional approach for English speaking skill development* [Unpublished master's thesis]. Universidad Técnica de Ambato. Retrieved August 12, 2024 from <http://repositorio.uta.edu.ec/jspui/handle/123456789/30228>
- [15] Dendrinos, B. (2006). Mediation in communication, language teaching and testing. *Journal of Applied Linguistics*, 22(1), 9-35.
- [16] Dendrinos, B. (2013). Testing and teaching mediation. *Directions in English language teaching and testing*, 1. Retrieved August 12, 2024 Accessed from http://rcl.enl.uoa.gr/directions/issue1_1f.htm
- [17] Dendrinos, B., & Stathopoulou, M. (2010). Mediation activities: Cross-language communication performance. *ELT News*, 249, 12. Retrieved August 12, 2024 Accessed from https://rcl.enl.uoa.gr/kpg/kpgcorner_may2010.htm
- [18] Durán Muñoz, I. (2011). Tourist translations as a mediation tool: misunderstandings and difficulties. *Cadernos de Tradução*, 1(27), 29-49. <https://doi.org/10.5007/2175-7968.2011v1n27p29>
- [19] Earls, C. W. (2016). *Evolving Agendas in European English-Medium Higher Education*. Palgrave Macmillan. Retrieved August 12, 2024 Accessed from <https://doi.org/10.1057/9781137543127>
- [20] Erling, E. J., & Moore, E. (2021). Introduction—Socially just plurilingual education in Europe: shifting subjectivities and practices through research and action. *International Journal of Multilingualism*, 18(4), 523-533. <https://doi.org/10.1080/14790718.2021.1913171>
- [21] Gercek, S. E. (2007). Cultural mediator" or "Scrupulous translator?" Revisiting role, context and culture in consecutive conference interpreting. In P. Boulogne (Ed.), *Translation and its others. Selected papers of the CETRA research seminar in translation studies* (pp. 1-33). Katholieke Universiteit Leuven.
- [22] Gilhooley, J., & Scheuch, N. S. (2000). *Using peer mediation in classrooms and schools: strategies for teachers, counselors, and administrators* (1 ed.). Corwin Press. Retrieved August 12, 2024 Accessed from <https://us.sagepub.com/en-us/nam/using-peer-mediation-in-classrooms-and-schools/book10731>
- [23] Goldberg, S. B., Sander, F. E. A., Rogers, N. H., & Cole, S. R. (2020). *Dispute Resolution: Negotiation, Mediation, Arbitration, and Other Processes* (7 ed.). Aspen Publishing. Retrieved August 12, 2024 Accessed from <https://aspenpublishing.com/products/goldberg-adr7>
- [24] Guillot, M.-N., & Pavesi, M. (2019). AVT as intercultural mediation. *Multilingua*, 38, 495-504. <https://doi.org/10.1515/multi-2018-0115>
- [25] Gunesch, K. (2013). Intercultural understanding via local and global educational citizenship: A contribution to international education via a lived-in substantiation of multilingualism and cosmopolitanism. *Journal of Research in International Education*, 12(2), 173-189. <https://doi.org/10.1177/1475240913498658>
- [26] Hansberry, B., Hansberry, C. L., & Thorsborne, M. (2017). *How to Do Restorative Peer Mediation in Your School: A Quick Start Kit – Including Online Resources* (1 ed.). Jessica Kingsley Publishers. Retrieved August 12, 2024 Accessed from <https://adasbooks.com/book/9781785923845>
- [27] Hatim, B., & Mason, I. (1990). *Discourse and the Translator* (1 ed.). Routledge. Retrieved August 12, 2024 Accessed from <https://doi.org/10.4324/9781315846583>
- [28] Heyworth, F. (2004). Why the CEF is important. In K. Morrow (Ed.), *Insights from the common European framework* (pp. 12-21). Oxford University Press.

- [29] Hogan-Brun, G. (2010). Language, education policy and transformation in Central and Eastern Europe. *Comparative Education*, 46(1), 3-12. <https://doi.org/10.1080/03050060903538574>
- [30] Horowitz, S. (2007). Mediation. In C. Weibel & J. Galtung (Eds.), *Handbook of Peace and Conflict Studies* (pp. 13). Routledge.
- [31] Horváth Futó, H., & Hózsá, É. (2016). Divergent cultural environment – Translator authenticity. *Acta Universitatis Sapientiae, Philologica*, 8(1), 20–27. <https://doi.org/10.1515/ausp-2016-0014>.
- [32] Katan, D. (2008). Translation as intercultural communication. In J. Munday (Ed.), *The Routledge companion to translation studies* (pp. 88-106). Routledge.
- [33] Katan, D. (2015). Translation at the cross-roads: Time for the transcreational turn? *Perspectives*, 24(3), 365-381. <https://doi.org/10.1080/0907676x.2015.1016049>
- [34] Katan, D., & Taibi, M. (2014). *Translating cultures: An introduction for translators, interpreters and mediators* (2 ed.). Routledge. Retrieved August 12, 2024 Accessed from <https://doi.org/10.4324/9781315759692>
- [35] Kolb, E. (2016). *Sprachmittlung: Studien zur Modellierung einer komplexen Kompetenz* [Linguistic mediation: Studies to model a complex competence] (1 ed.). Waxmann Verlag. Retrieved August 12, 2024 Accessed from <https://elibrary.utb.de/doi/book/10.31244/9783830984085>
- [36] Liddicoat, A. (2016). Intercultural mediation, intercultural communication and translation. *Perspectives*, 24(3), 354–364. <https://doi.org/10.1080/0907676X.2014.980279>
- [37] Liddicoat, A. J., Heugh, K., Curnow, T. J., & Scarino, A. (2014). Educational responses to multilingualism: an introduction. *International Journal of Multilingualism*, 11(3), 269-272. <https://doi.org/10.1080/14790718.2014.921174>
- [38] Little, D. (2006). The Common European Framework of Reference for Languages: Content, purpose, origin, reception and impact. *Language Teaching*, 39(3), 167-190. <https://doi.org/10.1017/s0261444806003557>
- [39] Lomaka, A. O. (2017). Literal approach to translation: a classification and literature review. *XLinguae*, 10(4), 234-244. <https://doi.org/10.18355/xl.2017.10.04.19>
- [40] Lovenheim, P., & Guerin, L. (2004). *Mediate, don't litigate* (1 ed.). Nolo. Retrieved August 12, 2024 Accessed from https://books.google.co.in/books/about/Mediate_Don_t_Litigate.html?id=THpSAQAACAAJ&redir_esc=y
- [41] Lund, M. S. (1996). *Preventing violent conflicts: A strategy for preventive diplomacy* (1 ed.). United States Institute of Peace Press. Retrieved August 12, 2024 Accessed from <https://doi.org/10.1017/S0892679400008029>
- [42] Mackiewicz, W. (2009, 30–31 March). *Multilingualism – The fundamental principle of the EU's language policy and language education policy*. Keynote Speech at EU Multilingualism Conference, Beijing, China.
- [43] Malkin, I. (2011). *A Small Greek World: Networks in the Ancient Mediterranean* (1 ed.). Oxford University Press. Retrieved August 12, 2024 Accessed from <https://doi.org/10.1093/acprof:oso/9780199734818.001.0001>
- [44] Malyuga, E., Krouglov, A., & Tomalin, B. (2018). Linguo-cultural competence as a cornerstone of translators' performance in the domain of intercultural business communication. *XLinguae*, 11, 566–582. <https://doi.org/10.18355/XL.2018.11.02.46>
- [45] Mayordomo, M. F. D. C. (2023). Rules for linguistic-cultural mediation. *FITISPos International Journal*, 10(1), 22-34. <https://doi.org/10.37536/FITISPos-IJ.2023.10.1.355>
- [46] Menkel-Meadow, C. J. (2015). Mediation, Arbitration, and Alternative Dispute Resolution (ADR). In J. D. Wright (Ed.), *International Encyclopedia of the Social & Behavioral Sciences* (Second Edition) (pp. 70-74). Elsevier. <https://doi.org/10.1016/B978-0-08-097086-8.86083-3>
- [47] Moore, C. W. (2014). *The mediation process: Practical strategies for resolving conflict* (4 ed.). Jossey-Bass. Retrieved August 12, 2024 Accessed from <https://www.wiley.com/en-us/The+Mediation+Process%3A+Practical+Strategies+for+Resolving+Conflict%2C+4th+Edition-p-9781118304303>
- [48] North, B. (2004). Europe's framework promotes language discussion, not directives. *Guardian Weekly*. Retrieved August 12, 2024 Accessed from <https://www.theguardian.com/education/2004/apr/15/tefl6>
- [49] North, B. (2021). The CEFR Companion Volume - What's new and what might it imply for teaching/learning and for assessment? *CEFR Journal - Research and Practice*, 4, 5-24. <https://doi.org/10.37546/jaltsig.Cefr4-1>
- [50] Olk, H. M. (2009). Translation, Cultural Knowledge and Intercultural Competence. *Journal of Intercultural Communication*, 9(2), 1-10. <https://doi.org/10.36923/jicc.v9i2.483>
- [51] Parkinson, L. (2020). *Family Mediation* (4 ed.). LexisNexis. Retrieved August 12, 2024 Accessed from <https://books.google.co.in/books?id=DQ9TzQEACAAJ>
- [52] Panzarella, G., & Sinibaldi, C. (2018). Translation in the language classroom: Multilingualism, diversity, collaboration. *EuroAmerican Journal of Applied Linguistics and Languages*, 5(2), 62–75. <https://doi.org/10.21283/2376905X.9.140>
- [53] Piccardo, E., North, B., & Goodier, T. (2019). Broadening the Scope of Language Education: Mediation, Plurilingualism, and Collaborative Learning: the CEFR Companion Volume. *Journal of e-Learning and Knowledge Society*, 15(1), 17-36. <https://doi.org/10.20368/1971-8829/1612>
- [54] Pollastri, A. P. (2021). Intercultural communication at the heart of a translation quality assessment model. *JTS*, 1, 141–154. <https://doi.org/10.3726/JTS012021.8>
- [55] Rahimpour, M. (2010). Current trends on syllabus design in foreign language instruction. *Procedia - Social and Behavioral Sciences*, 2(2), 1660-1664. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.sbspro.2010.03.254>
- [56] Reiss, K., & Rhodes, E. F. (2014). *Translation criticism-potentials and limitations: Categories and criteria for translation quality assessment* (1 ed.). Routledge. Retrieved August 12, 2024 Accessed from <https://doi.org/10.4324/9781315760407>
- [57] Rindler Schjerve, R., & Vetter, E. (2012). *European multilingualism: Current perspectives and challenges* (1 ed.). Multilingual matters. Retrieved August 12, 2024 Accessed from <https://www.multilingual-matters.com/page/detail/?k=9781847697349>
- [58] Roberts, M. (2007). *Developing the craft of mediation: Reflections on theory and practice* (1 ed.). Jessica Kingsley Publishers. Retrieved August 12, 2024 Accessed from https://books.google.co.in/books/about/Developing_the_Craft_of_Mediation.html?id=i_37-IjrIMC&redir_esc=y
- [59] Roberts, M. (2016). *Mediation in family disputes: Principles of practice* (4 ed.). Routledge. Retrieved August 12, 2024 Accessed from <https://doi.org/10.4324/9781315594620>

- [60] Roberts, M., & Moscati, M. F. (2020). *Family mediation: Contemporary issues* (1 ed.). Bloomsbury. Retrieved August 12, 2024 Accessed from <https://sk.sagepub.com/books/family-mediation>
- [61] Roebuck, D. (2007). The Myth of Modern Mediation. *Arbitration*, 73(1), 105-116. Retrieved August 12, 2024 Accessed from <http://www.kluwerlawonline.com/api/Product/CitationPDFURL?file=Journals\AMDM\AMDM2007014.pdf>
- [62] Ruhe, C. (2020). Impeding fatal violence through third-party diplomacy: The effect of mediation on conflict intensity. *Journal of Peace Research*, 58(4), 687-701. <https://doi.org/10.1177/0022343320930072>
- [63] Schaffner, C. (1997). From 'Good' to 'Functionally Appropriate': Assessing Translation Quality. *Current Issues In Language and Society*, 4(1), 1-5. <https://doi.org/10.1080/13520529709615476>
- [64] Schedel, L. S. (2018). Turning local bilingualism into a touristic experience. *Language Policy*, 17(2), 137-155. <https://doi.org/10.1007/s10993-017-9437-3>
- [65] Shreve, G. M. (2006). Integration of translation and summarization processes in summary translation. *Translation and Interpreting Studies*, 1(1), 87-109. <https://doi.org/10.1075/tis.1.1.06shr>
- [66] Spencer, D., & Brogan, M. (2007). *Mediation Law and Practice* (1 ed.). Cambridge University Press. Retrieved August 12, 2024 Accessed from <https://www.cambridge.org/core/books/mediation-law-and-practice/3C17890F01377DCBF9CBA29EA17A4FCE>
- [67] Stathopoulou, M. (2009). *Written Mediation in The KPG Exams: Source Text Regulation Resulting in Hybrid Formations* [Unpublished master's thesis]. National And Kapodistrian University of Athens. Retrieved August 12, 2024 from <https://citeseerx.ist.psu.edu/document?repid=rep1&type=pdf&doi=cb51c23ef1cf9bc9922c8af79469841772e3502d>
- [68] Stathopoulou, M. (2014). The Linguistic Characteristics of KPG Written Mediation Tasks across Proficiency Levels. In N. Lavidas, T. Alexiou, & A.-M. Sougari (Eds.), *Major Trends in Theoretical and Applied Linguistics Volume 3* (pp. 349-366). De Gruyter Open. <https://doi.org/10.2478/9788376560915.p21>
- [69] Stathopoulou, M. (2015). *Cross-language mediation in foreign language teaching and testing* (1 ed.). Multilingual Matters. Retrieved August 12, 2024 Accessed from <https://doi.org/10.21832/9781783094127>
- [70] Stathopoulou, M. (2019). The reading-to-write construct across languages: Analysing written mediation tasks and performance. *Selected papers on theoretical and applied linguistics*, 23, 414-428. <https://doi.org/10.26262/istal.v23i0.7357>
- [71] Taft, R. (1981). The role and personality of the mediator. In S. Bochner (Ed.), *The mediating person: Bridges between cultures* (pp. 53-88). G.K. Hall.
- [72] Tomozeiu, D., Koskinen, K., & D'Arcangelo, A. (2016). Teaching intercultural competence in translator training. *The Interpreter and Translator Trainer*, 10(3), 251-267. <https://doi.org/10.1080/1750399x.2016.1236557>
- [73] Tsaryk, O., Rybina, N., Koshil, N., & Hyryla, O. (2021). Professional development training of the interpreters under the effective intercultural communication. *Mountain School of Ukrainian Carpaty*. <https://doi.org/10.15330/msuc.2021.24.24-27>
- [74] United Nations. (2012). *Guidance for Effective Mediation Annex I of the Report of the Secretary-General: Strengthening the role of mediation in the peaceful settlement of disputes, conflict prevention and resolution, UN Doc A/66/811*. Retrieved August 12, 2024 Accessed from https://peacemaker.un.org/sites/peacemaker.un.org/files/GuidanceEffectiveMediation_UNDPA2012%28english%29_0.pdf
- [75] Valero-Garcés, C. (2006). *Mediation as translation or translation as mediation? Widening the translator's role in a new multicultural society*. Retrieved August 12, 2024 from <https://www.translationdirectory.com/article324.htm>
- [76] Valero-Garcés, C. (2014). *Communicating across cultures: A coursebook on interpreting and translating in public services and institutions* (1 ed.). University Press of America. Retrieved August 12, 2024 Accessed from https://books.google.co.in/books/about/Communicating_Across_Cultures.html?id=4uMjAwAAQBAJ&redir_esc=y
- [77] Viaggio, S. (2001). Simultaneous interpreting for television and other media: translation doubly constrained. In Y. Gambier & H. Gottlieb (Eds.), *(Multi) Media Translation* (pp. 23-34). John Benjamins. <https://doi.org/10.1075/BTL.34.05VIA>
- [78] Viaggio, S. (2006). *A general theory of interlingual mediation* (1 ed.). Frank & Timme GmbH. Retrieved August 12, 2024 Accessed from https://www.ciando.com/img/books/extract/3865969194_lp.pdf
- [79] Wallensteen, P., & Svensson, I. (2014). Talking peace. *Journal of Peace Research*, 51(2), 315-327. <https://doi.org/10.1177/0022343313512223>
- [80] Wiley, T. G., Garcia, D. R., Danzig, A. B., & Stigler, M. L. (2014). Language Policy, Politics, and Diversity in Education. *Review of Research in Education*, 38(1), vii-xxiii. <https://doi.org/10.3102/0091732x13512984>
- [81] Wilkins, D. A. (1976). *Notional Syllabuses: A Taxonomy and Its Relevance to Foreign Language Curriculum Development* (1 ed.). Oxford University Press. Retrieved August 12, 2024 Accessed from <https://books.google.co.in/books?id=cRFZAAAAMAAJ>
- [82] Wong, A. T. Y. (2005). Writers' mental representations of the intended audience and of the rhetorical purpose for writing and the strategies that they employed when they composed. *System*, 33(1), 29-47. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.system.2004.06.009>
- [83] Xirofotou, E. (2012). *Developing strategies through instruction in Greek EFL classrooms: The case of the mediation task for the KPG B2 level exams* (Doctoral dissertation). Aristotle University of Thessaloniki.
- [84] Zelyck, L. R. (2019). Transcription, Reconstruction, and Translation. In L. R. Zelyck (Ed.), *The Egerton Gospel (Egerton Papyrus 2 + Papyrus Köln VI 255)* (pp. 49-92). Brill. https://doi.org/10.1163/9789004409842_005



Evangelia Xirofotou (born in Volos, 30 August) holds a PhD in Linguistics from Aristotle University of Thessaloniki, Greece (2013), a MSc in TESOL from the University of Stirling, UK (1998), a Bachelor's degree with Honours in English from Anglia Ruskin University, UK (1997) and a Postgraduate Certificate in Teaching English for Academic Purposes (TEAP) from the University of Leicester UK (2016).

She is currently a Teaching Fellow in English for Academic Purposes (EAP) at the Foreign Language Centre of the University of Thessaly in Volos, Greece. She teaches English for Specific and Academic Purposes (ESAP) at the School of Humanities and Social Sciences in the Departments of Special Education and Primary Education. She also holds the role of co-team leader for a recently implemented course called Academic Literacies, under the supervision and coordination of the Special Education Department, which follows the principles of English medium instruction. She was previously an English for Academic Purposes Tutor at the University of Southampton and Liverpool John Moores University. Her research interests include multilingualism, language education, materials design, learners' autonomy, academic writing, written mediation, curriculum development, pedagogy and education, critical thinking skills development, World Englishes, and English Medium Instruction.

Dr Xirofotou is a member of the British Association of Lecturers in English for Academic Purposes (BALEAP), the International Association of Teachers of English as a Foreign Language (IATEFL), and the International Organisation of Teaching English to Speakers of Other Languages (TESOL), Greece. Her previous publications include 'Using Mediation Strategies from an L1 to an L2 Text', *IATEFL 2018: Brighton Conference Selections*, edited by Tania Pattison (Kent: IATEFL, 2018).

The Criteria and Challenges in Evaluating the Performance of the Writing Skills of German Language Students

Sadije Rexhepi

Faculty of Philology, University of Prishtina, Prishtinë, Kosovo

Çliresa Suka*

Faculty of Philology, University of Prishtina, Prishtinë, Kosovo

Abstract—The goal of this study was to learn how the performance of German as a Foreign Language (GFL) writing skills is evaluated, what criteria it is based on, and what challenges can be expected during the evaluation. Performance measurement is a challenge for many, and previous research and experience show that when it comes to productive abilities, writing takes a back seat in the classroom, where speaking skills are prioritized. Nonetheless, since the focus of this study is on German writing skills, it is important to clarify their role in GFL teaching. Although there are different aspects and criteria for the assessment of productive and writing skills, some are more important than others. The study takes a theoretical and empirical approach, utilizing a questionnaire and interviews to analyze the perspectives of both examinees (students) and examiners (teachers). For a justified assessment, certain quality criteria are considered, including objectivity, reliability, and validity. Additionally, the study also references Goethe, ÖSD, and TELC model tests, as well as other test forms used in private schools and university courses in Kosovo. Thus, this research focuses not only on the various forms and functions of performance measurement but also on the potential obstacles that may develop during assessment and how to avoid and fix these issues.

Index Terms—writing skill, performance measurement, criteria of quality, content design, grammar

I. INTRODUCTION

Studies on writing assessment in foreign or second languages have taken a range of approaches. Many authors, such as Storch (1999), Rösler (2012), and Decke-Cornill and Küster (2015), have investigated the writing assessment of German as a Foreign Language (GFL), whereas Kic-Drgas (2022) and Kast (2003) have studied writing assessment and its difficulties in English and German from various perspectives. Still others like Grotjahn and Kleppin (2017), Hinger and Stadler (2018), Glaboniat (2017), Bolton (1996), Kleppin (1998), and Albers et al. (1995) have explored the subject even deeper, specifically studying testing and assessment of writing skills in English and German, while Liu (2022) went so far as to analyze the reliability and feasibility of the integration of automated writing evaluation (AWE) and human evaluation in an English writing course.

Perhaps one of the most difficult tasks in the world of teaching and learning is performance measurement. As a result, one must first understand the term “performance measurement” and all its related terms so that a deeper dive into the topic is possible. Moreover, this research article will attempt to find out how the performance of the skill of writing in German is assessed, what difficulties arise in the process, and what criteria this assessment is based on. This will be accomplished by answering the following research questions:

1. How can performance in the open tasks, especially in writing skills, be measured or assessed as correctly as possible?
2. What difficulties are encountered when evaluating or correcting the open (writing) tasks?
3. Are there differences or similarities between the assessment criteria at examination centers (Goethe, TELC, and ÖSD), in private schools, or in university courses in Kosovo?

The assessment of productive skills is challenging for teachers as it is largely based on open-ended tasks. While evaluating these skills, and particularly writing abilities, a number of factors and standards must be considered, some of which are more significant than others. The hypothesis of this article is that content is more important for writing skills than other testable aspects.

II. METHODOLOGY

* Corresponding Author.

Various methods of data collection were used in this study, and the work takes both a theoretical and an empirical approach. Furthermore, a literature review was carried out for the theoretical data collection. This was important for the study in order to create a basis on which to build the practical or empirical part. Additionally, because this study is concerned with performance measurement, both the perspective of the examinees (learners and students) and the perspective of the examiners (teachers and lecturers) were considered. Moreover, after being fully informed about the project, the interview subjects gave their consent to participate and their permission for their interviews to be used for future work.

The interviews were conducted with lecturers from universities in Kosovo who teach and test German as a foreign language (GFL) to students at the B2 and C1 (Upper-Intermediate and Advanced, respectively) levels. Interviews were also conducted with teachers who teach and test German as a foreign language at B2 and C1 levels in courses at private schools. The aim of using interviews as a qualitative method was to find out how individual examiners measure performance and how they deal with the difficulties and problems of performance measurement. The interviews consisted of fifteen questions. The questions covered performance assessment in general and asked participants to identify the purposes and contributing components of performance measurement. Additionally, there were also questions that asked about how realizable and realistic the quality criteria for performance measurement are, to what extent formal and informal performance measurement can be used in different situations, and which factors play a fundamental role in this. It is worth noting that some of the interviewees worked as examiners in language centers as well as in universities, private schools, and private tutoring. It was found that assessment in language centers (Goethe, TELC, and ÖSD) is standardized and based on strictly defined criteria. These examiners work according to a set scheme and criteria. For this reason, the examiners were interviewed about their work in other areas (for example, as teachers at universities, in private language courses, or in schools).

The questionnaire had a standardized design and was distributed to students who are studying or have studied German at the B2 or C1 levels at two universities in Kosovo. Additionally, learners who are studying or have studied German at B2 or C1 levels at private schools or in private courses and examinees who have taken an exam at B2 or C1 levels at language centers also participated in the study. The questionnaire was created and distributed online using Google Forms. The questions in the questionnaire are similar to the questions in the interview and relate to the examinees' experiences with performance measurement. The other questions in the questionnaire deal with the forms of performance measurement, how often the respondents write in class (and for what purpose), and which skill is of greater importance to them. Other important questions of the study asked whether the criterion of objectivity is met to a greater extent in written examinations than it is in oral examinations. Questions were also asked about the assessment criteria and the forms of correction used during correction. The questionnaire was completed by one hundred respondents, and the data was analyzed quantitatively. A total of 19 questions were asked. The results of the interviews and the questionnaire are presented as the empirical part together with the theoretical part. In sum, the methodology of the thesis consists of a literature review, a quantitative analysis based on the questionnaire, and a qualitative analysis based on the interviews.

III. PERFORMANCE MEASUREMENT

A. Explanation of Terms

Performance measurement is the result of measuring something that has been created or accomplished. As performance measurement encompasses various areas, the term can only be defined in the context of tests, assessments, examinations, etc. The related science of performance measurement is examination didactics. Tinnenfeld (2013) defines examination didactics as "the teaching of the examiner, i.e., the *what* and *how* of testing on a theoretical basis with an orientation towards practice and the respective target group" (p. 82).

According to the PONS dictionary (2008), "to perform" means "somebody accomplishes something ($\approx$ accomplish) or somebody does or creates something that requires a lot of work" (p. 98). A similar definition can be found in the Langenscheidt dictionary (2008), where it means "to do or accomplish something that usually requires a great deal of effort" (p. 610). According to the Dudenredaktion (2015), the term measurement" is defined as "1. to carry out the measurement; 2. result of a measurement" (p. 1192). So according to the definitions, "performance measurement" refers to the result of a created or accomplished performance.

The definition of performance measurement, according to the authors Decke-Cornill and Küster (2015), is as follows:

The verbs 'test' and 'measure' are generally used in the context of quantitatively recordable processes. 'Evaluate', on the other hand, refers to the evaluation of quantitative measurement results on the one hand but also to processes of qualitative judgment on the other. The latter aspect essentially coincides with the semantic field of 'evaluate'. All four have a moment of comparison. They either compare the relationship of what has been determined to a norm or an average, or they describe a development by recording a before and after state. (p. 260)

In the following chapters and subchapters, the related terms and aspects of performance measurement are explained and discussed in more detail.

B. The Functions of Performance Measurement

According to Grotjahn and Kleppin (2017), the functions of the various forms of performance measurement in the classroom include the diagnosis of learners' strengths and weaknesses, the promotion of support needs, the categorization of performance levels, the recognition of progress, and so on. For the learners or examinees, these forms of performance measurement have the function of providing information about their performance level, recognizing their own learning progress as a form of self-assessment, enabling them to obtain a certificate such as a Goethe or a TestDaF, or even get a job or be accepted by a university. The authors Hinger and Stadler (2018) define the function of performance measurement and testing in a similar way.

Performance measurement is an essential part of teaching in both educational institutions and private language courses. When it comes to language acquisition, such forms of performance measurement carried out on a specific day at a specific location are known as language proficiency tests. The aim of these tests is to check whether the learning objectives have been achieved.

As explained in the previous chapter on the methodology used in this study, interviews were conducted with teachers from different educational institutions, including universities, schools, and private language courses. Due to the differences and similarities between the educational institutions, the interviewees were categorized into three groups in order to compare their responses. The interviewees were then asked about the function of performance measurement.

According to the lecturers ("Dozenten" D1-D5)¹, the function of performance measurement in the form of exams, tests, homework, and so on includes the following:

- A guidance function is used to determine the learner's current level and take into account which explanations and learning content are required.
- A diagnostic function is used to recognize progress and identify weaknesses.
- A performance assessment is used to determine what the learners have actually learned, to assess or recognize the learner's level of knowledge and performance, and to determine their progress.
- The grading of learners.

Just fewer than 70% of respondents² see the function of performance measurement as obtaining a grade at the end, while over 50% see performance measurement as a way of obtaining information about their own performance level. Other functions mentioned include obtaining a language certificate (17%) and recognizing one's own learning progress (24%).

The interviewees in the private language courses gave similar answers to those at the university. No fundamental differences can be identified. The teachers in the private language courses consider the functions very important for recognizing the weaknesses and strengths of the examinees and learners, for support (where learners need support), for assessing the level of performance, and for recognizing progress.

C. Quality Criteria

Performance measurement is subject to certain criteria known as quality criteria, namely, objectivity, reliability, and validity.

(a). Objectivity

"This criterion means that the same linguistic performance should be assessed in the same way by all correctors" (Albers et al., 1995, p. 26). Albers et al. (1995) also posit that subjectivity in tests can be reduced if the points for the tasks are awarded on the basis of a standardized scoring guideline. Tinnenfeld (2002; cited in Tinnenfeld, 2013) mentions the difficulties in fulfilling this criterion and emphasizes, among other things, that it is possible to achieve objective tests by precisely describing the relevant test situations in advance. According to the teachers, the criterion of objectivity cannot be fulfilled 100%, but subjectivity can be reduced. For them, objective assessment is difficult, but the defined criteria prevent incorrect assessment. The measures mentioned by the teachers include defining the criteria in advance, carrying out various training sessions on correct assessment, involving a second examiner for assessment, multiple assessments, or splitting tasks for assessment. A similar result was also seen from the learners. When asked whether they were assessed under the same conditions as their fellow peers and whether the assessment was objective, the surveys yielded the following responses, as shown in Figure 1.

¹ The interviewees are divided into three groups and quoted according to these letters: D is for lecturers and teachers at the universities in Kosovo; L is for the teachers at the private language courses in Kosovo; and S is for teachers at a private school where German as a foreign language is taught up to level C1. The interviewees are anonymous and are named after the letter (university, language course, or school) and after a number.

² Students at universities, schools, or private language courses who have learned B2 or C1.

Under the same circumstances, were you evaluated equally with others in terms of your performance? Was the assessment objective?

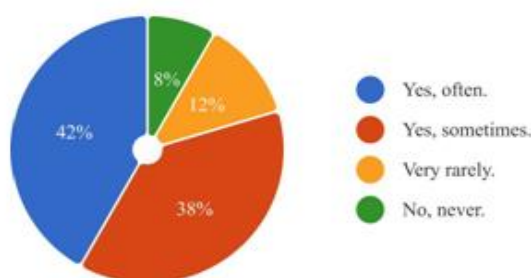


Figure 1. Objectivity in Performance Measurement

Figure 1 shows that 42% of the respondents stated that they were assessed equally in the same circumstances, while 38% of respondents stated that they were sometimes³ not assessed equally. Moreover, 20% of respondents stated that they were “rarely” (12%) or “never” (8%) objectively evaluated. This indicates that objectivity is largely fulfilled, but not to the expected extent.

(b). Reliability

“The second requirement ... concerns the reliability of the performance measurement, i.e., the reliability of the test. Thus ... a certain linguistic performance will always yield the same score” (Albers et al., 1995, p. 25). According to Tinnenfeld (2013), it is important to note with this criterion that all test items must be offered the same conditions in order to achieve a reliable test result. The interviews showed that it is not possible for learners to demonstrate their performance under ideal conditions. However, it is important that all examinees feel treated equally in the examination room and that no one is disadvantaged. The respondents stated that the criterion of reliability cannot be fully met. Although the option “rarely” (50%) appears, it can be understood that this criterion cannot be fulfilled 100% in reality.

(c). Validity

“The criterion of validity means that a test actually tests what it is supposed to test” (Albers et al., 1995, p. 22). Tinnenfeld (2013) points out that the tasks should not test anything that has not been learned or clearly explained beforehand. The interviews revealed that it “sometimes” (47%) or “very rarely” (40%) happens that the respondents are asked questions that are not covered in class.

D. Forms of Performance Measurement

Glaboniat (2017) provides a definition of the typology of performance measurement and various forms of assessment and explains that diagnostic procedures measure an individual's current language proficiency and establish a differentiated competency profile. Grotjahn and Kleppin (2017) mention several forms of performance measurement. For the purposes of this study, two forms of performance measurement are considered relevant: formal and informal, along with both formative (continuous) and summative (final) assessment.

“Formal forms of evaluation are mostly examinations and tests. Formal examinations and tests are usually the result of lengthy and time-consuming efforts by specialists” (Grotjahn & Kleppin, 2017, p. 33). Examples of such forms of performance measurement include the certification exams offered by the Goethe Institute, ÖSD, and TestDaF, among others. These examinations must meet certain quality criteria, with standardization being a central characteristic. The aim is to make the conditions as comparable as possible in order to ensure valid and comparable results. In contrast to the formal forms of performance measurement, the informal forms are less demanding and require less elaborate processes. However, despite their informal nature, the quality requirements are still inherent. A typical example of informal performance measurement is proficiency testing based on learning objectives.

“The assessment of performances can occur either punctually and product/result-oriented at the end of a learning phase (summative) or continuously and process-oriented integrated into the teaching (formative)” (Grotjahn & Kleppin, 2017, p. 35). According to the students and learners surveyed, continuous (formative) assessment in the form of homework, various projects, or seminar papers takes place “often” (25%) or “sometimes” (26%). The rest of the respondents indicate that this form of assessment is either “rarely” (39%) or “never” (10%) used. When asked whether they prefer continuous or final assessment, 78% of the respondents stated a preference for continuous assessment. Conversely, 22% prefer to be assessed only in the final exam.

Summative (final) assessment is generally used at universities, as indicated by both the questionnaire and the interviewees, although formative assessment is preferred and used whenever possible in the form of projects, seminars, or homework. Summative assessment is a requirement of the university and must therefore be offered to students. It is also used by examination centers such as the Goethe Institute, ÖSD, or TELC.

According to the respondents, the most commonly used forms of assessment (over 75%) are tests, exams, or colloquia,

³ Respondents had these options to choose from: *often*, *sometimes*, *very rarely*, and *never*.

which are essentially a form of summative assessment. Other forms of assessment are used only “sometimes” (projects, seminars) or “rarely” (homework) for evaluation.

E. Types of Tasks

There are different types of tasks within the various forms of performance measurement, and the difficulty level of performance measurement varies for each of these types of tasks. According to Albers et al. (1995), these are classified as open, semi-open, and closed tasks. A task is considered open if the answer can be given relatively freely and must be formulated by the candidate as a productive performance, whereas in closed tasks, learners must select the correct answer from the provided options (Albers et al., 1995).

The three interview groups indicated that it is easier to correct closed tasks. While open tasks are more difficult to assess, problems with evaluation did not arise or seldom occurred. When asked whether the learners “often” had the feeling that they were not assessed correctly in open or closed tasks, it was found that the majority of them were “sometimes” or “rarely” not assessed correctly in open tasks. In contrast, this either “never” or “rarely” occurred with closed tasks (see Table 1).

TABLE 1
ASSESSMENT OF EVALUATION DISPARITY BETWEEN OPEN AND CLOSED TASKS BY LEARNERS

Respondents	Often	Sometimes	Rarely	Never
Open tasks	24%	41%	27%	8%
Closed tasks	4%	21%	30%	45%

IV. MEASURING PERFORMANCE IN THE SKILL OF WRITING

Previously, the focus of this research has been mostly about defining performance measurement in general, explaining the criteria, explaining the forms of performance measurement, and explaining the types of tasks. Now, the focus shifts to the role of writing skills and error correction in the assessment of this skill.

The tasks in foreign language examinations vary in structure and adhere to criteria largely determined by the Common European Framework of Reference for Languages (CEFR), which “provides a common basis for the elaboration of language syllabuses, curriculum guidelines, examinations, textbooks, etc., across Europe.” (Council of Europe, 2002, p. 14).

A. The Role of Writing Skills

In the development of textbooks in the 1980s, the skill of writing played a subordinate role compared to other skills such as speaking, reading, or listening. It was only later that the skill of writing became more important in the classroom (Bolton, 1996). Storch (1999) emphasizes the importance of writing in German as a Foreign Language (GFL) instruction within the context of pedagogical orientation. He points out that different types of learners have varying preferences for oral or written expression. Particularly for learners interested in writing, writing serves as a suitable exercise for psychological reasons. Therefore, “teaching should provide these learners with sufficient opportunities to express themselves in writing according to their preferred learning style” (p. 249).

According to Rösler (2012), writing serves as a significant tool for identifying competence deficits. In today's communication-oriented society, writing is not only a skill but also a crucial competence, as Kic-Drgas (2022) describes. Communication skills play a prominent role, especially in professional contexts. The use of specialized terminology, the precision of expression, and the selection of appropriate language registers are just a few of the many elements that are taken into account in professional written communication. Therefore, it is evident that writing skills should be specifically promoted in the classroom. Kast (1999) describes writing as a versatile, media-related skill. It serves communicative, instructional, and learning-psychological needs, supports the structuring of thoughts, and enables the conscious development of thought when writing. Two central aspects are the concretization of thoughts and the slowing down of processes, which allow room for reflection and structuring.

Essentially, the skill of writing in the classroom serves two different functions. Firstly, writing serves as a means to an end, e.g., in written exercises to consolidate vocabulary or grammatical structures or when completing written homework. Secondly, writing plays an important role as an independent skill, as it is consciously trained and practiced.

The reasons for neglecting writing skills include a lack of time in the classroom, the hurriedness of curriculum planning, a focus on communication that is predominantly on speaking, and the great amount of effort required for correction, among others. According to the respondents, writing is frequently practiced, with more than 65% stating that they do so “regularly” and 24% saying they do it “sometimes”. However, it is important to point out that the skill of writing is not necessarily pursued as the primary objective, but rather that writing serves as a means to an end. When asked about the consideration of writing as an independent skill in the classroom, the results revealed that writing is only “sometimes” used as an independent learning objective in 59% of cases or “rarely” (22%). Teachers from both schools and private language courses confirmed that writing is practiced and trained in both cases. However, the results of the interview and the questionnaire suggest that more emphasis should be placed on the skill of writing.

B. Error Correction and the Evaluation of a Writing Task

A writing task contains specific criteria on the basis of which the candidate's performance is assessed. For the purposes of this work, criteria from various authors, different examination centers such as Goethe, ÖSD, and TELC, and the interviewees (examiners) are used as the basis. Before delving into evaluation and correction, it is crucial to define the term "error". Kleppin defines errors as "something that violates or deviates from something perceived as correct" (1998, p. 14).

Errors are classified according to specific levels of language. According to Kleppin (1998), from this perspective, errors can be categorized as follows:

- Phonetic or phonological errors (pronunciation or orthography).
- Morphosyntactic errors (morphology and syntax, e.g., verb conjugation, sentence structure, etc.).
- Lexico-semantic errors (incorrect word usage in context or changes in meaning).
- Pragmatic errors (stylistic inconsistency, culturally inappropriate behavior).
- Content errors (statements expressed incorrectly in terms of content, e.g., "Berlin is located in southern Germany") (p. 43).

Another distinction between error types is based on the degree of difficulty, in the sense of how severe an error is. Therefore, errors are differentiated as either major⁴ or minor⁵ errors (Kleppin, 1998). Moreover, the correction of errors in written assignments can vary. According to Kleppin (1998), there are four types of corrections in written assignments:

1. The examiner or teacher underlines the incorrect part without going into detail about what is incorrect.
2. The examiner or teacher underlines the error and marks the error; for example, whether it is a lexical error or an error in genus, tense, etc.
3. The examiner or teacher marks the error and writes the corrected version of the utterance.
4. The candidate or learner either corrects the error in the error marker or rewrites the task set by the examiner/teacher.

From the three interview groups, it emerged that all types of correction are used. This depends on the specific institutional guidelines, the examiners themselves, or other factors (e.g., time constraints, group size, and so on). The figure below shows the most commonly used form of correction based on learners' experiences.

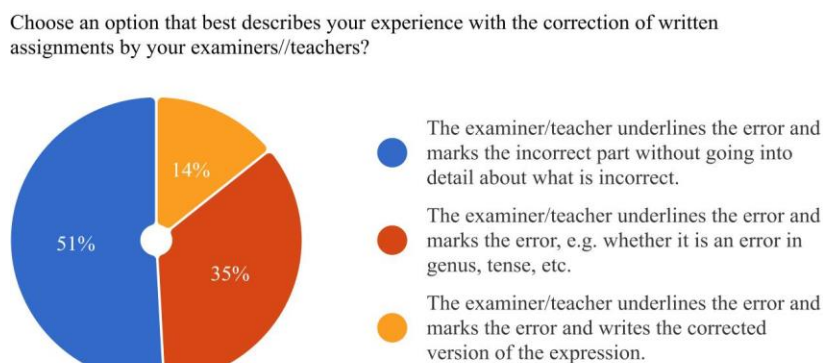


Figure 2. Forms of Correction by Examiners/Teachers

The majority of respondents (51%) stated that errors were only underlined without going into detail about what was incorrect. The second form of correction also occurred, with 35% of respondents receiving such corrections from their examiners or teachers. The least used form of correction was the third, as reported by 14% of respondents.

Despite the common goal of evaluating a topic, there were considerable differences in the evaluation criteria used by the respondents. For this work, the evaluation criteria provided by Tinnenfeld (2013) were used as written below:

- Linguistic correctness (communication, audibility, compliance with grammatical norms, assessment of the language behavior of native speakers, suitability for study and work, reference to individual language structures).
- Orthography.
- Expressiveness (use of appropriate technical terms, text-linking elements, correct use of written relevant constructions, consideration of hypotactic constructions).
- Content organization (structural coherence of the text, strength and relevance of the cited arguments and examples, presence and nature of logical connections, authenticity of the text genre, consideration of inter-thematic relations).

While the evaluation criteria in the language centers (e.g., Goethe, ÖSD, and Telc) are evenly distributed according to points or percentages, the criteria mentioned by the interviewees differ in their distribution of points. Upon comparison, it is evident that although the nomenclature may vary, they assess the same aspects.

⁴ A violation of one or more of the language levels mentioned above can lead to misunderstandings among native speakers.

⁵ Linguistic phenomena that have not yet been practiced or are barely audible when reading the sentence aloud.

The criteria outlined by Tinnenfeld (2013) are also grouped similarly by the interviewees for easier presentation and analysis, as the interviewees also apply four criteria for evaluation:

- Content organization (task fulfillment, content completeness, content, overall impression) was mostly rated with 3 out of 10 points (30%).
- Expressiveness (expression, vocabulary) was mostly rated at 2 out of 10 points (20%).
- Linguistic correctness (text coherence, text structure) was rated at 2 out of 10 points (20%).
- Orthography (grammar, grammatical, and linguistic correctness) was mostly rated at 3 out of 10 points (30%).

As can be seen from the interview data, the focus of the evaluation is on content (content structure) and grammar (orthography). However, a detailed analysis shows that content plays a more important role for the interviewees than grammar. One statement in particular from interviewee D2 exemplifies this view:

“The content is important with regard to whether the task is fulfilled. The fulfillment of the task is the first aspect we consider. If this criterion is not met, the text will not be corrected and will not be considered for correction. Task fulfillment comes first, but once this criterion is met and the word count is also met, we move on to evaluating the individual criteria” (D2).

A similar statement was also revealed by another interviewee (D3) when asked which of the two aspects, “grammar” or “content”, is more important:

“You cannot have one without the other. You cannot have good content without good form. For me, this is a fundamental truth of language—the separation of content and grammar that we as language teachers have concocted. But in reality, there is only one language, and it has a certain content. And when I correct, I have to say at the same time: What you are saying is wrong. When I correct, I look at the grammar and the structure, but I mainly try to intervene where I can show that the writing is actually pursuing a certain content that it cannot grasp because of this incorrect grammar, i.e., I always try, if possible, to show that the semantics are to a certain extent a result of the syntax. When I correct a text, I read it through and simply try to understand what it is about and, above all, the content. I look at the overall impression of how much courage the person has to convey sophisticated content or whether they are writing trivial things. That's the first thing I do. And then, on the second or third pass, I look at the individual errors, but I believe that the first impression is more important” (D3).

It can be concluded from the interview data that content takes priority in the writing evaluation process. Only after successfully completing the task and meeting the word count do other criteria come into focus.

C. Sources of Error in Evaluation and Countermeasures

The difficulties of performance measurement concern not only the determination of the criteria but also other factors that are not directly related to the performance of the examinees. Examiners are consciously or unconsciously influenced by subjective factors. Subjectivity in assessment is recognizable; for example, it can be based on first impressions, based on the overall assessment of a task, or the opposite, and so on. From the analysis of the interviews with interviewees from universities, private language courses, and schools, it can be seen that errors in assessment cannot be ruled out. Countermeasures mentioned by interviewees include checking the tasks again, assessing the tasks with a second examiner, setting the criteria in advance, and so on. Another important factor is experience with the assessment. Initially, the tendency to make mistakes in the assessment is higher than with many years of assessment experience.

The errors in the assessment were also noted by the interviewees based on their experiences as learners and students. The respondents' impressions of the assessment of speaking and writing skills can be compared here. The responses to the questionnaire indicated that respondents often felt that they were not assessed correctly in an oral examination due to subjective factors. Figure 3 shows that more than half of the respondents (20% with one⁶ and 23% with two) often felt that they were not assessed correctly in an oral examination.

On a scale of 1 to 5, how often did you feel that you were not assessed correctly in an oral examination due to first impressions or other similar subjective factors?

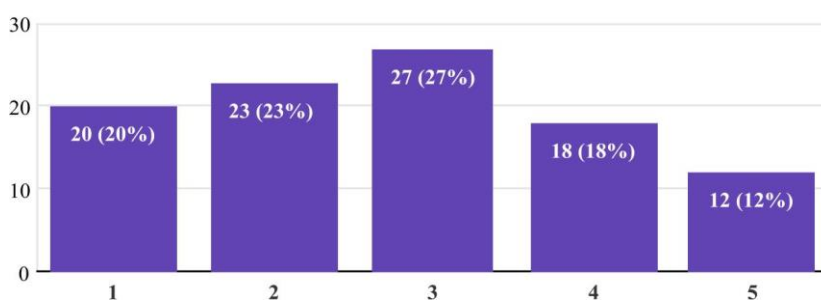


Figure 3. Assessment in the Oral Examination

⁶ Respondents had to choose from a scale of 1 to 5: Very Often 1 - 2 - 3 - 4 - 5 Never.

This feeling is not as strong when assessing a written exam. Figure 3 shows that, in comparison with the oral examination, only 19% (9% with one and 10% with two) felt that they were not assessed correctly in a written examination.

On a scale of 1 to 5, how often did you feel that you were not properly assessed on a written exam, based on first impressions/sympathy and antipathy or other similar subjective factors?

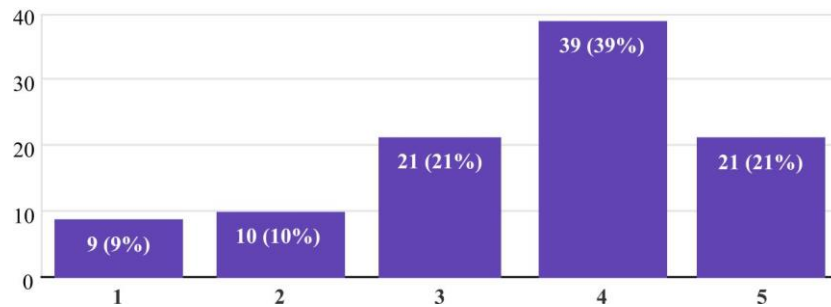


Figure 4. Assessment in the Written Examination

According to the interviewee, writing tends to be assessed more strictly than speaking. When assessing the skill of writing, much more attention is paid to errors, and the assessment is more precise as the text can be read and corrected multiple times. Conversely, in speaking, both the evaluation and examination occur simultaneously, as emphasized by interviewee D3:

“It's a very difficult question. I believe I would tend to say that the likelihood of making an incorrect assessment is greater in writing because it often becomes meticulous and does not focus on the whole: what does the text express and what can it convey? On the other hand, when speaking, you have someone in front of you, and you don't pay as much attention to each individual word, so the overall message comes across much better. This doesn't happen in writing because one tends to focus too much on the individual error in the word or sentence. At first glance, I would say the likelihood of me being too strict in my evaluation or making the person look bad is greater in writing” (D3).

From this perspective, it is evident that errors in written tasks are assessed more strictly than errors in speaking. However, this should be considered in general and not specifically with regard to objectivity. When asked about the differences in evaluations between speaking and writing, it can be assumed that subjective factors are more visible to examinees in speaking evaluations than in writing. In addition, the criteria for written tasks are provided during the examination, as confirmed by the majority of respondents, as shown in Figure 5. Over 58% of respondents indicate that the criteria for tasks are provided, while 10% believe that examiners do not adhere to these criteria. Overall, it can be observed that the evaluation of writing tasks is considered more objective and accurate compared to tasks in an oral examination.

Do you know what criteria are used in the written assignments (writing an email, essay, etc.)?

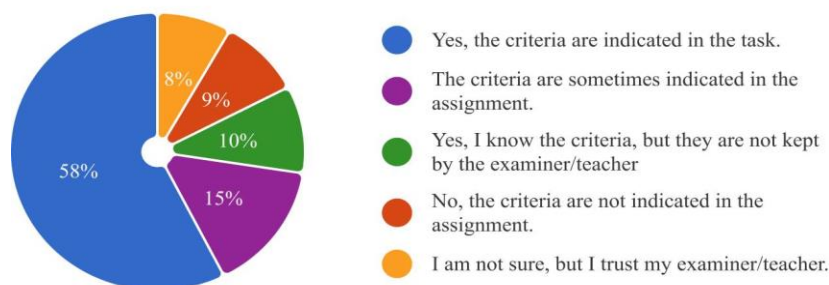


Figure 5. Criteria Entry for the Written Task

The interviews also revealed that, while writing is corrected extensively as it can be read and reviewed multiple times, this is not the case with speaking. Errors are more difficult to detect as assessment and speech production run parallel to one another.

Despite the large number of specifications and criteria, performance assessment is a challenge. It is clear what difficulties both examiners and examinees are confronted with during assessment; compliance with quality criteria is held in high regard, particularly. Of great significance and importance for this study were the various forms of correction, the assessment criteria, as well as the typology of tasks and the role and functions of writing skills. The detailed discussion

of all these aspects on the basis of the literature, interviews, and survey has enabled a more precise presentation of the topic by linking them together in a meaningful way.

V. CONCLUSION

The aim of this article was to find out how performance is assessed, what difficulties are expected in this process, and what criteria this assessment is based on. It has been shown that certain quality criteria must be met for a justified assessment, including objectivity, reliability, and validity. In reality, however, these criteria are not fully met. From the respondents' perspective, objectivity is only "often" fulfilled in 42% of cases, while 38% of respondents stated that it is "sometimes" fulfilled, a further 12% said "very rarely", and 8% even went so far as to say it is "never" fulfilled. While the percentage for not meeting the objectivity criterion was high to a certain extent, the two other criteria were significantly better. As half of the respondents indicated, unequal treatment of conditions for all examinees (e.g., health impairments, lack of concentration, ensuring equal conditions for all examinees) in examination situations occurred only "rarely". With regard to the third criterion (validity), it was found that 40% of the respondents were "sometimes" asked questions in the exam that were not covered in class.

The forms of performance measurement were also a central theme of this study. In many forms of performance measurement, institutional guidelines play a role. Performance measurement was followed either formally or informally, with the aim of assessment usually being a formal evaluation. While summative assessment is predominantly used by institutions and examination centers, formative assessment is desired and recommended both from the perspective of the respondents and from the perspective of the interviewees. While respondents either "never" (45%) or "rarely" (30%) felt correctly assessed for closed tasks, the situation is quite different for open tasks. In that case, 41% of respondents indicated that they "sometimes" felt incorrectly assessed in the open tasks. Moreover, the role of writing skills was also researched in this article. It was found that a significant amount of writing takes place in the classroom. 65% of respondents indicated that they "often" write in class, in the sense of doing exercises or taking notes. However, when it comes to practicing writing as a target skill by writing letters, emails, or essays, respondents indicated that they "sometimes" write (59%). This fact was also confirmed by the interviewees. Textbook planning played a role, as did time constraints. Writing tasks take up much more time, both to create the texts and to correct them. Speaking proficiency is significantly more important than writing proficiency. Over 75% of respondents shared this opinion.

Regarding assessment, conscious or unconscious biases on the part of examiners became apparent. After numerous steps and instructions, it is crucial to review the assessment several times or to have the tasks corrected by two or more examiners. A notable result of the questionnaire was that objectivity was better achieved in written tasks than in oral tasks. Furthermore, the interviews revealed that written tasks can be assessed more rigorously than oral tasks.

To meet the criteria for assessment, specific criteria are provided for levels B2 and C1. Both in the interviews and in the model tests from institutions such as Goethe, ÖSD, and TELC, there were typically four main criteria. These criteria were divided into four categories: content organization, expressiveness, language accuracy, and grammar (orthography). While the assessment criteria are equally present in the tests from language centers (in most of the model tests), the distribution of the criteria varies between the respondents. Content organization and grammar were assigned more points than expressiveness and language accuracy. However, according to respondents, the criteria for assessing writing tasks are not always specified. Only 58% of respondents indicated that criteria were provided for the tasks. As analyzed throughout the study, it is evident that the assessment criteria used may vary in their naming but ultimately assess similar or even identical aspects. This finding allowed for the grouping of these criteria into four overarching categories to achieve a clear and comprehensive result.

The compiled interview results make it clear that content organization and orthography are perceived as particularly significant criteria for the assessment of language skills. This underlines the consistency and standardization of the assessment approaches used by the interviewees. The other criteria only come into focus once the task has been successfully completed and the specified word count has been met. The content is considered more important. However, when the total number of points is divided by the number of points in four criteria areas, it is evident that content and grammar, or orthography, are considered to be of equal value. The hypothesis can therefore be partially confirmed. Although content is fundamental to the writing task, as mentioned by one of the interviewees, "There is not one without the other".

In conclusion, the picture that emerges is one of a challenging performance assessment from the perspective of both the examinees and the examiners. Despite the existing guidelines and quality criteria for the assessment of open tasks, there are deviations in assessment practice. Although there are proven measures to minimize assessment errors, their implementation in practice is sometimes difficult due to a variety of influencing factors. Reality does not always allow for ideal implementation.

REFERENCES

- [1] Albers, H., Bolton, S., & Jenkins- Krumm, E. (1995). *Testen und Prüfen in der Grundschule* [Testing and Assessment in Primary School]. Fernstudieneinheit 7. Langenscheidt.
- [2] Bolton, S. (1996). *Probleme der Leistungsmessung* [Problems of performance measurement]. Langenscheidt.

- [3] Decke-Cornill, H. & Küster, L. (2015). *Fremdsprachendidaktik. Eine Einführung* [Foreign Language Didactics. An introduction]. Narr Francke Attempto.
- [4] Dudenredaktion (Eds.). (2015). *Deutsches Universalwörterbuch* [German Universal Dictionary]. Duden.
- [5] Europarat. (2002). *Gemeinsamer europäischer Referenzrahmen für Sprachen: lernen, lehren, beurteilen* [Common European Framework of Reference for Languages: learning, teaching, assessing]. Langenscheidt.
- [6] Glaboniat, M. (2017). *Testen, Prüfen und Beurteilen von Deutschkenntnissen und der Gemeinsame Europäische Referenzrahmen GER* [Testing, Checking and Assessing German language skills and the Common European Framework of Reference for Languages CEFR]. In W. Ulrich, (Ed.) *Deutschunterricht in Theorie und Praxis* [German lessons in theory and practice]. Schneider Verlag, Hohengehren.
- [7] Grotjahn, R. & Kleppin, K. (2017). *Prüfen, Testen, Evaluieren* [Checking, Testing, Evaluating]. Ernst Klett Sprachen GmbH.
- [8] Hinger, B. & Stadler, W. (Eds.) (2018). *Testen und Bewerten fremdsprachlicher Kompetenzen. Eine Einführung* [Testing and Evaluating foreign language competences. An introduction]. Narr Francke Verlag (Narr Studienbücher).
- [9] Kast, B. (2003). *Fertigkeit Schreiben* [Writing skill]. Langenscheidt.
- [10] Kleppin, K. (1998). *Fehler und Fehlerkorrektur* [Errors and error correction]. Langenscheidt.
- [11] Kic-Drgas, J. (2022). *Entwicklung der Schreibkompetenz in einer Fremdsprache an der Hochschule. Konzept für die Schreibvermittlung im berufsbezogenen Unterricht am Beispiel von Deutsch als Fremdsprache* [Developing writing skills in a foreign language at university. Concept for teaching writing in work-related lessons using the example of German as a foreign language]. V&R unipress.
- [12] Langenscheidtredaktion (Eds.). (2008). *Langenscheidt Großwörterbuch Deutsch als Fremdsprache: das einsprachige Wörterbuch für alle, die Deutsch lernen* [Langenscheidt Grand Dictionary of German as a foreign language: the monolingual dictionary for anyone learning German]. Langenscheidt.
- [13] Modelltest Goethe B2. Retrieved on November 16, 2022: https://www.goethe.de/pro/relaunch/prf/materialien/B2/b2_modellsatz_erwachsene.pdf
- [14] Modelltest Telc C1. Retrieved on November 10, 2022: <https://www.telc.net/sprachpruefungen/zertifikatspruefung/deutsch/telc-deutsch-c1/>
- [15] Ponsredaktion (Eds.). (2008). *PONS Großwörterbuch Deutsch als Fremdsprache: Ca. 77000 Stichwörter und Wendungen* [PONS Grand Dictionary of German as a foreign language: Approx. 77000 headwords and phrases]. Klett.
- [16] Rösler, D. (2012). *Deutsch als Fremdsprache. Eine Einführung* [German as a foreign language. An introduction]. Springer.
- [17] Storch, G. (1999). *Deutsch als Fremdsprache. Eine Didaktik. Theoretische Grundlagen und Unterrichtsgestaltung* [German as a foreign language. A didactic approach. Theoretical foundations and lesson design]. UTB.
- [18] Suli, L. (2022). A Research on the Blended Evaluation Mode in College English Writing Course. *Journal of Language Teaching and Research*, 13(4), 763-771. DOI: <https://doi.org/10.17507/jltr.1304.09>.
- [19] Tinnenfeld, T. (2013). *Dimensionen der Prüfungsdidaktik. Analysen und Reflexionen zur Leistungsbewertung in den modernen Fremdsprachen*. [Dimensions of examination didactics. Analyses and reflections on performance assessment in modern foreign languages]. COD.



Sadije Rexhepi earned her PhD in linguistics at the University of Pristina, Kosovo (part of research at Humboldt University-Berlin, on a DAAD Scholarship). She works as an Associate Professor for German Language at the Department of German Language and Literature at the Faculty of Philology of the University of Pristina and teaches German grammar, text linguistics, text analysis, academic writing, testing, and evaluation. Professor Rexhepi has a number of publications in journals on the topics of contrastive linguistics, text linguistics, German linguistics, etc. (ORCID ID: <https://orcid.org/0000-0003-0478-7560>)



Çlirisa Suka earned her Master in linguistics at the Department of German Language and Literature at the Faculty of Philology of the University of Pristina, Kosovo. In 2022/2023 she had an internship with Erasmus+ program at Humboldt-University of Berlin, and currently she is in an internship at the German Parliament in Berlin. MA Suka is a PhD candidate at the Humboldt University Berlin, Faculty of Linguistics and Literature. (ORCID ID: <https://orcid.org/0009-0001-6098-3200>)

Effects of Task-Based Language Teaching on Improving Grade 11 Students' Essay Writing Skills

Bekelech Frenesh Anito
Wolaita Sodo University, Wolaita Sodo, Ethiopia

Wondwosen Tesfamichael Ali
Wolaita Sodo University, Wolaita Sodo, Ethiopia

Zelege Arifich Ayele
Hawassa University, Hawassa, Ethiopia

Abstract—This quasi-experimental study aimed to examine the effects of task-based language teaching (TBLT) on improving students' essay writing skills in terms of content, organization, grammar, and vocabulary. To that end, participants of Grade 11 students at Otona Secondary School were assigned as experimental and control groups using simple random sampling technique. The students in the experimental group were taught essay writing via TBLT, whereas those in the control group were taught essay writing through the conventional method. Additionally, the teaching material was developed from students' textbooks for the experimental group. Relevant data were gathered via essay writing skills tests. The independent sample t-test calculated for the pre-test divulged that the students in both the experimental and control groups had similar writing skills in the stated sub-skills (t -values < 1.47 , p -values $> .552$). Independent sample t-test measured for post-test, however, depicted that students in experimental group significantly surpassed students in control group in each of the stated sub-skills of writing (t -values > -5.79 , p -values $< .000$). Interviews held with six selected students from the experimental group revealed that TBLT enabled them to improve their writing skills in terms of content, organization, grammar, and vocabulary. It also improved their interest to write and perceptions of working with peers and within groups. This suggests that Secondary School students benefit the application of TBLT using listing, problem solving and sharing personal information tasks thus it helped them to improve essay writing skills.

Index Terms—CLT, task-based language teaching, essay writing skills, EFL

I. INTRODUCTION

A. Background of the Study

The ultimate goal of language teaching is to enable learners to use the language in real-world communication. To achieve this goal, different approaches have been used in the teaching of language over time, and two of the main ones are the structural and communicative approaches. The structural approach focuses on the breakdown of structures that make up a given language, while communicative approach promotes language use and practice (Littlewood, 2012).

Still, there are other pedagogical methods that continue to proliferate in the post-communicative era. Although they incorporate certain communicative principles, most of them are branches of CLT; they also refer to previous trends for some of their central tenets (Rodgers, 2001). According to Richards (2006), they are extensions of CLT. One of them is task-based language teaching (TBLT). It is a modified form of CLT that focuses primarily on the communicative aspects of a language. Furthermore, TBLT is a method that uses tasks as the core unit of analysis, planning, and instruction (Richards & Rodgers, 2001).

Theoretically, TBLT, as underpinned by cognitive and sociocultural perspectives (Piaget, 1970; Vygotsky, 1978). In cognitive perspective, knowledge is the product of learning and it the product of interaction between heredity and environment (Piaget, 1970). According to sociocultural theory, learning arises from interaction, and it is claimed that participants in learning always co-construct the activity they engage in.

TBLT is a modified form of CLT that focuses primarily on communicative aspects of language (Ellis, 2009; Willis & Willis, 2007). Developing students' communicative skills is one of the objectives of language teaching. The aim of language learning is the learner's capacity to interact gracefully in the target language (Ellis, 2003). In TBLT, students are given different tasks to work on individually, in pairs, or as a group. Through accomplishing the tasks, they can develop language skills indirectly through interaction rather than directly studying them.

Among the four language skills, writing plays an essential role in the academic context as well as everyday life. In education, writing is a predictor of academic success. Writing is also an indispensable area of the school curriculum and

a significant part of students' careers. "The writing skill is the major tool for learning" (Hairstone, 1986, p. 2). When students upgrade, more writing performance is expected. McWhorter (1996; as cited in Zeleke, 2014) also claimed as a general rule, the further the students' progress in their education, the more writing skill they will be expected to perform. In addition, writing is essentially a social act and an integral part of everyday life. Indeed, in certain fields, communication can only be done in writing, such as memos, formal proposals, and letters, among others. Therefore, language learners should master the skill of writing.

Despite the importance of writing skills in a student's life both in and after school, it seems to be a heavy task for most. That's because writing skills are considered complex cognitive skills since they require students to apply appropriate cognitive strategies, intellectual skills, verbal information, and appropriate motivation (Tierney, 1989; cited in Wondwosen, 2016). Moreover, unlike speaking, writing is not a natural talent (White in Khoo, 1981). As Meseret (2012) posited, writing is an important but complex task to master. It is a difficult task which expects language learners to search thoughts and ideas and then make it real and seeable. Thus, great attention should be pay to improving these most important and challenging skills.

Language teaching methods in which writing skills are taught are believed to affect students' writing skills. To improve these skills, there should be an approach or a method that can build students' understanding of writing. Scholars have proven that TBLT is indeed effective in developing students' understanding of the writing process and writing skills (Kusnawati, 2014). Other research has also proven that the application of TBLT gives learners various opportunities to perform written tasks at different levels of cognitive complexity (Tabar & Alavi, 2013). It is for this reason that the current research aims at assessing the effects of TBLT on students' essay writing skills.

B. Statement of the Problem

Writing is one of the most important skills of language that have holographic reward in different facets of human life (Mesfin, 2013). Students' academic success is highly dependent on their writing skills (Don, 2007; Eman, 2014; Naila, 2006). Thus, writing is an important part of language education, and by valuing it, educators can provide students with the skills they need to succeed in school as well as in the workforce. On the other hand, a lack of basic writing ability affects the academic success of students at almost every level of education. This indicates that writing skills play a significant role in enabling students to achieve their academic goals throughout their learning. In addition, writing is one of the means of human communication; people usually write to communicate thoughts, facts, feelings, attitudes, and ideas clearly. Thus, students have to develop writing skills to meet their academic goals as well as to be able to communicate with others in life.

The experiences of the present researchers in teaching English at secondary schools show that the writing performance of the majority of students is deteriorating alarmingly. In studies conducted on issues related to teaching of writing skills, scholars around the country have reflected that their students, too, seem to have a lot of difficulty in writing effectively. The students were poor at writing content, organizing, grammar, and vocabulary. Regarding this, researchers argued that, after more than ten years of writing instruction, Ethiopian secondary school students are expected to construct reasonably correct sentences in their writings. Unfortunately, they cannot even write a single grammatically correct sentence in their essays (Dereje, 2001; Haregewain, 2008; Tesfaye, 1991). In addition, "Many secondary school English teachers in Ethiopia, however, are often heard complaining that most of their students are incompetent of producing reasonably efficient written work" (Mesfin, 2004, p. 1).

Furthermore, the causes of low writing performance can be various, but include inappropriate teaching methodology, learners' low motivation in learning English, and the limited time of the teaching-learning process (Aychiluhm, 2015; Meseret, 2012). Therefore, the proper application of alternative approaches and methods is essential for the improvement of writing performance.

Various studies conducted both abroad and within Ethiopia assessed the effects of TBLT on students' writing skills. For instance, Sundari et al. (2018) assessed the effectiveness of task-based materials in improving university students' writing skills. The result showed that the use of task-based materials has significant effects on students' writing performance. Kusnawati (2014) also assessed whether TBLT increases the students' understanding of the writing process and writing skills. He found that TBLT increased their knowledge of both.

Additionally, Ahmed and Bidin (2016) examined the effect of TBLT on the writing skills of EFL learners in Malaysia. The result proved that TBLT is effective in improving writing skills. Dirgeyasa (2018) also examined the effect of TBLT on tertiary ESOL learners' academic writing achievement. The result indicated that there was a significant effect of TBLT on tertiary ESOL learners' writing achievement compared to the classical method of teaching.

In another study, Ahmed (2018) assessed the effect of TBLT on improving the writing and speaking skills of Pakistani ESL learners and found that TBLT improved L2 writing and speaking skills. Kafipour et al. (2018) also assessed the effect of TBLT on analytic writing in EFL classrooms. They found that task-based writing improved EFL learners' writing content, sentence mechanics, language use, vocabulary and organization. Moreover, Tabar and Alavi (2013) examined effects of task-based writing on intermediate students' writing skill in personal and decision-making tasks. Their study has also proven that the application of TBLT provides learners with different opportunities to perform written tasks at different levels of cognitive complexity.

Among local researchers, Meseret (2012) explored the perceptions of both instructors and learners and the practice of task-based writing in an EFL context. The result of his study showed that, though challenging, the teaching of task-based

writing is possible. In addition, Aychiluhm (2015) assessed the implementation of a task-based approach in teaching writing, and he found that most teachers are not properly implementing task-based activities to teach writing skills.

However, this study was different from the local studies. Firstly, this research focused mainly on essay writing skills; thus, it differed in research variables. Secondly, almost all the research that was conducted in Ethiopia was through surveys; this research was quasi-experimental. Thus, it is different from the previous studies in the research design too. Finally, this research differed in setting and grade level from other studies.

In the present literature on TBLT study, there is a research gap and shortfall to assess the effectiveness of TBLT in improving essay writing, particularly in the Ethiopian EFL context. Most of the earlier local studies have focused on the effects of TBLT on the learners' speaking performance and reading. Therefore, this study will fill in this gap.

C. Objectives of the Study

This study was intended to examine the effects of TBLT on the students' essay writing skills. Specifically, this study was aimed at assessing the effects of TBLT on students' essay writing in terms of writing content, organization, grammar, and vocabulary, as well as their perceptions about the application of TBLT in essay writing.

D. Hypothesis of the Study

To attain the aim of this study, the following hypotheses were formulated:

HO1: There was no statistically significant difference in writing contents, organization, using correct grammar and appropriate vocabulary among experimental and control groups in pre- and post-tests.

HA1: There was statistically significant difference in writing contents, organization, using correct grammar and appropriate vocabulary among experimental and control groups in pre- and post-tests.

II. LITERATURE REVIEW

A. Definition of Task-Based Language Teaching (TBLT)

TBLT is one of the methods that deals with different tasks that students perform as protagonists of their own learning process in order to clearly share their ideas and thoughts. Before we go forward with the definition of TBLT, however, we must enrich our knowledge about the definition of task.

For instance, a task is a piece of classroom activity or exercise which allows students to comprehend, manipulate, produce, or interact in the target language while they focused on mobilizing their grammatical knowledge in order to express meaning, and in which the intention is to pass meaning rather than to manipulate rule (Nunan, 2004). Moreover, a task is a work plan that requires students to process language in a realistic manner to achieve a desired goal (Meseret, 2012). According to her definition, a task has an objective, content, and working procedure. Task is work plan that involves the main emphases on meaning, and also involves real-life processes of language use (Ellis, 2003). According to him, a task also involves some kind of reasoning gap to fill. Tasks boost learners to depend on their linguistic and non-linguistic knowledge, and it can involve one or more of the four language skills; and it also engages cognitive processes and has a clearly identified interactive goal (Ellis, 2003).

Thus, the definition of TBLT leads beyond the knowledge of language and reflects the capacity to use the language duly in real-life settings. TBLT is a method of language teaching that allows interaction and communication as a goal of language learning in which tasks are used as core elements of the learning process. TBLT is also defined as instruction that uses classroom activities, which are similar to tasks in which students engage outside, as a tool to teach language (Lightbown & Spada, 2006).

TBLT refers to a method of language teaching that uses tasks as the main units of planning and teaching. It gives emphases on the use of genuine language and on asking learners to do purposeful tasks using the language (Richards & Rodgers, 2001). In TBLT, students are given tasks to do in pairs, groups, and teams. This may help the students develop language skills by providing them with more opportunities to interact with each other.

In writing classrooms, students have been given different kinds of writing tasks to complete in groups and teams. Accordingly, the writing tasks facilitate meaningful interactions, offer language learners ample exposure to process meaningful input, and produce meaningful output to achieve the intended writing objective.

B. Framework for Task-Based Language Teaching

Willis (1996) has specified a three-step procedure: the pre-task, the task phase, and language focus.

(a). Pre-Task Phase

This phase is an overview of the task and topic. Here, the teacher prepares the students to do a task by first trying to make them familiar with the topic. The teacher then presents the topic and suitable words in addition to relative knowledge are offered to the students. Reading or listening to sample tasks done before should be given to pique students' involvement and motivation. At pre-task phase, the students' cognitive structures are triggered, and important attempt are made to capture their concentration and engage them vigorously in the task or activity (Willis, 1996).

(b). Task Cycle

This phase consists of three stages (Willis, 1996). The first is the “Task” stage. In this stage, the students are assigned a task and get actively involved in it. The second stage is “Planning”. Here, students attempt to organize a report of what they have made in the task stage. They plan to report their performance in the class orally or in writing. Finally, the third stage is “Report”. In the report stage, the students’ reports are displayed in the class, and their results are explored. Here, the students present their task to the class and explain how they achieved an outcome, and the different results of the groups or pairs are compared (Willis, 1996).

(c). Language Focus

This phase consists of analysis and practice, as well as a focus on language rules (Willis, 1996). Students view the written text to develop their lexicon and grammar. The teacher’s role is a leader at this stage by offering the students constructive feedback. Moreover, corrective evaluations can be made in language focus phase (Willis, 1996).

C. Theoretical Background on Task-Based Language Teaching

Theoretically, TBLT is underpinned by cognitive and sociocultural views as both stress the roles of interpersonal interaction in cognitive development (Piaget, 1970; Vygotsky, 1978), which is a basic constituent of TBLT (Lee, 2000). Hence, cognitive perspective takes knowledge as the product of learning and because of interaction among innate and environmental factors (Piaget, 1970). In a cognitive view, a task is an instrument which leads students to participate in different kinds of knowledge processing which is considered to be significant for better language use (Piaget, 1970). According to sociocultural theory, learning arises through interaction. For them, learning a language is not an imprisoned activity; rather, it is a social act, a continuous reproductive process attached to the social-communicative interaction of a user (Vygotsky, 1986). He considers language as a social event. In his view, language is not the result of ‘isolated’ learning; it requires a social basis.

Still, most scholars agree that writing is a private cognitive skill that requires students’ individual hard work. Regarding this, Meseret (2012, p. 2) argues that writing is a form of academic suffer, and for most scholars, the teaching of writing is a type of professional torment so as it is commonly viewed a boring task and a solitary job. However, others agree that writing is a social activity that needs team members’ cooperation. Eman assures by saying that the writing process is not abstract, internal, and cognitive; rather, it is a socially situated activity (Eman, 2014). Words achieve a great social finesse and glow as the effect of reactions and responses with regard to a cultural audience (Warschauer, 1996). Therefore, writing is social work that postulates students’ cognition and collaboration.

Writing as a skill mixes cognitive and social components together in the process of social communication. It requires learners not merely to know how to write, rather requires knowing how to use writing in social situations. It is a process of accommodation of mental writing patterns to adjust new knowledge in social and cultural context (Meseret, 2012). In TBLT, writing is controlled by a task and used in interpersonal communication. The goal of TBLT is to develop students’ writing performance based on meaning interaction which cannot be detached of social situation (Meseret, 2012), which is the main feature of TBLT. Therefore, both cognitive and sociocultural theoretical perspectives examine TBLT in a comprehensive way.

D. Advantages and Disadvantages of TBLT

(a). The Advantages of Task-Based Language Teaching

Task-based language teaching has various advantages, three of which are detailed below:

1. Increases Student Motivation

The main advantage of TBLT is that it usually provides the learner with an active role in participating and increases their motivation for learning to write. Task-based activities basically motivate the students since these activities are compatible with a learner-centered educational philosophy. TBLT is advantageous for students since it offers them a sense of “freedom and responsibility”, which seems likely to also increase student motivation (Branden, 2006). When it comes to teaching writing, studies have found that learning tasks are important in driving students’ motivation (Lam & Law, 2007; Tran, 2007).

2. Offers Ample Exposure to the Target Language

Task-based lessons offer more opportunities for the students to display their thinking through their writing. TBLT also gives students more freedom and a real-life context in which they can use the target language in the writing classroom. Hence, students have ample exposure to language and are exposed to a better range of lexical phrases, collocations, and language forms. In TBLT, the focus is basically on the writing itself rather than the correctness of grammar, vocabulary, mechanics, and so on. Therefore, task-based activities may make the students aware of what they do, how they do it, and how to act on the belief that they can learn the writing skills indirectly through interaction rather than directly studying them (Dorothy & Lisa, 2003).

3. Maximizes Students’ Active Roles

TBLT is learner-centered; thus, language learners can take more control of their own learning process because it allows students to get more involved in learning activities (Douglas & Kim, 2014).

(b). Disadvantages of Task-Based Language Teaching

This approach has its own drawbacks. According to Carless (2003), for instance, students' language proficiency causes a great challenge in implementing TBLT. He suggests that teachers be given more preparation time previously a task is set off. Moreover, tasks should be match with the level of students' language ability or competency (Hismanoglu & Hismanoglu, 2011).

Other factors that hinder implementing TBLT are classroom management (Carless, 2004, 2002), student engagement (Carless, 2002), student and teacher accessibility (Bao & Du, 2015; Douglas & Kim, 2014; Yen, 2016), and students' learning styles (Bao & Du, 2015; Douglas & Kim, 2014). Willis (1996) also criticizes TBLT as difficult for teachers to apply appropriately, stating that teachers may feel uncomfortable stepping back and allowing learners to have more control over their learning.

However, explaining the benefits of a TBLT and the principles behind it can help overcome the challenges (Willis & Willis, 2007). Therefore, language teachers should know the disadvantages of TBLT to minimize and use it properly in writing classrooms.

E. The Nature and Importance of Writing

Writing is one of the most difficult language skills to learn because, to create a good final draft, there are too many things that must be done to get there.

Therefore, it can be concluded that the ability to write in English is a skill that students should master. However, writing is a skill that is considered to be more difficult than other language skills because there is so much that should be attended to when someone writes, such as content, organization, vocabulary, language, and mechanics (Hughes, 2003). These components are very important in writing, without which, it is difficult for the students to create a good writing result. It is for this reason that the current researcher focused on assessing the effects of TBLT on students' essay writing in terms of content, organization, grammar, and vocabulary.

An essay is a group of paragraphs that are developed in an organized way. It is a piece of writing on a particular issue. Besides, an essay is a short paper composed of 150 to 200 words and consists of a topic sentence and a series of sentences that support a main idea (Langan, 2005). Therefore, it can be summarized as essay writing is a physical process that takes time to form an arrangement of sentences ordered in a meaningful way and connected in definite ways cohesively and coherently (Langan, 2005).

While students writing essays, they do not only create a text but also put their ideas, feelings, and emotions on paper. It is an important skill to communicate with others. Writing also impacts students' academic performance. Students' academic success is highly dependent on their writing skills (Don, 2007; Eman, 2014; Naila, 2006). Thus, writing skill is an essential and challenging skill, especially in the EFL context, in which students are exposed to the target language use for a few times (Kim & Kim, 2005). As a result, developing students writing skills is a must.

III. RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

A. Research Design and Participants

This study was mainly quasi-experimental and was conducted to examine the effects of task-based language teaching on improving students' essay writing skills with regard to contents, organization, grammar, and vocabulary. To this end, two sections of Grade 11 students of the Otona Secondary School at Wolita Sodo, Ethiopia, were randomly assigned to experimental and control groups. Hence, selected sections were intact classes, it was believed that participants of both sections had nearly similar performances in essay writing.

B. Instruments

Data gathering tools employed in the study were pre- and post-essay writing tests and interviews. The pretest was given aiming to assess the students' similarity in their background performance essay writing. The tests were used in order to gather quantitative data of the participants. As to Stephens (2004, p. 34) the main aim of the test is to assess means values of two groups when independent sample have been preferred. Pre- and post-tests of essay writing skills (see Appendix A) were prepared by the researcher. In the tests, the students provided two alternative topics and they have to choose one to write an essay. In addition, interviews (see Appendix B) were also held with six participants: two high scorers, two medium scorers, and two low scorers, and randomly selected students of the experimental group. The aim of the interview was to explore the students' perceptions about the implementation of TBLT in improving their essay writing skills. Participants in the study were one English language teacher who was selected using the convenient sampling technique and 80 Grade 11 students of the Otona Secondary School in the 2022/23 academic year.

C. Procedures of the Experiment

The intervention lasted for 16 weeks from 12 February to 09 June 2023. The pre-test was administered to both groups' participants a week before the intervention. Teaching material was prepared for the experimental group. The contents of essay writing tasks of the teaching material were made to be correspondent to the existing curriculum of a Grade 11 student's textbook. Contents were essay writing activities of Grade 11 students' textbook prepared in the framework of

TBLT. The teaching material was prepared based on Willis's (1996) TBLT framework with the three stages of pre-task, during task, and language focus.

The intervention was carried out using the same content but designed in the framework of TBLT. Experimental group participants taught writing lessons from Grade 11 textbooks via TBLT, whereas those in the control group were taught writing lessons without TBLT. It applied using listing tasks, problem solving tasks and sharing of personal information task types. Both groups were taught essay writing activities using similar lesson in their textbook in order to minimize bias. Furthermore, teacher's training manual, teaching materials, and rating rubrics were prepared before the intervention.

In the tests, the students were asked to write descriptive essays that consisted of 150-250 words in five paragraphs. The tests were intended to measure students' essay writing performances in terms of writing contents, organization, correct grammar, and appropriate vocabulary.

In addition, the result of interview proved the results of the tests. To this effect, out of 46 experimental group participants, six: two high scorers, two medium scorers, and two low scorers, were selected based on their test performance using the stratified random sampling technique.

D. Methods of Data Analysis

The quantitative data of the tests was computed employing Statistical Package for Social Sciences (SPSS) version 23. Independent sample t-test was applied to examine the pre-test result to know if there was a significant pre-existing difference between the experimental and control groups in their essay writing performances in terms of writing content, organization, using correct grammar, and appropriate vocabulary. Independent sample t-test was preferred since the groups were independent in that they were determined as experimental and control randomly. Besides, paired sample test was employed to assess the results of control and experimental groups; and to look whether the intervention brought improvement on the experimental group participants' essay writing skills.

IV. RESULTS

Results of Tests

A. Results of the Independent Sample T-Test of Essay Writing Skill Pre-Tests

The following table shows results of independent sample t-test calculated to examine if there is a significant difference between the experimental and control groups in pre-test.

In Table 1, below, the mean scores of control and experimental groups were 6.85 and 6.87, respectively, for the pre-test. The t-value is 1.47, and the p-value is .552. This indicated that, there is no statistically significant difference among the mean scores of intergroup on the essay writing pre-test. This implies that both groups had similar backgrounds in writing essays.

TABLE 1
INDEPENDENT SAMPLE T-TEST RESULTS OF THE EXPERIMENTAL AND CONTROL GROUPS' ESSAY WRITING PRE-TEST (N=80)

Groups	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean	T	d/f	Sig. (2-tailed)
Control	6.85	3.27	.560	1.47	78	.552*
Experimental	6.87	3.31	.549			

*p > 0.05 level

B. Results of the Independent Sample T-Test of Students' Essay Writing Performance in the Post-Tests

As can be seen from Table 2, below, mean score of control group is 6.82, whereas mean score of the experimental group is 11.65. P-values of both groups are 0.000, which is smaller than the alpha level. The figure shows that there is a statistically significant difference between the control and experimental groups' post-tests result on the essay writing performance. This declared that experimental group participants brought considerable development on post-test compared to that of the control group participants' essay writing skills. The findings of tests proved TBLT contribute greatly to enhancing students' performance of essay writing.

TABLE 2
INDEPENDENT SAMPLE T-TEST RESULTS OF THE CONTROL AND EXPERIMENTAL GROUPS IN POST-TEST (N=80)

Groups	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean	t	d/f	Sig. (2-tailed)
Control	6.82	3.17	.543	-5.79	78	.000*
Experimental	11.65	3.58	.615			

*p > 0.05 level

C. Results of the Paired Sample T-Test of Students' Essay Writing Performance Control Group in the Pre- and Post-Tests

Paired-sample t-test was used to compare the effects of the interventions in both groups. As shown in Table 3, below, the mean scores of control group participants' essay writing pre-test for content, grammar, organization and vocabulary are 1.72, 1.72, 1.66, and 1.74, respectively. Whereas, mean scores of the same group on essay writing post-test for the stated sub-variables are 1.71, 1.71, 1.67, and 1.72, respectively. The p-values are .631, .811, .823 and .607, respectively.

The result shows that there is no statistically significant difference between pre- and post-essay writing tests in terms of content, grammar, organization, and vocabulary. The p-values are greater than its average level of 0.05 for each sub-skills of writing.

TABLE 3
PAIRED SAMPLE T-TEST RESULTS OF CONTROL GROUP ON PRE- AND POST-TESTS (N= 34)

Variables	Tests	Mean	SD	Std. Error Mean	T	Sig. (2-Tailed)
Content	Pre-	1.72	.812	.139	.485	.631*
	Post-	1.71	.785	.134		
Grammar	Pre-	1.72	.842	.144	.241	.811*
	Post-	1.71	.816	.140		
Organization	Pre-	1.66	.766	.131	.226	.823*
	Post-	1.67	.759	.130		
Vocabulary	Pre-	1.74	.856	.146	.519	.607*
	Post-	1.72	.806	.138		

*p > 0.05 level

D. Results of the Paired Sample T-Test of Students' Essay Writing Performance Experimental Group in the Pre- and Post-Tests

Table 4 depicts the mean scores of the experimental group's essay writing pre-tests in terms of content, grammar, organization, and vocabulary for, which are 1.69, 1.75, 1.66, and 1.75, respectively. On the other hand, the post-test results are 3.04, 3.09, 3.03, and 3.10, respectively. The p-values of all stated components are .000. In other words, experimental group participants brought significant difference among pre- and post-test results of essay writing. In other word, improvement was seen from pre- to post-test at $p < 0.05$ (0.000) for the stated sub-skills of writing. The findings of the test showed that TBLT contribute greatly to enhancing experimental group students' performance in writing contents, organization, using correct grammar and appropriate vocabulary.

TABLE 4
PAIRED SAMPLE T-TEST RESULTS OF EXPERIMENTAL GROUP IN PRE AND POST-TESTS (N=46)

Variables	Tests	Mean	SD	Std. Error Mean	T	Sig. (2-Tailed)
Content	Pre-	1.69	.771	.113	-24.63	.000*
	Post-	3.04	.937	.138		
Grammar	Pre-	1.75	.827	.121	-28.16	.000*
	Post-	3.09	.915	.135		
Organization	Pre-	1.66	.743	.109	-23.57	.000*
	Post-	3.03	.941	.138		
Vocabulary	Pre-	1.75	.827	.121	-28.14	.000*
	Post-	3.10	.914	.134		

*p > 0.05 level

E. Results of the Students Interviews

The respondents of the interview pointed out that, before the treatments, they could not write essays. They told that they face problems in generating ideas on the given content, cannot able to write well organized paragraphs. They also added that they were using grammatically incorrect sentences and inappropriate words while writing. After the intervention, they can describe themselves and friends well. They also started to write paragraphs which give sense. They noted that they could produce well organized and grammatically correct compositions after intervention. In general, the students who participated in the interview indicated that TBLT helped them to produce grammatically correct and well organized sentences in their essays.

Participants of the interview told that they learnt writing skill in conventional way, giving home works and writing assignments in groups or individually. They told that no one can even try to write his/her assignment by his/her own right. Almost all students, including high achievers search from Internet with their smart phones. Others ask relatives and other educated person to write their assignment. They lack motivation to write a single meaningful and grammatically correct sentence. They told the researchers that TBLT improved their motivation and interest to write essays.

V. DISCUSSION

Recently, CLT has become fashionable way of language teaching. Researchers proved the effectiveness of CLT in language teaching (Iqbal, 2011; Marsh, 2003). However, others criticize it in various ways. For instance, Swan (1985) criticizes CLT in terms of its activity types and materials. Moreover, CLT adopts a semantic syllabus, which awards priority to meaning over structure. Thus, CLT is not effective in improving writing skills. To develop students' writing performances, confirming effective way of teaching the skill of essay writing was the main aim of this research. Therefore, this research aimed to assess the effects of TBLT on students writing content, organization, using correct grammar and appropriate vocabulary. To minimize the failure of CLT in teaching writing, TBLT is used as effective method to teach

writing. Other than CLT, TBLT concentrate on both meaning and form and persuade students to consider language learning as a purposive experience (Willis, 1996). In TBLT, the learners' attention is focused on form in the context of meaning-based instruction (Branden, 2006). In addition, learning tasks increase students' motivation to write since it provides students more freedom and a real-life context in which they can use the target language in classroom (Lam & Law, 2007; Tran, 2007). The findings of this study supported this idea. The data showed that the experimental group scored higher results on students' essay writing skills in a post-test. The results of the interview also confirmed that the intervention helped students improve their essay writing skills.

Thus, the current study accommodated listing tasks, problem solving tasks and sharing of personal information task as techniques of teaching writing. In addition, the researcher formulated and used 'reading-writing and then sharing personal information' tasks. In general, the result showed that the implementation of TBLT in writing helped the students improve their skills of writing content, organization, using correct grammar and using appropriate vocabulary. Thus, it is suggested that Secondary school English teachers apply TBLT in teaching writing skills. Other studies should be conducted to fill the research gaps with regard to whether TBLT brings significant differences to different ability groups, gender, age, etc. regarding their writing skills in terms of other macro and micro writing skills. This study did not examine these because of its delimitation.

VI. CONCLUSION

The present study examined the effect of TBLT on Ethiopian students writing skills. The findings of the study indicated that the experimental group participants who took the intervention showed the most improvement in the post-test score of writing performance and increase inters to write. The study revealed that listing tasks, problem solving tasks and sharing of personal information tasks could contribute to the development of student writing performance in content, organization, grammar and vocabulary. Likewise, they also increase the students' interest and motivation since the tasks are real-life situations. Finally, this study concludes that TBLT has significant effects on improving students' essay writing skills.

APPENDIX A. PRE AND POST TESTS OF ESSAY WRITING SKILL

Wolayita Soddo University
School of Graduate Studies Directorate
Department Of English Language and Literature

Time allotted: 30 Minutes

Marks: 20

Choose one of the topics given and write a descriptive essay which consists of 150 to 250 words:

1. Describe one of your teachers
2. Describe yourself.

APPENDIX B. STUDENTS' INTERVIEW

Wolayita Soddo University
School of Graduate Studies Directorate
Department Of English Language and Literature

1. Does task-based language teaching provide you with diverse exposure to the target language that helps you write a better essay?
2. Does TBLT provide you with a relaxed atmosphere to promote the use of the target language in essay writing?
3. Did you get a sense of improvement in your essay writing after the implementation of task-based language teaching?

ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

As part of the employment, Wolaita Sodo University awarded the first author to attend the Ph.D. program in ELT and funded only the part of taking the courses. In addition, the author would like to express her gratitude to the advisors for their unwavering professional support.

REFERENCES

- [1] Ahmed, Z. A. (2018). *The effect of task-based language teaching on improving the writing and speaking skills of Pakistani ESL learners*: University Utara Malaysia.
- [2] Ahmed, R. Z. and Bidin, S. J. (2016). The effect of task-based language teaching on writing skills of EFL learners in Malaysia: *Open Journal of Modern Linguistics*, 6(3), 207-218.
- [3] Aychiluhm, K. (2015). Assessing the implementation of task-based approach in teaching writing: *International Journal of Innovations in TESOL and Applied Linguistics /ISSN/*, 1(1), 2454-6887.

- [4] Bao, R. & Du, X. (2015). Implementation of task-based language teaching in Chinese as a foreign language: benefits and challenges. *Language, Culture and Curriculum*, 28(3), 291-310.
- [5] Branden, K. (2006). *Task based education from reeds theory to practice*: Cambridge University Press.
- [6] Carless, D. (2002). Implementing task-based learning with young learners: *ELT Journal*, 56(4), 389-396.
- [7] Carless, D. (2003). Factors in the implementation of task-based teaching in primary schools: *System*, 485-500.
- [8] Carless, D. (2004). Issues in teachers' reinterpretation of a task-based innovation in primary schools: *TESOL Quarterly*, 639-662.
- [9] Demelash, Y. (2010). *An exploration of English language teachers' and students' perception and implementation of task-based activities: the case of TVET College in Wolaita Sodo*: MA. Thesis Presented in Haramaya University.
- [10] Dereje, T. (2001). *An investigation of students' beliefs about EFL grammar teaching and learning and strategy use: Grade 11 in focus*: MA Thesis Presented in Addis Ababa University.
- [11] Dirgeyasa, I. W. (2018). The effect of task base language teaching (TBLT) on tertiary ESOL learners' academic writing achievement: *Journal of Education and Learning/JEL/12*, (1), pp. 97-104, ISSN: 2089-9823.
- [12] Don, S. (2007). *How to write essays: A step by step guide for all levels, with sample essays*. United Kingdom: Spring Hill House.
- [13] Dorothy, D. E. & Lisa, A. (2003). *College Writing: from paragraph to essay teacher's guide*: Macmillan publishers.
- [14] Douglas, S. R. & Kim, M. (2014). Task-based language teaching and English for academic purposes: An Investigation into instructor perceptions and practice in the Canadian context: *TESL Canada Journal*, 33(8), 1-22.
- [15] Ellis, R. (2003). *Task-based Language Learning and Teaching*: Oxford University Press.
- [16] Ellis, R. (2009). Task-based language teaching: sorting out the misunderstandings: *International Journal of Applied Linguistics: 19/3*, 221-246.
- [17] Eman, I. (2014). *Investigating the pedagogical practices of EFL writing teachers in Palestinian Universities: A cognitive-ecological perspective*: Ph. D. Dissertation Presented in Victoria University of Wellington.
- [18] Haregewoin, A. (2008). *The effect of communicative grammar on the accuracy of academic writing*: Doctoral dissertation, Retrieved 1, Dec. 2008 from <http://etd.aau.edu.et/handle/123456789/7963>, Addis Ababa University.
- [19] Hairstone, M. (1986). *Contemporary Composition*: Boston, Houghton Mifflin Company.
- [20] Hismanoglu, M. & Hismanoglu, S. (2011). Task-based language teaching: what every EFL teacher should do: *Procedia - Social and Behavioral Sciences*, 15, 46-52, <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.sbspro.2011.03.049>
- [21] Hughes, A. (2003). *Testing for Language Teachers*: Cambridge University Press.
- [22] Iqbal, H. M. (2011). *Education in Pakistan: Developmental milestones*: Lahore: Paramount Publishing Enterprise.
- [23] Kafipour, R., Mohamoudi, E. & Khojasteh, L. (2018). The effect of task-based language teaching on analytic writing in EFL classrooms: Kafipour et al., *Cogent Education*, 1496627, <https://doi.org/10.1080/2331186X>
- [24] Kim, Y. & Kim, J. (2005). Teaching Korean university writing class: balancing the process and the genre approach: *Asian EFL Journal*, 7(2), 1-15.
- [25] Khoo, R. (1981). *Guidelines for Writing Activities*: Singapore: SEAMEO Language Center.
- [26] Kusnawati, T. (2014). Penggunaan metode task-based learning untuk meningkatkan keterampilan menulis mahasiswa: *Bahasa & Sastra*, 14(1), 93-108.
- [27] Lam, S.F. & Law, Y.K. (2007). The roles of instructional practices and motivation in writing performance: *Journal of Experimental Education*, 145-164.
- [28] Langan, J. (2005). *College Writing Skills*: New York: McGraw Hill Companies, 6th ed., p. 5.
- [29] Lee, J. (2000). *Tasks and communicating in language classrooms*: Boston: McGraw-Hill.
- [30] Lightbown, P.M. and Spada, N. (2006). *How languages are learned* (3rd ed.): Oxford: Oxford University Press.
- [31] Littlewood, W. (2012). Communication-oriented language teaching: Where are we now? Where do we go from here? *Language Teaching*, 47(3), 349-362.
- [32] Marsh, J. (2003). Contemporary models of communicative practice: Shaky foundations in the foundation stage. *English in Education*, 37(1), 38-46.
- [33] Meseret, T. (2012). *Instructors' and Students' Perceptions and practices of task-based writing*: Ph.D. Dissertation Presented in Addis Ababa University.
- [34] Mesfin, A. (2004). *An Investigation of the Level of Effectiveness of Peer-correction versus Self-correction on Grade Twelve students' Writing With Particular Reference to Menilik II Secondary School*: MA Thesis, Addis Ababa University.
- [35] Mesfin, A. (2013). *An exploratory study of the implementation of the process approach to the teaching/learning of the course Basic Writings: The case of Hawassa University*: Ph.D. Dissertation Presented in Addis Ababa University.
- [36] Naila, F. (2006). *A study of academic writing problems of New Zealand-Born Samoan student in tertiary institutions*: Auckland University of Technology.
- [37] Nunan, D. (2004). *Task-based language teaching: A comprehensively revised edition of designing task for the communicative classroom*, Cambridge University Press.
- [38] Piaget, J. (1970). *Science of education and psychology of the child*: New York: Viking.
- [39] Richards, J.C. & Rodgers, T. (2001). *Approaches and methods in language teaching: A description and analysis*, 2nd Ed., Cambridge University Press.
- [40] Richards, J. C. (2006) *Communicative language teaching today*: Cambridge University Press.
- [41] Rodgers, T.S. (2001). Language teaching methodology: in *CAL Digest*, 1-8.
- [42] Stephens, L. (2004). *Advanced statistics: A self-teaching guide*, New York: McGraw Hill.
- [43] Sundari, H., Husnaini, H. R. & Saragih, G. (2018). Using task-based materials in teaching writing for EFL classes in Indonesia: *International Journal of Applied Linguistics & English Literature E-ISSN: 2200-3452*, 119-124.
- [44] Tabar, N.A. & Alavi, S.M. (2013). A comparative study of the effects of task-based writing under different pre-task planning conditions on intermediate EFL learners' written performance in personal and decision-making tasks: 5(8), 970-978.
- [45] Tesfaye, A. (1991). *Teaching writing in Grade 11: The existing practice versus the controlled and the guided methods*: M.A. Thesis Presented in Addis Ababa University.

- [46] Tran, L.T. (2007). Learners' motivation and identity in the Vietnamese EFL writing classroom: *English Teaching, Practice and Critique*, 6(1), 151-163.
- [47] Vygotsky, L.S. (1978). *Mind in society*: Cambridge, MA: Harvard University Press.
- [48] Vygotsky, L. S. (1986). *Thought and language*: Cambridge: MIT Press.
- [49] Warschauer, M. (1996). *Computer-Mediated Collaborative Learning: Theory and Practice*: Honolulu: University of Hawai'i.
- [50] Willis, D. & Willis, J. (2007). *Doing task-based teaching*: Oxford University Press.
- [51] Willis, J. (1996). *A framework for task-based learning*: Harlow, UK: Longman: Cambridge University Press.
- [52] Wondwosen, T. (2016). *Effects of implementing the learning together method on EFL paragraph writing and social skills of eleventh grade*: Unpublished Ph.D. Dissertation in Bahiar Dar University.
- [53] Yen, P.H. (2016). Challenges of shifting to task-based language teaching: A story from a Vietnamese teacher: Can Tho University, *Journal of Science*, 37-45.
- [54] Zeleke, A. A. (2014). The Effects of Training in Learning Strategies of Writing in improving student's writing skills: Hawassa University Students in Focus: *International Journal of Scientific Footprints /ISSN/ 2310-4090* Retrieved 1 September 2014.



Bekelech Frenah Anito was born in Hossana in 1983. She earned her college diploma from Hawassa Teachers Training College in 2003 and Bachelor of Education (BEd) in English Language from Dilla University in 2008. Then she received her MA in Teaching English as a Foreign Language, from Wolaita Sodo University in 2015. Currently, she is a PhD candidate at Wolaita Sodo University in English Language Teaching.

She taught English in Primary and Secondary schools for five years. Then, she served in leadership positions in different sectors for nine years. She is currently serving as a teaching and training officer in Technical Education and Vocational Training, in Wolaita Zone Administration, Ethiopia. Her research interest includes Language skills, Cooperative learning, Task-based language teaching.

Wondwosen Tesfamikael Ali is Associate Professor of TEFL at Wolaita Sodo University. He was born in Bahir Dar in 1968. He received his MA and PhD in Teaching English as a Foreign Language, from Addis Ababa and Bahir Dar Universities, respectively. His research interests include Language skills, methodology of language teaching.

Dr. Wondwosen has also published about 13 research articles on internationally indexed journals.

Zeleke Arficho Ayele is Professor of TEFL at Hawassa University. He first graduated in Bachelor of Education (BEd) in English Language from Debub (Hawassa) University in 2002, and received his MA and PhD in Teaching English as a Foreign Language, from Addis Ababa University in 2007 and 2013, respectively.

He has been teaching different courses of English Language at different capacities starting from high school for three years after graduation and then at Hawassa University since November 2007 for graduate and undergraduate programs.

In addition to his academic career, Prof. Zeleke has also been serving in academic and administrative leadership positions at Hawassa University. He is currently serving as a Dean of College of Social Sciences & Humanities of HU since December 2022. Moreover, he has served at different standing committees as a member and a leader over the years.

Prof. Zeleke has also published 30 research articles on internationally indexed journals, and presented papers at 11 national and international conferences. His research interests include teaching language Skills, language learning strategies, and language teaching methodologies.

Exploring ChatGPT as a Tool for Thesis Writing: Perspectives of EFL Supervisors in Jordanian Universities

Mamoun I. Bani Amer
Charles Darwin University, Australia

Luqman M. Rababah
Department of English Language and Literature, Jadara University, Jordan

Mahmoud Ali Rababah
Al-Balqa Applied University, Jordan

Abstract—This study examines Jordanian EFL supervisors' views on ChatGPT's usage and effects on thesis writing at private and public universities in Jordan. A questionnaire was used to collect data from 47 EFL supervisors. Closed-ended Likert-scale questions were used to quantify supervisors' opinions on ChatGPT's correctness, dependability, and usefulness in thesis writing. Supervisors gave varied views on ChatGPT's usefulness and effects on thesis writing. They agreed that ChatGPT helps students generate ideas, enhance their vocabulary, and improve their thesis writing skills. Supervisors were impartial to ChatGPT's ability to assist students in organising the thesis, delivering arguments, and overcoming writer's block. The findings also showed conflicting opinions on ChatGPT's thesis organization comments and their influence on students' autonomy. Supervisors perceive ChatGPT's influence on supervisor-student interactions differently. The study adds to technology integration in EFL writing teaching, especially thesis writing. It quantifies supervisors' ChatGPT impressions to understand numerical trends and patterns. The results may help educational institutions and policymakers integrate ChatGPT into thesis-writing pedagogy.

Index Terms—EFL Jordanian supervisors, ChatGPT, writing theses, quantitative research

I. INTRODUCTION

In the era of advanced technology and digital transformations, artificial intelligence has become an integral part of many aspects of our daily and academic lives. One technology that has received significant attention in recent years is ChatGPT, an advanced language model developed by OpenAI. ChatGPT is a powerful text-generation tool that provides assistance with various language tasks, including writing dissertations and academic papers. However, the impact of this technology on the educational and academic process remains a topic that deserves careful study (Rababah et al., 2024; Malkawi et al., 2023).

Academic writing is one of the most important challenges that students face in universities, especially in departments that use English as a foreign language (EFL). Writing dissertations requires a high level of linguistic proficiency, critical thinking, and structural organisation—skills that may be limited to non-English-speaking students. Here, ChatGPT can offer an innovative solution that helps improve the academic writing level of these students (Shakil et al., 2024). By providing immediate assistance in enhancing linguistic and grammatical structure, suggesting new ideas, and offering advice on organising ideas, this technology can help overcome many obstacles students face in this field (Sakarneh et al., 2022; Alghazo et al., 2023; Almsbhiheen et al., 2023).

Technology in language learning and teaching has garnered attention recently. Technology may help students write academically, especially theses. ChatGPT might improve thesis writing. ChatGPT is an artificial intelligence language model that helps students write. It may boost language, writing, and problem-solving abilities in students. ChatGPT may also help students write independently. Nevertheless, ChatGPT has drawbacks. Some researchers believe that technology hinders students' critical thinking and creativity (El Rabbai et al., 2019; Wolor et al., 2024). Supervisors' views of ChatGPT are critical to evaluating its sustainability and consequences for thesis writing education since they guide students (Belawati & Jap, 2018). However, sophisticated language models like ChatGPT have prompted concerns regarding their effects on students' writing, autonomy, and supervisor-student relationships (Al-Ahmad et al., 2023; Al Fawareh et al., 2023). This research examines EFL Jordanian supervisors' views on ChatGPT's usage in thesis writing. The research intends to understand supervisors' views on ChatGPT's efficacy and influence in an academic setting in Jordanian public and private institutions. The literature on technology in EFL writing instruction gives significant insights, but there were few studies on EFL supervisors' attitudes towards ChatGPT (Almegren, 2022; Alsariera & Alsaraireh, 2024; Khasawneh, 2022).

ChatGPT's language evaluation tool has offered fresh methods for evaluating linguistic proficiency. AI technology can improve language evaluation by creating lively and interactive evaluation tasks that replicate practical communication scenarios (Moqbel & Al-Kadi, 2023). By interacting with ChatGPT, students can showcase their language proficiency in a reliable setting, resulting in a more precise evaluation of their writing capabilities. Students can receive prompt, automated feedback on their written responses via ChatGPT. To provide concise feedback, ChatGPT can be used to assess the grammar, vocabulary, and consistency of the content. By highlighting areas that need improvement, this feedback helps writers get better at what they do (Limna et al. 2023; Slim & Al-Omari, 2023).

Furthermore, ChatGPT can modify the level of difficulty of assessment tasks in response to the responses provided by students. The AI approach guarantees a more personalised and focused evaluation experience by having the ability to modify the intricacy of the question and prompt depending on students' previous responses. Furthermore, integrating ChatGPT into language evaluations can enhance the impartiality of the findings. ChatGPT is an AI-powered tool that can reduce human bias in rating while offering standardised ratings for a variety of students. According to Rasul et al. (2023), future exams should include a high focus on helping students enhance their analytical, critical thinking, problem-solving skills, and communication.

Derakhshan and Ghiasvand's (2024) study revealed that ChatGPT has advantages and drawbacks for EFL teachers. ChatGPT was viewed as harmful to EFL instruction because of its potential to compromise profound literacy, academic integrity, and teacher-student interactions in the classroom. Rasul et al. (2023) claim that ChatGPT reduces teacher-student interaction, degrades academic integrity, and makes students less literate.

A. *The Study Problem*

Recent research emphasises language learning and instructional technologies. Advanced language models like ChatGPT may help EFL thesis writers. However, EFL supervisors' views on ChatGPT's academic application are crucial. This research covers the gap in EFL Jordanian supervisors' ChatGPT thesis writing viewpoints (Rababah, 2023). Even as language learning uses more technology, EFL supervisors, who aid students, have not been properly investigated. Knowing their perspectives helps evaluate ChatGPT's thesis-writing effect. ChatGPT provides real-time writing feedback, but its accuracy, dependability, and effects on students' writing, autonomy, and supervisor-student interactions are questioned. Supervisors' views influence instruction and decision-making. EFL Jordanian supervisors' opinions on using ChatGPT to write theses are measured so that the results could cover the study vacuum and enhance educational practices by demonstrating ChatGPT's thesis writing training potential (Rababah et al., 2023; Rababah, 2022).

In light of rapid technological transformations, there is an increasing need to understand the impact of modern technologies such as ChatGPT on the educational process, especially in areas that require high language skills like writing academic dissertations (Ibnian, 2023). The problem lies in how EFL supervisors interact with students' use of these tools. Is ChatGPT effective support for students, or are there concerns regarding originality and academic integrity? What is the actual impact of this tool on the quality of academic writing?

B. *Study Questions*

This quantitative research addresses this gap by answering the following research questions:

1. What are the perceptions of EFL Jordanian supervisors regarding the effectiveness and impact of ChatGPT in assisting students in writing their theses?
2. How do supervisors perceive the accuracy, reliability, and overall usefulness of ChatGPT in the thesis-writing process?
3. What are the potential impacts of ChatGPT on students' writing skills, autonomy, and the supervisor-student relationship?

C. *Objectives of the Study*

This study aims to explore the perspectives of EFL supervisors in universities on the use of ChatGPT as a dissertation writing tool. By understanding the perspectives of these supervisors, we can identify the potential benefits and risks associated with this use. Sub-objectives of the study include:

1. Evaluating potential benefits: How can ChatGPT help improve the quality of academic writing and facilitate the dissertation writing process?
2. Analysing potential risks: What are the concerns regarding originality and academic integrity when using ChatGPT in dissertation writing?
3. Future directions: How can universities develop educational policies that leverage AI technology while maintaining academic quality standards?

D. *The Significance of the Study*

This study is significant as it provides a deeper understanding of how artificial intelligence techniques can be used to improve the educational process. It helps develop innovative educational strategies that support students in achieving their academic goals. Also, it contributes to formulating balanced university policies that ensure the use of technology enhances the quality of education without compromising academic originality. In conclusion, this study seeks to provide new insights into the role of AI in academic education, focusing on the use of ChatGPT as a tool to support dissertation

writing (Rababah et al., 2024). The results may serve as a guide for universities and academic supervisors in developing educational policies that take advantage of advanced technology to enhance the learning experience for students worldwide.

This study is significant because it fills a gap by examining Jordanian EFL supervisors' views. There is literature on technology in language learning, but less on EFL supervisors' views of ChatGPT in thesis writing.

II. LITERATURE REVIEW

The literature review discusses technological integration in EFL writing instruction, ChatGPT, and thesis supervisors. This report summarises previous research, identifies research gaps, and prepares to explore EFL Jordanian supervisors' opinions on ChatGPT in thesis writing.

A. Technology-Enhanced ELF Writing Instruction

Language learning has improved with technology. Warschauer (2006) suggests employing CALL technologies to enhance EFL writing, boost student autonomy, and provide timely feedback. This study highlights how technology improves student writing. AI language models like ChatGPT assist language learners in writing. These models provide real-time advice using NLP and ML. A recent study suggests such models may enhance writing, vocabulary, and grammar (Balyan et al., 2020; Rijal, 2021).

Supervisors help with thesis writing. They guarantee product quality. Good supervisor-student relationships, open communication, and constructive comments improve student writing (Bitchener & Basturkmen, 2006; Dakamsih & Rababah, 2024; Merghmi & Hoadjli, 2024). The supervisor-student relationship influences writing motivation, interest, and productivity.

B. Theoretical Framework

Technology integration in language learning, EFL writing education, and supervisor-student interaction form this study's theoretical framework. EFL Jordanian supervisors' perceptions about ChatGPT in thesis writing are influenced by the following:

1. Technology Acceptance Model (TAM): In 1989, Davis created TAM to explain consumer tech adoption (Scherer et al., 2019). This idea indicates that perceived usefulness and simplicity of usage affect tech goals. TAM evaluates supervisors' views of ChatGPT's thesis writing services.

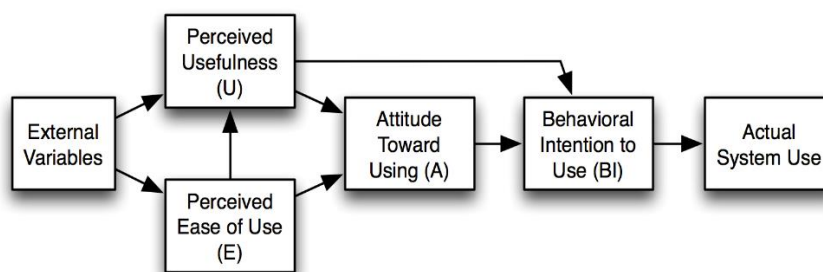


Figure 1. Technology Acceptance Model (TAM) by Davis (1989)

1. Social constructivism: Vygotsky (1978) stressed social learning. This approach holds that collaboration and mentoring improve learning. This social constructivist study analyses how ChatGPT affects supervisor-student interaction.
2. Learning Language Autonomy: Learners' ability to manage their language development and make informed decisions is autonomy. ChatGPT may boost thesis-writing autonomy and self-regulation. The study explores supervisors' perceptions of ChatGPT's impact on student autonomy and writing.
3. Writing Feedback: This theoretical framework encompasses EFL writing feedback. Students get timely and constructive feedback to enhance their writing. Research explores supervisors' views of ChatGPT's remarks and writing aid.

EFL Jordanian supervisors' opinions on ChatGPT in thesis writing are examined using these theories and concepts. The theoretical framework evaluates supervisors' views on ChatGPT's efficacy, impacts on students' autonomy and writing, and supervisor-student relations. This framework examines quantitative survey data and strengthens the study's theory.

C. Related Studies

Dilzhan (2024) investigated the use of ChatGPT by Kazakhstani EFL teachers. Eleven EFL teachers participated in semi-structured interviews. The findings show that instructors appreciate ChatGPT for its ability to generate ideas quickly,

boost student participation, and minimise the burden. Moreover, the teachers valued the chatbots' contribution to students' writing and vocabulary development by providing them with immediate feedback and tailored exercises. Along with these benefits, several difficulties have been noted such as the risk of becoming overly dependent on technology, and academic dishonesty. The results highlight the need for comprehensive training to fully utilise ChatGPT's potential. The teachers emphasised that to successfully use modern technology in educational environments, they need to provide systematic supervision. Although there are many advantages to using ChatGPT in EFL classes, it must be carefully considered. Optimising ChatGPT's application in EFL instruction requires overcoming obstacles and having strong policy support in place.

Abdelhamid and Elfakeur Abidi (2024) explored the comprehension, use, and views of LLMs among Algerian EFL university professors and students, with a focus on their use in the development of writing abilities. Given the importance of AI in language acquisition, this study closes a knowledge gap regarding the incorporation of AI tools in Algerian EFL teaching and learning. The study combines quantitative data with qualitative information from nine completed closed-ended surveys and five semi-structured teacher interviews using a sequential mixed-methods methodology.

This approach makes it possible to examine statistical trends in great detail and to examine how each person uses LLMs to improve their writing abilities. The findings demonstrate a high level of engagement with LLMs, and the majority of educators and learners concur that they can significantly enhance their writing abilities. There were reports of improvements in students' vocabulary and grammar, and lecturers stressed the importance of LLMs in providing feedback and engaging students in the learning process. Concerns regarding academic integrity and dependence on technology, among other issues, were also raised. Even though LLMs can drastically alter EFL instruction by encouraging the growth of writing abilities, suggestions for their efficient application are sorely needed to reap benefits and minimise risks.

Sumakul et al. (2022) analysed the perspectives of Indonesian EFL teachers on artificial intelligence (AI). They discovered that although there was a general consensus regarding the educational benefits of AI, there were apprehensions about teacher proficiency and student enthusiasm.

Kim et al. (2021) examined how AI chatbots impact students' speaking abilities in EFL classes, as well as how they inspire students' speaking experiences. Fifty university students taking a standard English course participated in the study. They were divided into two categories according to their degrees of proficiency: The pre- and post-test designs looked at the degree of improvement made by the students between and within the two English-speaking levels. The test findings showed that both groups made great progress on the two speaking tasks—reading aloud from a text and responding to questions. The two student ability levels did not significantly differ in their pronouncing abilities. However, there was a noticeable difference in emphasis and tone while reading aloud from the book. And on the second task, answering the questions, every question had statistical inconsistencies in it. Additionally, a noteworthy distinction was found in the fluency of the two levels. We also investigated survey responses from students regarding their thoughts on the application of AI chatbots in English classes. Finally, this study looks at how AI chatbots can help with language acquisition and their possible uses in EFL settings.

Al-Hariri (2020) studied chatbot-based writing feedback with EFL students. The study indicated that chatbot-feedback students improved their writing grammar and vocabulary. Chatbot comments helped students write and speak better. The study proposes teaching writing using chatbots. Chatbots provide targeted feedback and recommendations to help students write better. The research suggests that AI-based language models may help students write. It emphasises creative language education to improve writing. In the same vein, Syarifah and Fakhrudin (2024) explored AI writing aids in English classes. The study comprised quantitative writing assessments and qualitative student interviews. Research showed students found AI writing aids beneficial and productive. Their immediate feedback helped them revise and strengthen their writing. Researchers concluded that AI writing assistance boosted students' writing. AI gives students immediate feedback and ways to improve.

Also, Adnan (2020) examined AI's potential to aid English language learning, particularly writing. The review studied AI-based English language education studies and papers. AI was shown to improve language fluency and writing skills in students. The evaluation notes that AI technology can provide pupils with personalised feedback. AI systems can assess students' writing and provide tailored improvements using natural language processing and machine learning methods. This focused criticism helps students understand their writing talents and flaws. The study also suggests that AI-based solutions may improve language proficiency. AI systems can simulate dialogues and practice pronunciation using voice recognition and language production. Immersive experiences let students practice and improve their language abilities. Lee (2022) discusses EFL (English as a Foreign Language) writing supervision, including both theory and practice. The research examines how supervisors help students write. The article emphasises clear and straightforward instructions and a friendly and productive supervisory relationship between supervisors and students. The article emphasises the benefits of feedback. Supervisors can help students improve their writing and identify any faults. Timely and detailed criticism helps students identify their strengths and limitations and steer their writing process. Scaffolding is another key topic. Supervisors should help and guide students as they improve their writing. Modelling and offering examples help students write. These studies explored AI-based language learning tools and writing assistance from a supervisor's perspective. They provide insight into the benefits, drawbacks, and usefulness of AI writing assistants and supervision. They highlighted the need to research thesis supervisors' ChatGPT perceptions.

III. METHODS

This quantitative research used a questionnaire to ask EFL Jordanian supervisors about using ChatGPT to write theses. Cross-sectional research was done at Jordanian private and public universities.

A. The Population and Sample of the Study

This research included EFL supervisors from selected private and public institutions across the kingdom. The thesis supervisors were selected via convenience sampling. The research invited 59 supervisors, and 47 completed the questionnaire for an 80% response rate. The research goals and theoretical framework were used to create a structured questionnaire.

B. Data Collections and Analysis

The closed-ended Likert-scale questionnaire allowed supervisors to rate comments. The questionnaire asked supervisors about ChatGPT's efficacy, usefulness, correctness, dependability, influence on students' writing abilities, autonomy, and supervisor-student relationship. The questionnaire was content-validated by a panel of experts and piloted with a small group of supervisors to ensure clarity and comprehensibility. Data gathering took two weeks. A cover letter and surveys were sent to supervisors. Responses were kept secret and anonymous. Supervisors were given enough time to complete the questionnaire, and non-respondents were reminded to increase response rates. To analyse the data, frequencies, means, and standard deviations were used.

IV. RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

To address study questions, statistical methods computed frequency distributions and central tendency/dispersion.

To answer the first research question, which states, "What are the perceptions of EFL Jordanian supervisors regarding the effectiveness and impact of ChatGPT in assisting students in writing their theses?" the means and standard deviation were used as presented in Table 1.

TABLE 1
NUMERICAL LIKERT SCALE OF THE SUPERVISORS' RESPONSES

No.	Question	1 (Strongly Disagree)	2 (Disagree)	3 (Neutral)	4 (Agree)	5 (Strongly Agree)	Mean	Std. Devi.
1	ChatGPT improves students' overall thesis writing skills.	4.1	0.6	0.9	2.7	1.7	3.2	0.89
2	ChatGPT provides accurate feedback on grammar and syntax.	3.3	1.5	1.1	1.9	2.2	2.4	0.67
3	ChatGPT enhances students' ability to generate ideas.	2.7	1.9	1.8	2.4	2.2	2.6	0.68
4	ChatGPT improves students' vocabulary usage in their theses.	3.5	1.1	0.8	2.1	2.5	2.8	0.71
5	ChatGPT helps students structure their theses effectively.	2.9	1.4	1.7	2.3	2.7	2.6	0.69
6	ChatGPT provides useful suggestions for improving thesis content.	3.6	1.2	0.9	2.4	2.4	2.9	0.68
7	ChatGPT improves students' ability to cite and reference sources.	2.3	1.6	2.1	2.7	1.3	2.4	0.75
8	ChatGPT enhances students' autonomy in thesis writing.	1.8	2.2	2.4	2.8	1.8	2.2	0.75
9	ChatGPT provides timely feedback on thesis drafts.	3.1	1.3	1.6	2.2	2.8	2.4	0.68
10	ChatGPT improves students' confidence in their thesis writing.	2.5	1.5	2.3	2.6	1.9	2.4	0.72
11	ChatGPT provides reliable feedback on thesis organization.	3.3	1.1	1.7	2.3	2.6	2.6	0.66
12	ChatGPT helps students overcome writer's block.	3.1	1.7	2.2	2.4	1.6	2.2	0.72
13	ChatGPT assists students in effectively presenting arguments.	2.8	1.8	2.1	2.5	2.3	2.5	0.73
14	ChatGPT improves students' thesis coherence and flow.	3.5	1.3	0.9	2.1	2.2	2.6	0.67
15	ChatGPT helps students adhere to academic writing conventions.	2.6	1.6	2.2	2.7	1.9	2.4	0.74
16	ChatGPT provides guidance on thesis research methodologies.	3.2	1.2	1.3	2.4	2.1	2.4	0.65
17	ChatGPT supports students in finding relevant literature.	2.9	1.4	2.0	2.6	2.1	2.6	0.68
18	ChatGPT improves students' understanding of thesis requirements.	3.4	1.3	1.1	2.3	1.9	2.6	0.67
19	ChatGPT fosters positive supervisor-student relationships.	2.3	1.7	2.4	2.9	1.7	2.4	0.76
20	ChatGPT saves supervisors time in providing thesis feedback.	4.0	0.8	0.6	2.2	2.4	3.2	0.83

Table 1 shows the mean and standard deviation for each questionnaire item, reflecting Jordanian EFL supervisors' opinions on ChatGPT's efficacy and effects on thesis writing. Supervisors acknowledged that ChatGPT promotes thesis

writing (mean = 3.2) and gives correct grammar and syntax comments (mean = 2.4). ChatGPT also improves students' idea generation (mean = 2.6) and language use in theses (mean = 2.8). Supervisors were more impartial in their view that ChatGPT helps students plan their theses effectively (mean = 2.6) and gives good ideas for strengthening thesis content (mean = 2.9). Supervisors had varied feelings about ChatGPT. They were slightly ambivalent about ChatGPT's influence on students' thesis writing autonomy (mean = 2.2) and its capacity to deliver timely feedback on thesis drafts (mean = 2.4). Supervisors also disagreed on whether ChatGPT boosts thesis writing confidence (mean = 2.9).

Supervisors were divided on ChatGPT's reliability in helping students overcome writer's block (2.2) and thesis arrangement (2.6). They also disagreed on whether ChatGPT promotes thesis coherence and flow (mean = 2.6) and helps students articulate arguments (mean = 2.5). Supervisors were more indifferent regarding ChatGPT's support with thesis research methodology and academic writing norms (mean = 2.4). ChatGPT's help in identifying relevant material and comprehending thesis requirements was equally mixed (mean = 2.6). ChatGPT's effect on supervisor-student interactions was neutral (mean = 2.4) for supervisors. ChatGPT saves thesis supervisors time (mean = 3.2). Each item's standard deviation shows supervisors' answer dispersion. Supervisors' views vary with higher standard deviations. Some elements have larger standard deviation values, indicating supervisors have more diverse viewpoints on those areas.

To answer the second research question, which states, "How do supervisors perceive the accuracy, reliability, and overall usefulness of ChatGPT in the thesis writing process?", the supervisors' opinions on ChatGPT's accuracy, reliability, and overall usefulness were examined as shown in Table 2.

TABLE 2
SUPERVISORS' OPINIONS ON CHATGPT'S ACCURACY, RELIABILITY, AND OVERALL USEFULNESS OF CHATGPT

	Mean	Standard Deviation
Accuracy	2.4	0.67
Reliability	2.6	0.66
Overall Usefulness		
- Thesis Writing Skills	3.2	0.89
- Suggestions for Content Improvement	2.9	0.68
- Thesis Structure	2.6	0.69
- Overcoming Writer's Block	2.2	0.72
- Effective Argument Presentation	2.5	0.73

Supervisors' opinions on ChatGPT's accuracy, reliability, and overall usefulness in thesis writing are as follows: First, in terms of accuracy, supervisors believed ChatGPT provided proper grammatical and syntactic remarks (mean = 2.4, SD = 0.67). Supervisors acknowledge the system's ability to identify and rectify grammatical and syntactical errors in thesis writing. Second, there was disagreement among supervisors over ChatGPT's thesis organisation remarks (mean = 2.6, SD = 0.66). This demonstrates that supervisors disagreed on whether ChatGPT provides genuine advice on the structure and organisation of student theses. The standard deviation reflects the supervisors' varying perspectives on this. Third, supervisors were split on the overall efficacy of ChatGPT for thesis writing. Supervisors agreed that ChatGPT improves students' thesis writing skills (mean = 3.2, SD = 0.89) and provides useful suggestions for improving thesis content (mean = 2.9, SD = 0.68), but they were less convinced of its effectiveness in assisting students with thesis structure (mean = 2.6, SD = 0.69). Supervisors also judged ChatGPT's usefulness in overcoming writer's block (mean = 2.2, SD = 0.72) and presenting arguments (mean = 2.5, SD = 0.73).

These results show that supervisors believe ChatGPT can increase writing abilities and content. However, supervisors' opinions on ChatGPT's thesis organisation comments and its efficacy in organising theses and overcoming writer's block were more mixed or indifferent. This means supervisors may doubt ChatGPT's efficacy and usefulness in these areas.

To answer the third question, which states, "What are the potential impacts of ChatGPT on students' writing skills, autonomy, and the supervisor-student relationship?", the means and standard deviation of participants' perceptions were calculated as presented in Table 3.

TABLE 3
THE PARTICIPANTS' PERCEPTIONS OF CHATGPT'S IMPACT ON THESIS WRITING SKILLS, AUTONOMY, AND SUPERVISOR-STUDENT RELATIONSHIPS

Aspect	Mean	Standard Deviation
Thesis Writing Abilities	3.2	0.89
Vocabulary Usage	2.8	0.71
Thesis Structure	2.6	0.69
Thesis Content	2.9	0.68
Thesis Coherence and Flow	2.6	0.68
Concept Generation Capacity	2.6	0.68
Thesis Writing Autonomy	2.2	0.75
Thesis Structure (Autonomy)	2.2	0.75
Timely Feedback on Thesis Drafts	2.4	0.68
Thesis Writing Confidence	2.4	0.72
Supervisor-Student Relationships	2.4	0.76
Saving Time in Thesis Comments	2.2	0.74

The results revealed that ChatGPT may affect students' writing, autonomy, and supervisor-student relationships as follows: Firstly, ChatGPT may increase students' writing abilities. The participants agree or strongly agree that ChatGPT improves thesis writing, vocabulary, coherence, and flow. AI technology can assist students in writing academically and improve thesis content. Students may improve their theses by obtaining correct criticism on grammar, syntax, structure, and argument presentation. Secondly, according to the data, ChatGPT has little effect on thesis writing autonomy. ChatGPT can guide and provide timely feedback on thesis drafts, but it may not increase students' autonomy. ChatGPT may help students overcome writer's block and acquire confidence by offering rapid support. This assistance reduces students' dependence on supervisors and encourages self-directed learning. Finally, the data does not comprehensively examine how ChatGPT affects the supervisor-student relationship; however, with an average mean rating of 2.4, ChatGPT promotes supervisor-student connections. The system's time-saving thesis feedback may improve supervisor-student communication. By freeing supervisors from time-consuming chores, they may focus on mentoring, advice, and student needs.

The data in Table 3 shows that ChatGPT improves students' thesis writing abilities (mean = 3.2, SD = 0.89). ChatGPT improves vocabulary usage (mean = 2.8, SD = 0.71), thesis structure (mean = 2.6, SD = 0.69), thesis content (mean = 2.9, SD = 0.68), and thesis coherence and flow. However, students' concept generation capacity is seen as neutral (mean = 2.6, SD = 0.68). Participants believe ChatGPT improves thesis writing autonomy (mean = 2.2, SD = 0.75). Students believe that ChatGPT improves thesis structure (mean = 2.2, SD = 0.75) and gives timely feedback on thesis drafts (mean = 2.4, SD = 0.68). Students' thesis writing confidence improves neutrally (mean = 2.4, SD = 0.72). The participants' views on ChatGPT's effects on supervisor-student relationships are varied. ChatGPT's influence on supervisor-student interactions is neutral (mean = 2.4, SD = 0.76); however, the participants believe that it saves supervisors time in thesis comments (mean = 2.2, SD = 0.74).

The results revealed that ChatGPT improves thesis writing abilities. The mean score of 3.2 implies that supervisors believe ChatGPT improves vocabulary, thesis organisation, content quality, and coherence. This is in line with Al-Hariri's (2020) and Syarifah and Fakhruddin's (2024) studies, which revealed that AI-based tools improve students' writing skills. Supervisors feel ChatGPT can improve thesis writing autonomy. The mean grade of 2.2 shows supervisors acknowledge ChatGPT's capability to help students plan their theses and provide timely feedback on drafts. AI writing aids encourage autonomous learning and self-directed writing (Syarifah & Fakhruddin, 2024; Adnan & Anwar, 2020). The supervisor-student relationship findings are mixed. Supervisors believe that ChatGPT saves them time delivering thesis evaluations, but they are divided on whether it improves supervisor-student interactions. This implies that although ChatGPT may speed feedback, concerns emerge about students' dependence on AI technologies. These results complement the current research that emphasises good supervision and interpersonal communication in helping students' writing (Lee, 2022). The findings show that ChatGPT could improve thesis writing and promote student autonomy. Nevertheless, ChatGPT should be combined with good supervision to avoid negative effects on the supervisor-student relationship. These findings add to the literature by revealing Jordanian supervisors' views on AI-based writing tools, enriching the theoretical framework, and supporting the use of such tools in education.

The instructors' pedagogical reasoning, technical pedagogical content knowledge, and informed professionalism may be the cause of this. This guides the teachers' pedagogical decisions, actions, and thought processes. An EFL instructor can identify and use argumentation methods to resolve pedagogical issues and doubts when their instructional rationale aligns with an ambitious pedagogy. Because of their improved professional judgement abilities and characteristics, it can be claimed that teachers are more aware of the challenges ChatGPT presents to their pedagogy (Derakhshan & Ghiasvand, 2024).

An additional acceptable explanation would be that EFL teachers' high degrees of intellectual and digital literacy influence their readiness to adopt new technology into their teaching. ChatGPT may jeopardise EFL assessment by promoting dishonesty and painting an inaccurate picture of students' language proficiency (Cotton et al., 2023). Additionally, these studies assert that ChatGPT jeopardises the security of online exams. This is linked to EFL teachers' worries regarding the reliability and language proficiency sections of exams that rely on technology and AI.

The inclusion of ChatGPT into EFL research may be dangerous since it promotes high-tech plagiarism and disseminates misleading information. This further validates the assertions stated by Mhlanga (2023) that ChatGPT stains scientific research by neglecting crucial ethical considerations and disseminating false information. One possible explanation for this could be that EFL instructors have cultivated a scholarly image through their supervision of several theses and publications pertaining to EFL instruction and educational technology. Although it is unclear if other aspects, including teachers' identities and knowledge, have an extra influence on these outcomes, the study enhances the interface between AI and EFL training.

Furthermore, research has demonstrated that ChatGPT develops instructional materials, reduces teacher workloads, and enhances traditional teaching methods. These findings are in line with and validate those of past research that discovered ChatGPT to be significant in several educational pedagogical domains (Farrokhnia et al., 2023). Although the teachers understood the difficulties and complexities involved in teaching EFL, they also identified opportunities for AI technology to support language training. Since ChatGPT is a language model, it makes sense to assume that it will be more advantageous to language instruction and pedagogy than other fields.

By assisting teachers in developing assessment rubrics, offering adaptive and objective testing, providing writing comments, and delivering prompt assessment feedback on projects and assignments performed by students, it was found that ChatGPT helped improve EFL evaluation. Rudolph et al. (2023) claimed that an AI-powered chatbot can assist EFL teachers and evaluators with quizzes, writing assignments from students, encouraging peer and self-evaluation, establishing rubrics for assessments, and providing prompt responses. The findings revealed that ChatGPT might be harmful to EFL instruction since it can repress critical thinking, discourage innovation, encourage phoney projects and materials, and minimise the importance of context and culture in language learning. This finding is in line with the findings of Farrokhnia et al. (2023) and Latif (2023). These outcomes might be attributed to the instructors' real usage of ChatGPT during EFL classes. An additional explanation would be that ChatGPT is still in its early phases and its developers have not completed resolving all of the issues.

V. CONCLUSION, RECOMMENDATIONS, AND LIMITATIONS

The present study examined Jordanian EFL supervisors' views on ChatGPT's efficiency in helping students write their theses. Supervisors gave varied views on ChatGPT's usefulness and effects on thesis writing. They agreed that ChatGPT assists students in generating ideas, enhancing vocabulary, and advancing their thesis writing skills. Supervisors were impartial on ChatGPT's ability to assist students in organising theses, delivering arguments, and overcoming writer's block. The findings also showed conflicting opinions on ChatGPT's thesis organisation comments and their influence on student autonomy. Supervisors perceive ChatGPT's influence on supervisor-student interactions differently.

The study emphasises the significance of understanding supervisors' viewpoints and resolving their issues and reservations to properly incorporate ChatGPT into thesis writing. ChatGPT's advantages and drawbacks in aiding students and improving thesis writing require more study.

Although the current study offers valuable insights into the application of AI writing tools in EFL courses, it is important to acknowledge that the study's scope is constrained because the data came from just fifty EFL instructors at one university. The availability of technology, resources, and instructors' views towards AI technologies may differ across areas; thus, this study may not accurately reflect instructors' experiences in various settings. Additionally, the study only examined instructors' perspectives; it did not take into account students' opinions or track how much their writing skills actually improved as a result of using these AI tools. As such, it might not give a clear picture of how AI writing tools affect students' writing standards. Additionally, despite concerns expressed by some instructors, the research did not look into the potential drawbacks of students being overly dependent on AI tools or the long-term effects of utilising these tools on students' writing abilities. Future studies must consider these limitations in order to fully comprehend the consequences and potential disadvantages of using AI writing tools in EFL classes.

REFERENCES

- [1] Abdelhamid, D., & Elfakeur Abidi, S. (2024). *A study on Algerian EFL university teachers' and learners' awareness, use, and perceptions of large language models in developing the writing skill* [Doctoral dissertation]. Kasdi Merbah Ouargla University. Retrieved on July 10, 2024. <https://www.researchgate.net/profile/Abdelhamid-Djeghoubbi/publication/380999625>
- [2] Adnan, M., & Anwar, K. (2020). Use of artificial intelligence in English language teaching: An overview. *Eurasia Journal of Mathematics, Science, and Technology Education*, 16(1), 18-35. <http://www.doi.org/10.33902/JPSP.%202020261309> Retrieved on July 10, 2024.
- [3] Al Fawareh, A. J., Dakamsih, N. J., & Alkouri, A. M. (2023). Ecocriticism in modern English literature. *Theory and Practice in Language Studies*, 13(3), 783-788. Retrieved on July 10, 2024.
- [4] Al-Ahmad, S., Obeidat, H., & Al-Jarrah, R. (2023). Self-assessment versus instructor's evaluation of the written product in an EFL context. *Jordan Journal of Modern Languages & Literatures*, 15(3), 849-870. <https://doi.org/10.47012/jjml.15.3.6>
- [5] 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>
- [6] Al-Hariri, A. (2020). The impact of chatbot-based feedback on EFL students' writing skills. *Journal of Language Teaching and Research*, 11(4), 426-435.
- [7] Al-Khawaldeh, N. N., Al Khalaf, E. M., Rababah, L. M., Al-Shboul, O. K., Krishan, T. A., & Alkayid, M. M. (2024). Developing EFL learners' vocabulary repertoire through semantic relations techniques. *Theory and Practice in Language Studies*, 14(8), 2552-2562. <https://doi.org/10.17507/tpls.1408.28>
- [8] Almegren, R. (2022). Persuasive Strategies of Saudi EFL Learners. *International Journal of Arabic-English Studies (IJAES)*, 22(1), 275-290. <https://doi.org/10.33806/ijaes2000.22.1.15>
- [9] 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. <https://ideas.repec.org/a/asi/ijells/v12y2023i4p384-400id4923.html>
- [10] Alsaria, A. H., & Alsaraireh, M. Y. (2024). Advancing EFL Writing Proficiency in Jordan: Addressing Challenges and Embedding Progressive Strategies. *International Journal of Arabic-English Studies*, 24(2), 267-290. <https://doi.org/10.33806/ijaes.v24i2.664>
- [11] Atlas, S. (2023). *ChatGPT for higher education and professional development: A guide to conversational AI*. Amazon Digital Services LLC. Retrieved on July 10, 2024. https://digitalcommons.uri.edu/cba_facpubs/548

- [12] Banihani, A. N. M. (2021). The effect of using blended learning in teaching English on direct and deferred achievement of primary school students. *International Business Research*, 14(4), 1-50. <https://pdfs.semanticscholar.org/4205/66294843e4a2b9edb251edc1da32b7173315.pdf> Retrieved on July 10, 2024.
- [13] Banikalef, A. A. (2019). The impact of culture and gender on the production of online speech acts among Jordanian Facebook users. *International Journal of Arabic-English Studies (IJAES)*, 19(2), 395-410. Retrieved on July 10, 2024. <https://doi.org/10.33806/ijaes2000.19.2.9>
- [14] Banikalef, A. A. (2021). How do Jordanians express their birthday wishes on Facebook? *Journal of Language and Linguistic Studies*, 17(S2), 717-725. <https://search.informit.org/doi/10.3316/informit.140021111441691>
- [15] Bardaweel, M. R., & Rababah, L. M. (2021). Reasons of using Arabizi among English language students in Jordan. *Jadara Journal of Research & Studies*, 7(1), 17-31. <https://doi.org/10.54161/jrs.v7i1.101> Retrieved on July 10, 2024.
- [16] Belawati, T., & Jap, T. (2018). The roles of supervisors in supporting students' research writing process. In T. Jap & G. Yang (Eds.), *Research on E-Learning and ICT in Education* (pp. 195-208). Springer.
- [17] Dakamsih, N. J., & Rababah, L. M. (2024). Breaking barriers, elevating performance: Microsoft Teams and the writing proficiency of EFL Jordanian students. *World Journal of English Language*, 14(5), 493-500.
- [18] Derakhshan, A., & Ghiasvand, F. (2024). Is ChatGPT an evil or an angel for second language education and research? A phenomenographic study of research-active EFL teachers' perceptions. *International Journal of Applied Linguistics*, 1-19. <https://doi.org/10.1111/ijal.12561>
- [19] El Rabbaie, I. O., Al Khudary, M. O., & Al Azzam, F. A. (2019). The impact of artistic creativity in the development of the concept of public opinion through the ages. *British Journal of Science*, 17, 44-53. British Journals ISSN 2047-3745. Retrieved on July 10, 2024.
- [20] Farrokhnia, M., Banihashem, S. K., Noroozi, O., & Wals, A. (2023). A SWOT analysis of ChatGPT: Implications for educational practice and research. *Innovations in Education and Teaching International*, 61, 460-474. <https://doi.org/10.1080/14703297.2023.2195846>. Retrieved on July 10, 2024.
- [21] 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>
- [22] Harara, N. M., Amarneh, E. F., Al Hammouri, R. N., Rababah, M. A., Rababah, L., & El-Omari, A. H. (2024). The Effect of Osborn's Model on Developing Students' Rhetoric Concepts. *Journal of Language Teaching and Research*, 15(4), 1072-1082. <https://doi.org/10.17507/jltr.1504.05>
- [23] Harini, H. (2023). The role of ChatGPT in improving the efficiency of education management processes. *Indo-MathEdu Intellectuals Journal*, 4(2), 255-267. <https://doi.org/10.54373/imeij.v4i2.199>. Retrieved on July 10, 2024.
- [24] Ibnian, S. S. (2023). The Impact of Proposed Online Problem-Based Learning Activities on Developing University EFL Students' Expository Essay Writing. *Jordan Journal of Modern Languages & Literatures*, 15(1), 245-266. <https://doi.org/10.47012/jjml.15.1.13>
- [25] Khasawneh, N. (2022). An Analysis of Learners' Needs of Arabic as a Foreign Language at Jordanian Universities. *Jordan Journal of Modern Languages & Literatures*, 535-549. <https://doi.org/10.47012/jjml.14.3.5>
- [26] Kim, H. S., Cha, Y., & Kim, N. Y. (2021). Effects of AI chatbots on EFL students' communication skills. *영어학*, 21, 712-734. <https://doi.org/10.15738/kjell.21.202108.712>. Retrieved on July 10, 2024.
- [27] Latif, E., Mai, G., Nyaaba, M., Wu, X., Liu, N., Lu, G., & Zhai, X. (2023). *Artificial general intelligence (AGI) for education*. ArXiv preprint arXiv: 2304.12479. <https://www.academia.edu/download/106269812/2304.12479.pdf>
- [28] Lee, I. (2022). Developments in classroom-based research on L2 writing. *Studies in Second Language Learning and Teaching*, 12(4), 551-574. <https://www.cceol.com/search/article-detail?id=1086272> Retrieved on July 10, 2024.
- [29] Li, P., Ning, Y., & Fang, H. (2023). Artificial intelligence translation under the influence of multimedia teaching to study English learning mode. *International Journal of Electrical Engineering & Education*, 60(2_suppl), 325-338. <https://journals.sagepub.com/doi/abs/10.1177/0020720920983528>. Retrieved on July 10, 2024.
- [30] Limna, P., Kraiwant, T., Jangjarat, K., Klayklung, P., & Chocksathapom, P. (2023). The use of ChatGPT in the digital era: Perspectives on chatbot implementation. *Journal of Applied Learning and Teaching*, 6(1), 64-74. <https://doi.org/10.37074/jalt.2023.6.1.32>. Retrieved on July 10, 2024.
- [31] Malkawi, N., Al-Slaihat, M. M., Al Basal, N. M. A., Sakarneh, M., Alkhalidi, 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>
- [32] Malkawi, N., Rababah, M. A., Al Dalacen, I., Ta'amneh, I. M., El Omari, A., Alkhalidi, 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), 95-113. <https://doi.org/10.3991/ijet.v18i05.36727>
- [33] Merghmi, K., & Hoadjli, A. (2024). The Use of Interactional Metadiscourse Markers in the Discussion Section of Master's Theses Written in English by Algerian Students: An Investigation of Gender Variation. *Jordan Journal of Modern Languages & Literatures*, 16(1), 75-94. <https://doi.org/10.47012/jjml.16.1.5>
- [34] Mhlanga, D. (2023). Open AI in education, the responsible and ethical use of ChatGPT towards lifelong learning. *Social Science Research Network*, 4(3), 22-44. <https://doi.org/10.2139/ssrn.4354422>. Retrieved on July 10, 2024.
- [35] Moqbel, M. S. S., & Al-Kadi, A. M. T. (2023). Foreign Language Learning Assessment in the Age of ChatGPT: A Theoretical Account. *Journal of English Studies in Arabia Felix*, 2(1), 71-84. <https://doi.org/10.56540/jesaf.v2i1.62>
- [36] Qudeisat, L., & Rababah, L. (2021). A sign is worth a thousand words: Jordanian shop signs in various languages. *Jadara Journal of Research & Studies*, 7(1), 5-16. <https://doi.org/10.54161/jrs.v7i1.100>. Retrieved on July 10, 2024.
- [37] Rababah, L. (2022). Contextualization to enhance students' writing ability. *Theory and Practice in Language Studies*, 12(11), 22-32. <https://doi.org/10.17507/tpls.1211.11>. Retrieved on July 10, 2024.
- [38] Rababah, L. M. (2023). The Impact of an Intelligent Tutoring System (ITS) on the Academic Progress and Success of EFL Jordanian Students: A Quasi-Experimental Study. *International Journal of Emerging Technologies in Learning (iJET)*, 18(16), pp. 141-149. <https://doi.org/10.3991/ijet.v18i16.41471>

- [39] 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>
- [40] Rababah, L. M., Al-Shboul, O. K., & Banikalef, A. (2023). Examination of the use of feedback in EFL writing instruction: A case study of Jordan. *Journal of Language Teaching and Research*, 14(1), 263-268. <https://doi.org/10.17507/jltr.1401.28>. Retrieved on July 10, 2024.
- [41] Rababah, L. M., Rababah, M. A., & Al-Khawaldeh, N. N. (2024). Graduate students' ChatGPT experience and perspectives during thesis writing. *International Journal of Engineering Pedagogy*, 14(3), 22-36. <https://doi.org/10.3991/ijep.v14i3.48395>
- [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-2023-2304-01>
- [43] Rasul, T., Nair, S., Kalendra, D., Robin, M., de Oliveira Santini, F., Ladeira, W. J., ... & Heathcote, L. (2023). The role of ChatGPT in higher education: Benefits, challenges, and future research directions. *Journal of Applied Learning and Teaching*, 6(1), 41-56. <https://doi.org/10.37074/jalt.2023.6.1.29>
- [44] Rudolph, J., Tan, S., & Tan, S. (2023). ChatGPT: Bullshit spewer or the end of traditional assessments in higher education? *Journal of Applied Learning and Teaching*, 6(1), 342-363. <http://journals.sfu.ca/jalt/index.php/jalt/index>. Retrieved on July 10, 2024.
- [45] 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. *Education and Science*, 25(5), 176-194. <https://doi.org/10.17853/1994-5639-2023-5-176-194>
- [46] 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*. <https://doi.org/10.1101/2023.02.19.23286155>. Retrieved on July 10, 2024.
- [47] Scherer, R., Siddiq, F., & Tondeur, J. (2019). The technology acceptance model (TAM): A meta-analytic structural equation modeling approach to explaining teachers' adoption of digital technology in education. *Computers & Education*, 128, 13-35. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.compedu.2019.103656>. Retrieved on July 10, 2024.
- [48] Shakil, E., & Siddiq, S. (2024). ESL teachers' perceptions about ChatGPT as a threat to analytical writing abilities of ESL learners at graduate level. *Pakistan Language and Humanities Review*, 8(1), 115-128. [https://doi.org/10.47205/plhr.2024\(8-1\)10](https://doi.org/10.47205/plhr.2024(8-1)10). Retrieved on July 10, 2024.
- [49] Slim, S. A. R., & Al-Omari, H. A. (2023). The Effect of an Instructional Program of Critical Thinking Skills on Eleventh Grade Female Students' English Writing Skills in Jordan. *Dirasat: Educational Sciences*, 50(4), 198-210. <https://doi.org/10.35516/edu.v50i4.4370>
- [50] Syarifah, E. F., & Fakhrudin, A. (2024). Exploring Students' Experience in Using Ai to Assist Their Writing. *Journal of English Language Learning*, 8(1), 558-564. <https://doi.org/10.31949/jell.v8i1.10028>
- [51] Wolor, C. W., Eranza, D. R. D., Rababah, M. A., Nurkhin, A., & Hoo, W. C. (2024). The impact of interpersonal trust development on maintaining business sustainability: A case study of Aceh Gayo coffee from Sumatera, Indonesia. *Journal of Infrastructure, Policy and Development*, 8(6), 1-12. <https://doi.org/10.24294/jipd.v8i6.3947>
- [52] Yunus, K., & Hmaidan, M. (2021). The strategies used by lecturers in teaching translation of idiomatic expressions. *International Journal of Education, Psychology and Counseling*, 6(40), 134-144. <https://www.academia.edu/download/77760560/IJEPC-2021-40-06-11.pdf>. Retrieved on July 10, 2024.

Mamoun I. Bani Amer has got MA of Arts in Applied Linguistics at the University of Technology Sydney, UTS, Australia. Now he is doing PhD in Applied Linguistics at Charles Darwin University, CDU, Australia, and teaching ELICOS at Alana Kaye College, (AKC) in Darwin, Australia. mamoun.phd@cdu.edu.au

Luqman Rababah, an Associate Professor within Jadara University's English Language Department, brings scholarly prowess to his role as Director of the Language Center. He teaches sociolinguistics, pragmatics, and second language acquisition. His research interests include pragmatics, semantics, discourse analysis, and sociolinguistics. Email: rababah80@gmail.com

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. mrababah@bau.edu.jo. <https://orcid.org/0000-0002-0930-4030>

Exploring Interpersonal Meaning Through Linguistic Analysis: A Study of President Duterte's Political Speech

Roland A. Niez*

Biliran Province State University, Naval, Biliran Province, Philippines

Noel P. Tancinco

Biliran Province State University, Naval, Biliran Province, Philippines

Beltram C. Sabonsolin

Biliran Province State University, Naval, Biliran Province, Philippines

Vicente Q. Solteo Jr.

Biliran Province State University, Naval, Biliran Province, Philippines

Jelyn M. Magno

Biliran Province State University, Naval, Biliran Province, Philippines

Ayesna O. Sabocohan

Biliran Province State University, Naval, Biliran Province, Philippines

Francisco M. Ebio Jr.

Biliran Province State University, Naval, Biliran Province, Philippines

Jed Priam Nuñez Cerera

Biliran Province State University, Naval, Biliran Province, Philippines

Dina Sudario Superable

Department of Education Regional Office VIII- Eastern Visayas, Philippines

Abstract—This paper analyzes President Rodrigo Duterte's inaugural State of the Nation Address (SONA) through the lens of Halliday's Systemic Functional Grammar (SFG) to elucidate the generation and transmission of interpersonal meaning. Specifically, the research meticulously explores the nuances of mood and modal auxiliary structures employed by Duterte in his address. Through a comprehensive analysis of the distribution and usage patterns of mood and modal auxiliaries throughout the speech, the study uncovers how these linguistic elements collectively serve to articulate and amplify the speaker's interpersonal intentions and meanings. The findings underscore Duterte's strategic utilization of diverse moods and modal auxiliaries as instrumental tools for effectively communicating his messages and ensuring clarity and resonance with his target audience. This linguistic analysis not only sheds light on the intricate mechanisms of interpersonal meaning construction in political discourse, but also highlights the pedagogical potential of SONAs and similar political speeches, as valuable resources for language educators. These speeches can serve as enriching teaching materials for educators aiming to impart knowledge and facilitate understanding of complex grammatical concepts such as mood, modal auxiliary, and interpersonal meaning in language classrooms. Thus, the study advocates for the incorporation of political speeches into language teaching curricula to enhance students' linguistic competence and analytical skills.

Index Terms—interpersonal meaning, mood, modal auxiliary, SONA

I. INTRODUCTION

Speaking effectively is a vital means of connecting and engaging with an audience, serving both as a tool for understanding and a medium for conveying ideas. Ramelan (1999) emphasizes the importance of language in human communication, asserting that it enables cooperation and understanding among people. This research analyzes President

*Corresponding Author. Email: dnalorz3@gmail.com; ORCID: 0009-0006-2591-1208

Rodrigo Duterte's first State of the Nation Address (SONA), concentrating on his language usage to clarify the interpersonal metafunction, an essential component of communication.

Political speeches like the SONA, delivered on significant, formal occasions and often broadcasted, aim to inform the public about the nation's current economic, political, and social landscape. They also provide a platform for the President to highlight achievements and outline future plans for governance.

Language plays various roles in social communication, as emphasized by the functionalist approach, encompassing ideational, interpersonal, and textual dimensions, known as the "metafunctions" of language (Halliday & Matthiessen, 2004). This study concentrates specifically on the interpersonal metafunction in Duterte's speech, which reflects the nature of relationships and influences personal and social interactions (Morley, 2000; Halliday & Matthiessen, 2004).

The interpersonal metafunction facilitates the expression of opinions, judgments, and relationships between the speaker and the audience (Halliday, 2007; Halliday & Matthiessen, 1999). It conveys a speaker's attitudes, evaluations, and role relationships with the reader, as well as the writer's perspective on the subject matter (Gerot & Wignell, 1994; Eggins, 1994).

Language also serves an interpersonal function, allowing speakers to express comments, attitudes, and evaluations while establishing communication roles such as informing, questioning, greeting, and persuading (Halliday, 2007). Hu Zhuanglin (1988) observes that the interpersonal function covers all language applications for articulating social and personal connections, frequently using modality and mood to communicate these interpersonal significances.

This study analyzes Duterte's speech to uncover the interpersonal and textual meanings conveyed through his use of interactional and interactive discourse resources. Ayoola (2013) proposes that the interpersonal metafunction in speech relates to the speaker's use of language to form and sustain connections with the audience, shaping their actions through the expression of perspectives.

With the preceding enunciation, the present study, therefore aimed at exploring how interpersonal meaning is achieved with particular emphasis on mood and modal auxiliary. Particularly, it sought to answer these questions:

1. How are interpersonal meanings expressed in the speech concerning:
 - a) Mood
 - b) Modal auxiliary
2. What are the implications of the analysis of interpersonal meanings in language teaching?

II. THEORETICAL BACKGROUND

Systemic Functional Linguistics (SFL), pioneered by Michael Halliday in the 1960s, offers a viewpoint on language that emphasizes its functional elements over solely structural ones. SFL is based on a social semiotic perspective of language, seeing language as a "web of linked systems for generating meaning" (Pertiwi, 2011). Unlike traditional grammar, which concentrates on word categories like nouns and verbs within individual clauses, SFL emphasizes the role of language in conveying meaning.

Gerot and Wignell (1994) describe functional grammars as frameworks that consider language as a tool for meaning-making, emphasizing the analysis of language in real-world contexts. This grammatical approach, originating from J.F. Firth's work and expanded upon by M.A.K. Halliday, emphasizes the functional aspect of language.

Halliday (2000) identified three primary meta-functions of language within SFL: ideational, interpersonal, and textual. The interpersonal function focuses on establishing and maintaining social relationships and clarifying communication roles (Halliday, 2002). Language serves various communicative purposes, such as influencing attitudes, providing information, explaining viewpoints, and prompting actions (Thompson, 2000; Simon, 1997).

In terms of interpersonal communication, Halliday (2009) highlighted the significance of elements like mood, modality, and key. He also explored the role of pronoun systems, attitudinal modifiers, and rhythmic features in conveying interpersonal meaning. Eggins (2004) noted that examining the relationship between linguistic systems and speakers' discourse choices offers insights into the construction of interpersonal meaning, reflecting factors like intimacy, familiarity, attitudes, and judgments.

In any communication, particularly in speeches, the primary goal is effective engagement with the audience to foster interaction and connection. Within the context of speeches, SFL examines how speakers craft utterances and discourses to express their intended meanings (Lin & Peng, 2006).

III. METHODS

A. Sampling

The study analyzed at President Rodrigo Duterte's first State of the Nation Address (SONA), which was delivered on July 25, 2016, a Monday, at the Batasan Pambansa in Quezon City. It was one hour and thirty-two minutes long and included 10,251 words in total. According to Article 7, Section 23 of the Philippine Constitution of 1987, the SONA is an obligatory yearly practice. The President of the Philippines presents a report on the current state of the nation, the government's goals for the upcoming year, and legislative initiatives that Congress should consider during this event (Official Gazette of the Republic of the Philippines). After winning the election on May 9, 2016, President Duterte

delivered his first State of the Nation Address (SONA) at the Batasang Pambansa Complex in Quezon City on July 25, 2016. The Official Gazette of the Republic of the Philippines website has the complete 2016 SONA transcript.

B. Research Design

Discourse analysis was employed in the study. According to Abrams (Nur, 2015) discourse analysis centers on the study of language, either spoken or written, within a specific situational context involving the interaction of the speaker and the addressee.

C. Analytical Framework

The analysis made was anchored on Halliday's (2000) Systemic Functional Grammar. According to Huckin (Widhiyanto, 2004), there are three levels of analysis. The analysis should start from the text as a whole, then sentence level, and lastly phrase or word level. Given the foregoing, there are three units of analysis: the text as an aggregate, clause-complex (sentence level), and appraisal potential (word or phrase level).

The present study made use of clause-complexes as units of analysis in analyzing President Duterte's first SONA. Hence, it focused mainly on the major features of interpersonal metafunction: mood and modal auxiliary.

IV. RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

In our interactions with others, language serves a variety of purposes, such as making requests, giving orders, apologizing, inviting, and more. Halliday (2000) suggests that the primary objectives in any communication exchange involve either giving (and receiving) or requesting (and being provided with) something of value. He further categorizes these valuable exchanges into two types: "information" and "goods and services". Based on this classification, Halliday (2000) identifies four primary speech roles. Table 1 presents these foundational speech roles as outlined by Halliday (2000):

TABLE 1

Role \ Commodity	Goods-Service	Information
	Offer	Statement
Giving	Offer	Statement
Demanding	Command	Question

(Halliday, 2000)

Generally, declarative clauses convey statements, interrogative clauses pose questions, and imperative clauses express commands or requests. These primary speech functions are linked through the grammatical framework referred to as the Mood network. In Functional Grammar, a clause's mood is defined by its subject and finite verb. Eggins and Slade (1997) indicate that the arrangement of the subject-finite within a clause sets apart these speech functions. This distinction is essential for understanding the interpersonal significance of the clause in conversation, revealing the social roles and identities of the individuals engaged in the discourse.

As depicted in Figure 1, the examination of subject and finite identification reveals that over two-fifths of the clauses belong to the indicative-declarative mood. Specifically, out of 784 clauses analyzed, 637 were declarative, making up 81.3% of the speech; 117 were imperative, representing 14.9% of the speech; and 30 clauses (3.8%) exhibited an indicative-interrogative structure.

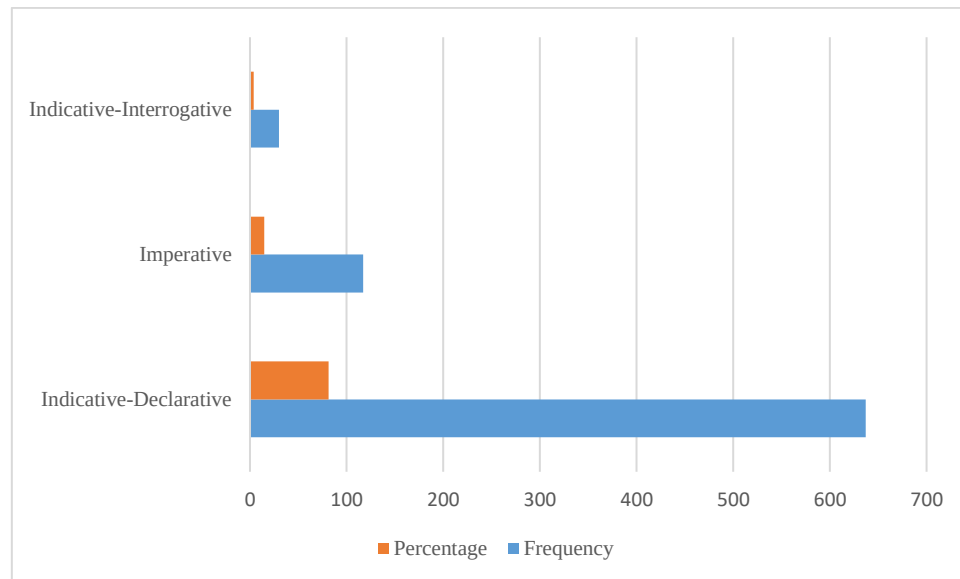


Figure 1. Moods of the Clauses

There are several factors to consider regarding why Duterte adopted this mood pattern in his SONA. According to Nur (2015), the multi-faceted structure of language, as described by Halliday (2004), mirrors the complex nature of human experiences and interpersonal relationships. This complexity is particularly evident in speeches, especially political ones, where effectively conveying information and requesting action is crucial for the speaker to achieve their objectives.

Nur (2015) states: "The speaker attempts to demand and stimulate the audience to feel this and act appropriately. In exchange, he expects to deliver certain signals to the audience indicating his attitude and assumptions. Declarative clauses, therefore, must be prominently displayed in political speeches, followed by imperative and interrogative clauses, in that order.

Considering the aforementioned points, Duterte's speech was made informative and persuasive through his prominent use of declarative clauses. For instance:

(9) *If we let the past drag us back, we will never be able to move forward.*

(10) *Pointing fingers is not appropriate.*

(22) *Back then, I was as committed as I am now, and in a stronger position, to fight against individuals who degrade our legal system and bring misery to each and every one of us.*

(35) *This government does not condone violence and repression of the media.*

Since this is his first SONA, Duterte also employed declarative clauses to make promises to the public as to what his plans are for the country. For example:

(39) *In this quest, I will put at stake my honor, my life, and the presidency itself.*

(42) *An Inter-Agency Committee on Illegal Drugs will be established in order to coordinate activities and fortify cooperation amongst all parties involved.*

(44) *Additionally, we will give drug addicts' recovery top priority.*

(45) *We intend to augment the quantity of residential treatment and rehabilitation establishments around the nation.*

(49) *In order to promote the welfare of our people in the fields of health, education, and access to enough food and shelter environmental preservation, and cultural respect, my administration will apply humane approach to development and governance.*

The imperative clause plays a crucial role in speeches, serving as motivational, empowering, and directive. It can encourage the audience to heed the speaker's guidance, thereby establishing the speaker's authoritative persona through a portrayal of a collaborative relationship (Nur, 2015). Concerning the imperative clauses used by Duterte in his SONA, the President used imperative mood to give advice. For example:

(363) *Gina Lopez and I are just telling you: Follow government standards.*

(367) *Just pay the correct taxes, and follow the standards.*

(513) *Do not add or get anything away from it.*

(544) *Mag-sumbong ka. (Report yourself.)*

(608) *Make use of the computer.*

(647) *Magtiis-tiis lang muna kayo. (Just be patient.)*

(717) *Do not let it remain idle.*

For interrogative clauses, Duterte mainly used them for humor and to ask the audience whether the names of the person he mentioned were present during his speech. For example:

(177) *Sino man nagsuporta sa inyo sa akin dito? (Whoever supported you with me here?)*

(178) *Wala man? (Nothing?)*

(373) *Nandiyan ba si Ma'am?* (Is Ma'am there?)

(375) *Secretary Lopez, nandiyan?* (Secretary Lopez, is there?)

(592) *Wala?* (Nothing?)

Halliday (1994) states that modality represents the middle ground between positive and negative extremes. As Duszak (1997) puts it, the polarity of statements is either positive or negative: either something "is so" or "is not so" depending on the evidence presented. On the contrary, speakers of the language are frequently inclined to somewhere between "yes" and "no". This middle positioning is what Halliday (Duszak, 1997) termed "the system of modality" which applies to both proposals and propositions. This was further classified as modality of proposals, like that of commands and offers, to modulation, whereas modality of propositions, to include statements and questions, to modalization.

Figure 2 displays the occurrence rate of the modal auxiliaries utilized in Duterte's speech. The predominant use of *will* is indicative of his views towards the future as this is his first SONA since his assumption to the office of the president. Also, *will* was used to reassure the audience of his intentions from the beginning as in sentences 13, 27, 35, and 39.

(13) *To avoid any misunderstandings, let me state unequivocally that those who violated the confidence of the public will face consequences and will be given a chance to appear in court.*

(27) *At this point, there are few concerns I wish to convey to all to the end that as I per orate on facts, figures, plans, programs, and solutions, these concerns will not dissipate or get lost along our way.*

(35) *The Office of the President will always back you if you do your job, which is expected of our police officers and other officials.*

(39) *In this quest, I will put at stake my honor, my life, and the presidency itself.*

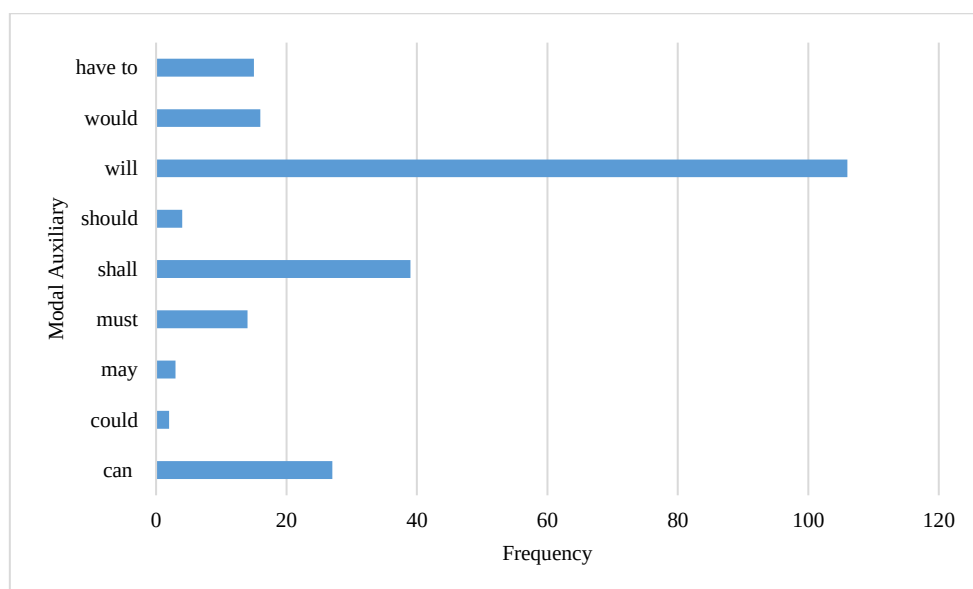


Figure 2. The Occurrence Rate of the Modal Auxiliary

The use of "shall" was observed in proposing solutions to various challenges encountered by the country, as seen in sentences 57, 61, 64, 106, 108, 109, and 110.

(57) *Our first priority will always be addressing global warming, but only in a just and equitable manner.*

(61) *In order to foster better mutual understanding and collaboration, we will intensify security discussions with other countries.*

(64) *The Philippines will remain committed to working with foreign partners to achieve long-lasting peace and national advancement when it comes to the aspect of our peace processes that deal with our relations with the international community.*

(106) *We plan to build additional access roads and tourism gateways to service centers and tourist destinations in the tourism sector.*

(108) *In order to maximize yield through the application of efficient soil rehabilitation and fertilization, we will also carry out a statewide soil analysis to identify regions most suited for rice cultivation.*

(109) *Not only will we encourage backyard and riverside aquaculture, but we will strictly enforce existing fisheries laws, particularly those that deal with illegal fishing.*

(110) *On the other hand, by constructing the Mindanao Logistics Infrastructure Network [applause] and other road network master plans, as well as by enhancing national highways and bridges, we will expedite infrastructure investment.*

Interestingly, *shall* was used in sentence 48 to ensure the audience that the welfare of the Filipino people is at the core of his administration.

(48) *In light of this, my government will prioritize social justice while upholding the rule of law at all times. We will also be mindful of the State's duties to advance, defend, and fulfill the human rights of all citizens, particularly the impoverished, marginalized, and vulnerable.*

Can was used constantly to express ability, as in sentence 353.

(353) *Clark Airport can be utilized to shift some operations of our domestic and international airlines.*

Furthermore, Duterte emphasized on the expected outcome of the 4Ps program using *can* in sentence 707.

(707) *However, the goal is to provide it with additional support so that it can stand on its own two feet.*

In making requests, more formally and politely, *would* was adopted as in the case of sentences 119 and 685.

(119) *Many in the administration realistically believe—and I have to agree—that the deteriorating traffic issue could be rationally addressed if Congress also granted the relevant agencies emergency powers.*

(685) *We need the power and, therefore, the emissions would also be considered.*

Have to, a phrasal modal, was used constantly in expressing obligations, like in sentences 464, 629, 789, and 359.

(464) *We have to understand each other, then you have to live with each other, but we will try.*

(629) *We have to adjust to the needs of our people.*

(789) *We have to help each other.*

(359) *I have to protect the country.*

Must took on three different functions in the speech, namely: to emphasize strong recommendations, certainty, and necessity as exhibited in sentences 166, 291, and 728, 361 and 419, and 194 respectively.

(166) *You must have a president.*

(291) *Problema nito, and you must agree with me, that the rails are quite aged.*

(728) *While the government is always ready to help you, you must first help yourself.*

(361) *But si Gina pati ako, we share the same paradigm: The interest of the country must come first.*

(419) *This is something that I feel that I must do because it is the right thing to do.*

(194) *They must have a logbook.*

Should had a two-way role in the speech for it was adopted to emphasize recommendations, as in sentences 12, 28, and 424. Likewise, it was also used in advising as exhibited in sentence 784.

(12) *Except perhaps to extract a lesson or two from its errors, we should not delay because our focus is on the present and our readiness should be for the future.*

(28) *Therefore, let me inform our religious leaders, bishops, priests, pastors, preachers, and imams that, although I firmly support the idea of church and state separation, I also firmly think that God and state should never be separated.*

(424) *I'm addressing Congress on this one: legislation should be passed to establish the People's Broadcasting Corporation in place of PTV-4, the government-run television channel that is currently trying to resemble foreign government broadcasting networks. This will help handle public information more effectively.*

(784) *But we should not despair.*

In asking for permissions, such as in sentences 96 and 220, *may* was used. Also, *may* was adopted to make a polite request in sentence 588.

(96) *May I continue.*

(220) *May I address again to the Filipino: Ako po'y nagdo-doble ang pagod para sa inyo, para sa kapakanan ng bayan.* (I am doubling the fatigue for you, for the sake of the people.)

(588) *I may now also ask on Congress to consider drawing up bills consolidating and merging agencies and offices having to do the Overseas Filipino to have a department that shall focus on and quickly respond to their problems and concerns.*

Could was used to project the possibility as Duterte discussed the problem of drug addiction in sentence 741. Apparently, *could* was used as well in giving suggestions as in sentence 119.

(741) *It could take the entire resources of this government to fight this war.*

(119) *Many in government opine realistically, and I would have to agree, that the worsening traffic situation could be logically addressed if Congress would also accord emergency powers to the agencies concerned.*

As a whole, the preponderance of *will* in Duterte's speech is indicative of his attitude of his plans for the country, after all, such speech was his first SONA since he became president. Also, Duterte's strong determination to carry out his tasks as president was revealed, particularly in the use of the modal *must* to emphasize strong recommendations, necessity, and certainty. According to Halliday (Nur, 2015) *must* is the highest scale of modal commitment. Boicu (2007) argues that the deliberate and selective use of modal verbs by speakers is crucial in conveying directive speech acts. In political discourse, a speaker's politeness is conveyed through the strategic use of these modal verbs. Similarly, Shayegh (2012) points out that because the aim of political discourse is to reassure, the use of modal verbs is fitting as they reflect a specific level of commitment, determination, and enthusiasm from the political leader.

Furthermore, speeches, like SONA, could be viable language resources among teachers when teaching modal auxiliary. Likewise, these present wide examples for language teachers and learners alike in terms of studying interpersonal meanings.

V. CONCLUSION

The differences in the distribution of the mood and modal auxiliary in the speech altogether work to exemplify the speaker's interpersonal meanings. Duterte employed a range of moods and modal auxiliaries to effectively communicate his message and ensure comprehension by his target audience. Also, Duterte's position and attitude towards the issues that the country is facing can be gleaned from his will to carry out the tasks placed before him as president. Moreover, pedagogically speaking, the SONA and other political speeches, are viable language teaching materials for teachers in teaching mood, modal auxiliary, and interpersonal meaning in language classrooms.

REFERENCES

- [1] Ayoola, M. O. (2013). *An Interpersonal Metafunction Analysis of Some Selected Political Advertisements in Some Nigerian Newspapers*. Retrieved April 8, 2024 from http://www.ijhssnet.com/journals/Vol_3_No_8_Special_Issue_April_2013/18.pdf.
- [2] Boicu, R. (2007). Modal Verbs and Politeness Strategies in Political Discourse. *Munich Personal RePEc Archive*. Retrieved April 5, 2024 from <http://mpira.ub.uni-muenchen.de/45913/>.
- [3] Duszak, A. (1997). Retrieved April 10, 2024 from *Culture and Style of Academic Discourse* https://books.google.com.ph/books?id=O5FK7d6ZMzQC&pg=PA159&lpg=PA159&dq=modalization&source=bl&ots=FDNVpZaEZk&sig=NlwysEMvov-zN_F7gtOm6b3RZf8&hl=en&sa=X&ved=0ahUKEwi1uun5gaDUAhVCgLwKHVbCA0MQ6AEIYTAL#v=onepage&q=modalization&f=false
- [4] Eggins, S. (2004). *An introduction to systemic functional linguistics*. London: Continuum.
- [5] Eggins, S. (1994). *An Introduction to Systemic Functional Linguistics*. London: Pinter Publishers.
- [6] Eggins, S. & D. Slade. (1997). *Analyzing casual conversation*. London. Cassell.
- [7] Fairclough, Norman. (1995). *Critical Discourse Analysis: The Critical Study of Language*. Essex: Longman: Group Ltd.
- [8] Feng, H. & Liu, Y. (2010). Analysis of interpersonal meaning in public speeches- a case study of Obama's speech. *Journal of Language Teaching and Research*, 1(6), 825-829.
- [9] Gerot, L, and P. Wignell. (1994). *Making Sense of Functional Grammar*. Australia: Gerd Stabler.
- [10] Halliday, M. A. K. (2009). *The essential Halliday*. In J.J. Webster (edited). London: Continuum.
- [11] Halliday, M. A. K. (2007). *Language and education*. London: Continuum.
- [12] Halliday, Michael A. K. and Christian M. M. Matthiessen. (2004). *An Introduction Functional Grammar*. 3rd ed. London: Hodder Arnold.
- [13] Halliday, M. A. K. (2002). *On grammar* (edited by Jonathan J. Webster). London: Continuum.
- [14] Halliday, M. A. K. (2000). *An introduction to functional grammar*. Beijing: Foreign Language Teaching and Research Press.
- [15] Halliday, M. A. K. (1994). *An Introduction to Functional Grammar 2nd Ed*. London: Edward Arnold.
- [16] Halliday, Michael A. K. (1978). Language as Social Semiotic. *The Social Interpretation of Language and Meaning*. London: Edward Arnold.
- [17] Halliday, Michael A. K. (1973). *Explorations in the Functions of Language*. London: Edward Arnold (Publishers) Ltd.
- [18] Halliday, M. A. K. and C. M. I. M. (1999). *Matthiessen construing experience through meaning: A language-based approach to cognition*. London: Continuum.
- [19] Halliday, M.A.K. and R. Hasan. (1985). *Language, Context, and Text: Aspects of Language in Social-semiotic Perspective*. Melbourne: Deakin University Press.
- [20] Hu Zhuanglin. (1988). *A Course of Linguistics*. Peking: Peking University Press.
- [21] <https://appfi.ph/images/2016/Full-Text-SONA.pdf>. Retrieved April 10, 2024.
- [22] <https://news.abs-cbn.com/focus/07/25/16/read-transcript-of-president-dutertes-1st-sona>. Retrieved April 10, 2024.
- [23] <https://pnoypolitika.wordpress.com/2016/07/25/full-text-president-rodrigo-roa-duterte-sona-2016-speech-english-tagalog/>. Retrieved April 10, 2024.
- [24] <https://www.thesummitexpress.com/2016/07/full-text-and-transcript-president-duterte-sona-2016-speech-english-tagalog.html>. Retrieved April 10, 2024.
- [25] InterAksyon. (2016, July 24). *It lasts at least 38 minutes, awakens 'patriot' in us, can make one cry: Andanar*. (Archived on July 25, 2016). Retrieved July 24, 2016, from [https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/2016_State_of_the_Nation_Address_\(Philippines\)](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/2016_State_of_the_Nation_Address_(Philippines))
- [26] Lin, F. Y., & Peng, A. X. (2006). *Systemic functional grammar and construction grammar*. Retrieved April 10, 2024 from http://www4.pucsp.br/isfc/proceedings/Artigos%20pdf/16th_lin_peng_331a347.pdf
- [27] McGregor, Sue L. T. (2003). *Critical Discourse Analysis: A Primer*. Online: <http://www.kon.org/archives/forum/15-1/mcgregorcd.html>, accessed 18/02/08.
- [28] Morley, G. D. (2000). *Syntax in functional grammar; an introduction to lexicogrammar in systemic linguistics*. Continuum.
- [29] Nur, S. (2015). Analysis of interpersonal meaning in public speeches: a case study of Nelson Mandela's presidential inauguration speech. *International Journal of Social Sciences*, 30(1), 52-63.
- [30] Pertiwi, Rahayu. (2011). *Interpersonal Meaning Analysis of The Prologue Text in William Peter Blatty's Novel "The Exorcist" and Its Relationship with Plot of The Story*. Semarang: Unpublished.
- [31] Philippine Daily Inquirer. (2016, July 25). *FULL SPEECH: Duterte's 1st State of the Nation Address*. Retrieved July 25, 2016, from [https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/2016_State_of_the_Nation_Address_\(Philippines\)](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/2016_State_of_the_Nation_Address_(Philippines)).
- [32] Ramelan. (1999). *English Phonetics*. Semarang: IKIP Semarang Press.
- [33] Shayegh, K. (2012). Modality in Political Discourse of Barack Obama and Martin Luther King. *Trends in Advance Science and Engineering*, 3(1), 2-8.
- [34] Simon, D. (1997). *The theory of functional grammar-complex and derived constructions*. Berlin & New York: Mouton de Gruyter.
- [35] Soy, Susan K. (1997). *The case study as a research method*. Unpublished paper, University of Texas at Austin. Retrieved on June 2, 2017 from <https://www.ischool.utexas.edu/~ssoy/usesusers/l391d1b.htm>
- [36] Thompson, G. (2000). *Introducing functional grammar*. Beijing: Foreign Language Teaching and Research Press.

- [37] Widhiyanto. (2004). *Appraisal System Used to Express Ideologies in the Jakarta Post Issue: Gusdur versus KPU*. Semarang: Unpublished.
- [38] Wodak, Ruth. "Aspects of Critical Discourse Analysis". <http://www.unikoblenz.de/diekmann/zfalarchiv/zfal36/.pdf>. Accessed 30/7/08. 5-31.
- [39] www.rappler.com/nation/140860-rodriago-duterte-speech-sona-2016-philippines-full-text July 25, 2016. (2018). State of the Nation Address. Official Gazette. Retrieved April 1, 2024 from <http://www.officialgazette.gov.ph/pastsona-speeches/>



Roland A. Niez is an Associate Professor at Biliran Province State University (BiPSU) and currently serves as the Vice President for Research, Innovation, and Extension. He holds a Doctor of Arts in Language Teaching from Leyte Normal University and a Doctor of Education from BiPSU. Dr. Niez has extensive experience in academic leadership, research, and publication, having held various administrative roles and made significant contributions to research in language teaching, curriculum development, and educational leadership, particularly in curriculum enhancement and technology integration. His work has received recognition at both local and international conferences.



Noel P. Tancinco is a Doctor of Philosophy degree holder and currently teaches courses on language and professional education at the school of teacher education, and management courses in the graduate school of Biliran Province State University, Naval, Biliran Province, Philippines. He is a thesis and dissertation advisor, and has presented research papers to numerous international conferences and published to reputable journals. Among his contributions to research and development literature are focused on language education, management, and teaching methodologies.



Beltram C. Sabonsolin is a Doctor of Education, Ed. D major in Filipino Language Teaching degree holder in Cebu Normal University and currently teaches courses on language, culture and general education at school Biliran Province State University-Biliran Campus Biliran, Biliran Province Philippines. He published in numerous reputable journals. Dr. Sabonsolin is a member of different organizations related to Filipino, Wika at Kultura.



Vicente Q. Solteo Jr., born on May 19, 1973, in Tanauan, Leyte, holds degrees in Business Administration (1993), Public Management (2003), and Human Resource Management (2006) from the University of the Philippines Tacloban and Biliran Province State University. He also pursued law (2010) and a Diploma in Teaching Secondary Education (2016), passing the licensure exam that year. Currently an Associate Professor V at Biliran Province State University, he has previously worked in various roles, including Senior High School Teacher and Administrative Officer. His research spans strategic credit management and ICT coordinators' competencies, and he is active in professional organizations and editorial boards.



Jelyn M. Magno is a Doctor of Education major in Filipino Language Teaching and currently teaches courses on language and professional education at the School of Teacher Education - Biliran Campus, Biliran, Biliran and Filipino courses in the Graduate School of Biliran Province State University, Naval, Biliran Province, Philippines. She is an adviser of the undergraduate and masteral thesis. Presented research papers to national conferences and published to reputable journals.



Ayesna Sabocohan is currently a faculty at the Biliran Province State University-School of Teacher Education in Naval, Biliran, Philippines. She holds a bachelor's degree in Education Major in Filipino from the National Teacher's College and an EdD in Teaching Filipino. Dr. Sabocohan is dedicated in sharing her extensive knowledge and life-long career experience with education students across different fields. She previously served the University as a Director for BiPSU *Sentro ng Wika at Kultura* for three years before her diagnosis as a dialysis patient.



Francisco M. Ebio Jr., born on May 5, 1971, in Naval, Biliran, Philippines, holds degrees in Secondary Education (1992), a Master of Arts in Education (1998), and a Bachelor of Laws (2006) from Biliran Province State University, along with a PhD in Education from Eastern Visayas State University (2002). He worked as a Secondary School Teacher (1993–2004) and Head Teacher (2005–2010) before transitioning to higher education at BiPSU, where he currently serves as Director of the Auxiliary Service Development Office. His research on the development of Naval State University was published in an international journal in 2016. Dr. Ebio is also a Professor VI and a member of several professional organizations, including the Association of Asian Studies (AAS) and TESOL.



Jed Priam Nuñez Cerera is currently an Instructor at the School of Teacher Education, Biliran Campus, Biliran Province State University. He holds a Bachelor of Science degree in Development Communication, specializing Community Broadcasting, from Visayas State University. Additionally, he earned a Master's degree in English from Leyte Normal University. Currently, he is pursuing a Doctor of Arts degree in Language Teaching at Leyte Normal University and is actively engaged in writing his dissertation. At Biliran Province State University, Mr. Cerera teaches English, Visual Arts, and Education Research to aspiring educators. He has also served as the adviser for the Student Publication since 2015. Beyond his academic pursuits and teaching responsibilities, Mr. Cerera is passionate about Statistics and Data Science.



Dina Sudario Superable is an Education Program Supervisor in the Human Resource Development Division, Department of Education Regional Office VIII- Eastern Visayas. She is a graduate of Bachelor of Arts in Communication Arts from the University of the Philippines Visayas Tacloban College and finished her Teaching Certificate Program at the University of the Philippines Open University. She is also a graduate of Master in English and Doctor of Arts in Language Teaching at Leyte Normal University, Tacloban City. She has presented at several local, national, and international research conferences. Her research interests are qualitative research, action, and basic education research.

From Postfeminism to Foucault: The Revival of Medusa in Emma Hamm's *Becoming Medusa*

Estabraq Yahya Mohammed

School of Literature and Humanities, Shiraz University, Shiraz, Iran

Amirhossein Vafa*

School of Literature and Humanities, Shiraz University, Shiraz, Iran

Abstract—This paper examines Hamm's *Becoming Medusa* (2021) through the lenses of postfeminism and Foucault's theories of power and agency, foregrounding the significance of revisionist retelling. Since the 1970s, female protagonists like Medusa have gained popularity due to the postfeminist reimagining of Greek mythology. The reclaiming of Medusa's narrative has undergone a series of shifts in the perception of her character, moving from a position of victimisation and monstrosity to one of agency and empowerment, as evidenced in this novel. Challenging the postfeminist paradigm and considering Foucault's ideas, the paper studies the revival of Medusa as the creation of a new identity. Foucault's critique of power cultivates a detailed view of the interrelations between gender and power that escapes the assumption that oppressing women is caused in an unassuming way by men's power. This study's significance lies in presenting a more in-depth and innovative exploration of *Becoming Medusa* by presenting a different version of Medusa as a real woman who is changed from passive to agent. By intertwining these mentioned theories, a more comprehensive analysis of the context and the authors' intentions transforms their current viewpoints to the readers and audiences presented. The importance of this topic also lies in achieving global postfeminism through Medusa's revival from Greek mythology to the contemporary age.

Index Terms—postfeminism, power theory, Foucault, *Becoming Medusa*, Emma Hamm

I. INTRODUCTION

Becoming Medusa is the latest in a series of retellings of Greek myths. It was written by Emma Hamm and published in 2021. The study's selection of this novel was based on its distinctive portrayal of Medusa. No matter the medium, she is always portrayed as a villainous monster, negating Athena's monstrous transformation. When Poseidon tries to seduce and subsequently rape her in the Temple of Athena, Medusa is transformed into the terrifying monster we know today, with hair made of snakes. *Becoming Medusa* is the first fictional work to depict Medusa as a fully realised human female with a social life and romantic interests. The novel's realism comes from the protagonist's humanity rather than fantastical elements. Being raped transforms her into a monster who can turn the flesh of others into stone. According to the myth, Medusa was beheaded by the Greek hero Perseus. She loses her pregnancy, reputation, and life because of a man's actions.

Medusa consciously distanced herself from her social circle, beloved friends, and family, turning down a proposed marriage to dedicate herself to serving Athena in the temple. She had a pure heart, a supportive family, and an endless desire for new experiences. As she made new social connections and took on additional responsibilities, she gradually adapted to her surroundings and found contentment until Poseidon appeared and raped her. Athena did nothing to right the wrong that had been done to Medusa. Instead, she turned her into a monster, guaranteeing that no man would ever touch her again. Athena exiles her from the temple, imposing a curse that renders her unappealing to any man's gaze henceforth. The Greek myth hero Perseus discovered her and cut off her head as though it belonged to him. It is a story of Medusa's suffering, release, and recovery. This novel has far surpassed the impact of any heroic saga— it presents Medusa as a woman's journey through suffering to ultimate happiness and love. This rendition of the tale of Medusa is a remarkable portrayal. It casts heroes differently and was written from the anti-hero and ostensible antagonist's point of view. It is adored the tragic love story of Alexios and Medusa. It is seen in Medusa's resilience in the face of adversity and Alexios's unwavering devotion to her despite her monstrous appearance. Alexios loved Medusa in both her monstrous and human forms.

Since she is portrayed as a villainous monster, viewers and readers will have no sympathy for her. A plethora of articles exploring Medusa from a variety of angles already exist. Perseus, the hero of the myth, tries to prove his bravery by killing a pregnant woman who has been mistreated, abused, and cursed. There is a widespread belief among postfeminists that Poseidon's misogyny was the seed from which Medusa grew. As Cixous points out, the myth of Medusa misrepresents her (1976). In the myth, she is killed by a hero. She is blamed and punished for a man's crime, but she is also murdered while pregnant. Her portrayal as a monster and antagonist in such horrific imagery will not elicit sympathy from readers or viewers. Many articles have been written on the Medusa myth from various perspectives. The myth shows a man,

* Corresponding Author. Email: a.vafa@shirazu.ac.ir

Peruses, trying to prove his bravery by killing a pregnant woman who has been mistreated, abused and cursed. Armstrong indicates that many postfeminists believe that Medusa was born out of Poseidon's (2004) misogyny.

Even though she was brought back to life in several works, her history as a real woman was almost forgotten. Medusa's monstrous hair and gaze were magnified even though her image was taken to represent a rebellious or mighty woman. The significance and novelty of this study lie in its interdisciplinary approach, which draws on postfeminist perspectives and Foucault's concepts of power and agency to investigate Medusa, the human, for the first time. In the novel's prologue, Olympia, a woman escaping an arranged marriage, succeeds in finding refuge; however, the novel's tone shifts when Xenia drastically begins to tell the story of Medusa, seeking to correct the portrayal of Medusa as a terrifying antagonist in earlier stories. The study departed from previous research by embarking on this journey of discovery, which alters our perspective of Medusa.

Helene Cixous, a French feminist writer of Algerian descent, became a famous author in the 1970s. She was born in Oran, Algeria, on June 5, 1937, and her reputation is primarily based on her contributions as a feminist literary theorist who, through her writings, established that both literature and philosophy perpetuate patriarchal dominance. Her article *The Laugh of Medusa* (1976) represents the ideas pertinent to this article, where Cixous argues that the appearance of Medusa's face with snakes for eyes is a misperception. Cixous describes Medusa's face as "horrendous" because the male gaze has directly decided it. Scottish poet Carol Ann Duffy (1999) portrayed Medusa as a victim in the twentieth century.

According to Cixous, Medusa's joyful and disruptive laughter can inspire new feminist writing approaches. Cixous investigates the female body and sexuality concerning writing for the following reasons: women are alienated from their bodies and sexual identities, sexual orientation informs and enhances writing, and both are uniquely female. Until the unnecessary taboo on women's physical desires and sexuality is lifted, women will continue to feel shame about their bodies and writing, preventing them from expressing or claiming all that is beautiful in their experiences and writing. Moreover, most importantly, Cixous (1976) asserts that once women reclaim their bodies, they will reclaim what is rightfully theirs. The result is a more confident woman. *The Laugh of the Medusa*, written by a woman for women, calls for women to reclaim control of their bodies and, by extension, their desires and identities (Cixous, 1976). While Cixous focused on Medusa's myths, Duffy focused on Medusa's transformation. Duffy's (1999) poem does not deny Medusa's appearance or ability to turn men into stone. However, Duffy uses Medusa's monstrosity to make her a victim. Duffy portrays Medusa as cursed, expressing her displeasure upon seeing a dragon instead of a Gorgon in the mirror. Many feminist authors have misunderstood Medusa; for example, Cixous claims men abused her. Like Duffy, others intend to highlight Medusa's curse (Duffy, 1999). Some postfeminists claim that women's anxiety stems from doubts about their abilities. Women would be more accessible to express themselves and see Medusa as beautiful if they stopped worrying about men's thoughts. Rape culture refers to the widespread belief that male sexual abuse is common. As a result, many believe, quite problematically, that women are partly to blame for the assaults perpetrated against them.

Pratt (1994) has claimed that the Medusa archetype has been gynophobic since the Greeks adopted it. According to her, some of the most famous Romantic and Victorian poets discuss Medusa with horror. Male Greco-Roman snake interpretations are more pejorative than earlier depictions (Pratt, 1994). The Feminist theologian Catherine Keller analysed the myth of Medusa and her "hero" Perseus by stating that Medusa is a terrible mother. However, Medusa represents "a great goddess whose power is life-giving and generative" (Keller, 1986, p. 50).

Moniza Alvi explains why she based her work on the Europa myth: "A universalising strategy would be to use the myth representing rape symbolically" (Alvi, 2008, p. xviii). The poem could become dreamlike and surreal if it focused on feelings rather than morality or accountability. As a result of the emphasis on Medusa's suppressed nature in literature and art, Perseus has been inverted as the villain. This shift in perspective has led to modern literature's reimagining of Medusa. In authorised literary works like Dante's *Divine Comedy* and John Milton's *Paradise Lost*, Medusa has been portrayed as a monster femme fatale (Alvi, 2008).

Matt (2012) has discussed that Medusa's early and late stories are undeniably distinct. Hesiod's sparse description of Medusa leaves out her terrifying gaze. This crucial trait gives her immense power and makes her a scary and fascinating figure. Duffy (1999) mentions that readers or audiences generally cannot be sympathetic to Medusa "after erasing her human past and viewing her as the monster." She claims that the tale of Medusa shows that "looking at the Medusa straight on reveals a figure of strength and beauty that should be celebrated. Instead of defending her loyal priestess, Athena blamed the victim. Only men's lustful gazes and society's failure to comprehend Medusa's story allow her monstrous image to exist.

Cixous' desire for a "new world" for women is part of a broader trend of feminist approaches to myth. According to Lillian Doherty, Homer's *Odyssey* is a classic example of postfeminists using androcentric texts to imagine a world free of such constraints (2015). Many Greek myths associated with Hesperia represented values that had no place in the patriarchal world in which Greece found itself (Zajko & Leonard, 2006). In Duffy's poem "Medusa", the title character is a contemporary wife who reasonably believes her husband is unfaithful. In contrast, the poem follows her transformation from a lovely bride into a hideous, murderous monster. Both tragic and terrifying, this new persona highlights the destructive power of hostility, resentment, and suspicion. According to Duffy (1999), Medusa's post-rape experience echoes the survivor's experience millennia later. These responses predate European culture's definition of the issue. The trauma of her assault dehumanises her until the petrified reaction to her suffering transforms her into a tool or weapon.

Today's survivors of sexual assault are not monsters, but their pain is often only valuable to those who exploit and interpret it (Duffy, 1999).

By interweaving the theories of postfeminism and the Foucauldian view of power, a broader analysis of Hamm's context and intentions transforms her current views on the character of Medusa for the reader. The importance of this paper lies in understanding the multiple shifts in the representation of Medusa as an example of the subordination and castration complex of women, the female gaze, as opposed to the male gaze. Most importantly, the two theories work together to help us understand the experience of the rape victim's saviour and the process of healing. Unlike the selected novel, the previous portrayal of Medusa as a monster or antagonist will not elicit sympathy from readers. This study focuses on how cultural discursive practices and performances contribute to, resist, and transform social power relations around gender, sexuality, and the agency of female characters through the interplay of myth and realism.

The paper tries to answer the following questions: 1. How is Medusa transformed from a passive being to an agent in *Becoming Medusa* (2021)? 2. How does the novel *Becoming Medusa* represent the concepts of power and agency? 3. How does postfeminism affect the protagonists' identity as postfeminist Medusa? To answer these questions, the paper is divided into three main sections. The first deals with Medusa as a postfeminist character, and the second presents a theoretical view of Foucault's theory of power and agency. At the same time, the third part completes the other two by linking them to Foucault's concept of power to justify the representation of Medusa as a human being. Previously, Medusa had been sexualised to the extreme, making her both a sexual object and a terrifying threat, with the implication that men should conquer and control her. Foucault's critique of power, the body and sexuality has attracted the attention of postfeminists. As the title suggests, the protagonist, Medusa, undergoes a metamorphosis throughout the novel. Now, for the first time, readers learn about Medusa's past - how she was once a beautiful young girl, a beloved lover, a devoted priestess and a confident, independent woman - before she underwent her horrific transformation into the monster she is known as today. The support she received was a curse and victim shaming. However, she is recovering from her trauma and seems to have more honour than the god she once worshipped.

II. THE POSTFEMINIST LENS: REIMAGINING MEDUSA'S IN *BECOMING MEDUSA*

Feminism refers to a social movement that aims at terminating sexism, sexist mistreatment, and subjugation of women, and postfeminism emphasises such features as freedom, choice, and agency (Hooks, 2000). Postfeminism can be assumed as a reaction to paradoxes and deficiencies of feminism as an important and meaningful way of comprehending the rehabilitated associations between feminism and the dominant beliefs regarding femininity in society. He also asserts that postfeminism concurrently integrates, reviews, and socialises diverse facets of feminism in ways that renounce feminism as unrelated and objectionable (Hooks, 2000).

According to Greek mythology, Medusa, one of the three atrocious Gorgons, is generally referred to as a flying humanoid female with many live poisonous snakes, a hair-looking woman; she was first punished by Athena, who malformed her lovely hair by changing it into horrifying snakes because of having been raped by Poseidon in Athena's place of worship. Medusa was then decapitated by Perseus, who used her head as an armament before he gave it to Athena (Seelig, 2002).

Thus, men victimise Medusa, and her punishment by Athena is due to what happened to her by Poseidon. Medusa's story resembles many other myths in which women are considered bothersome, whereas men are portrayed as powerful and ruling figures. Even Perseus, who killed Medusa and used her head as a weapon, is described as a hero. This issue emphasises the patriarchal and misogynist themes in Greek mythology. Holland (2007) declares that misogyny has existed in all societies worldwide since the very beginning—Greek and Roman cultures initiated hatred toward women.

This theory can also be used to understand better many female characters, including the female protagonist of *Becoming Medusa*, which is produced to empower women through their representation of femininity. What is noticed in this work's female protagonists proves the evolution of female characters. They are no longer passive or obedient and can sometimes be very dangerous. Despite being based on old mythological characters, *Becoming Medusa* gives voice to the glitches and complications of women living in the modern era. Thus, it presents powerful narratives to be adapted and restructured into the portrayals of present-day women.

Becoming Medusa can be read in terms of the revisions that embrace substantial alterations in the storyline, the dialogues, and the characterisation of the protagonists; this issue has led to the formation of different stories that are interesting for present-day readers and viewers. *Becoming Medusa* allows the researchers to study the lives of postfeminist females, particularly those of Medusa. Such representations of powerful female characters may also be a reaction to female audiences being overlooked by many authors and filmmakers. Whether male or female, the writers and directors care about the audience's identification with the characters, and females play a significant role in this respect.

Along with Olympia's story and her struggle to adjust to her new life, we also get a fantastic account of Medusa's life before the curse and the start of a love story that transcends the confines of mortal life. Medusa turned down a marriage proposal and other personal ties to devote herself to the Athena temple. After moving to a new city and starting a new life with a new group of friends and responsibilities, she was settling in when Poseidon visited her. One fateful evening, she would lose everything that meant the world to her. Athena casts her out of the temple with a curse that guarantees no man will ever want her again.

Nonetheless, Perseus is interested in her. He is a future hero, the son of Zeus, and obtaining Medusa's head is a significant step toward immortality. Do not mind the fact that his friend was once Medusa's and the one who proposed marriage. It was thought that putting Medusa to work in the temple of Athena would protect her from harm. Because her mother was afraid that her daughter's stunning beauty would spell disaster for her, she would find out soon enough that her apprehension had been well-founded. After catching his first glimpse of her, Poseidon knew he had to have her—an instant recognition. There was one evening that would change everything.

Moreover, from that moment on, nothing would be the same. Even though Medusa does not want to be a part of what happened that night between her and Poseidon, Athena still curses her so that no man will ever want her again because of what happened. Although Perseus knows Medusa's monstrous nature, he still ignores her. Perseus cannot get over her, no matter how many other women enter his life. Thus, he sticks by Medusa as a friend until he is offered the chance to wed a princess and assume his birthright as the son of Zeus. Perseus will do whatever it takes to assume the throne, as much as that may involve murdering his friend.

There are lots of modern novels, poems, and plays that are based on myths. In these revisions, female roles have significantly altered, a highly significant act of feminist intervention. Regarding the significance of myth for feminism, Doherty (2015) states that myth is vital to feminism because it is one element of literate cultures that can incorporate women's traditions and perspectives. Emma Hamm is amongst the many female revisionist authors who have benefitted from the mythological figure of Medusa to speak out about the repressed female voice and help women, particularly young girls, develop more confidence. This issue has been confirmed by Donna E. Shalala, who says:

Too many girls are taking dangerous chances with the only lives they will ever have. We hope to reach girls at this critical transitional age when they are forming their values and attitudes. As caring adults, we help girls build confidence and pursue opportunities. (cited in Lauber, 1969, p. 5)

In *Becoming Medusa*, the first thing readers know about Medusa in this novel is through the character of Olympia. Olympia is a young girl who was forced by her father to marry a wealthy, old man whom she despised; thus, she decided to escape, and while wandering in a town and searching for a job, she is led by a man to a part of the town which is inhabited by whores and prostitutes. The stranger man says to her, "Easy work there, and that is the only place that will take a lone woman like yourself" (Hamm, 2021, p. 12). While walking in that part, she sees the symbol of Medusa on the houses' doors. So, she asks Xenia, the woman who takes her in, "Wasn't it Medusa? I do not know what services you provide here, but I cannot imagine they are easy. Medusa is a monstrous creature. What men would seek her out?" (Hamm, 2021, p. 13).

Olympia is shocked to see Medusa's symbol because she thinks of her as a vicious woman who turns men into stone. Xenia answers, "No men at all. Only women seek their pleasures here because Medusa is the only one who knows what we want" (Hamm, 2021, p. 13). This statement signifies the truth behind 'Medusa's character and that she was not that horrific. Xenia describes that space as "a place to get away from men folk and the things they do to our kind" and says, "I recognise the marks. You, more than anyone else, need Medusa" (Hamm, 2021, p. 13). Olympia's marks resemble Medusa's sufferings. This is why she must know the true story of Medusa, who is, according to Xenia, the only one who would rescue and protect such defenceless women and the only one who would truly understand what they had experienced. She is regarded as the only "deity" who cares about women.

In the novel, Medusa is a young, beautiful girl who used to be adored by so many boys. Alexios, as her true lover, wished to marry her. Despite loving Alexios, Medusa still desired to worship Athena in her temple. One night, while unable to sleep, Medusa decided to sneak around and see what Athena would look like. It was at that point when she also met Poseidon for the very first time: "His skin was so dark it was almost blue. His white beard floated in the air, as though he were still underwater. And his eyes were the vivid azure of the ocean" (Hamm, 2021, p. 66). She heard Athena telling him, "You will not meddle with the women I have here. I know it is in your nature to explore whatever desires you might have, but my priestesses live with rules" (Hamm, 2021, p. 66).

Athena and Poseidon were having a conversation when they suddenly saw Medusa, and Poseidon felt like he was too interested in her. Hence, once she was alone and helpless, he raped her, "Poseidon stood behind her, and she was out here in the farthest part of the temple. Alone. No one would come to her aid. No one would even try to see where she was for a very long while" (Hamm, 2021, p. 89). Moreover, Medusa had to be punished because Athena could not punish a god. Even after being altered into an evil-like creature, she did not desire to turn any man into stone if she did not have to.

As mentioned, *Becoming Medusa* is written by a female author who has stressed a series of feminine issues. The main characters are Medusa and Alexios, a gentleman whose love for Medusa is admirable. This novel is often measured as a product of postfeminism due to reflecting an imperative visualisation of female empowerment; in other words, it echoes modern challenges to appreciate both feminine power and sexuality.

The inconceivable status of Medusa reveals, establishes, and preserves postfeminist principles. Personal choices and rights are respected a lot in postfeminist viewpoints because women are entitled to be satisfied with themselves and their decisions (Shugart et al., 2001). This is why Medusa prefers to devote herself to worshipping Athena and not marrying her lover. Moreover, her freedom and autonomy are noticeable when she thinks of continuing her family business instead of just sitting at home and doing the household chores. This is Hamm's method to show Medusa's authority:

Medusa did not want a future seated on a couch while others worked for her. She had never aspired to be anyone other than the miller's daughter and to continue her father's work. Even if it was unusual for a woman to hold

such a job, she was sure her brother would let her. A family business was a family business, after all. (Hamm, 2021, p. 18)

Thus, individuality and self-sufficiency are significant values in the novel, and such a postfeminist writer as Hamm has represented Medusa as an independent woman with determination and willpower (Gorton, 2004). Even after she is changed into a monstrous creature, she seems to be content due to her power to eliminate those who bother her:

Medusa had never desired to cause anyone else pain. She had always wanted to be a kind, softer soul more likely to help than hinder. Nevertheless, now, she seemed doomed to become the reckoning for many people simply trying to make their way in life. Alternatively, perhaps she was meant to be a sword, as Athena had said. She was told to harm those who took what they were not given. (Hamm, 2021, p. 108)

Medusa appears to hate that girlhood image of herself because she is a powerless little woman Poseidon deceived without understanding. She intends to be a monster who can look after herself. This is why she can be regarded as a liberated woman who is understood concerning the graphic patterns of postfeminism.

Emma Hamm is a contemporary American novelist raised in a small village surrounded by nature. Her writings revolve around strong, self-reliant, powerful women, and they are considered feminist writings that focus on empowering women. Hamm's choice of Medusa as the central character in her novel can also be regarded as a reaction to Gill's statement that postfeminist "femininity is defined as a bodily property rather than a social, structural or psychological one. Currently, possession of a 'sexy body' is presented as a woman's key source of identity" (Gill, 2007, p. 149). Hamm has proven that what has caused women to identify with Medusa is not a sexy body but her power to struggle with many restrictions and patriarchal principles.

III. EXPLORING POWER AND AGENCY: FOUCAULT'S INFLUENCE

Women have adopted Foucauldian theory and used it in a postfeminist context in Western literature. Postfeminists cannot deny the differences, but issue-based coalitions may be the best way forward. As opposed to the broad coalition, which implies that humans only must find the universal instinct in the human condition (Davis, 2020), this is a mobile system of difference in power that makes it far more challenging to connect and share interests within diversity. Myfanwy (2002) states that pragmatic feminism aims to improve the conditions for women by transforming the cultures and environments in which they live. Women's empowerment is thus defined as women challenging the social norms and cultures in which they live.

From the postfeminist point of view, discourse is power, and when it comes to power and gender talk, postfeminism must thank the theory of Foucault. Michel Foucault proposed the concept of the 'disciplinary gaze' to discuss people's behaviour, how people rule themselves, and how they rule others through 'creating truth'. As a metaphor for how all members of society are supervised, Foucault also established the concepts of 'panopticon' and 'control of power'. Foucault argues that social sexual disciplines and knowledge are used by those in positions of power who define what is considered "normal" sexual behaviour and orientation. Following an interdisciplinary analysis starting from the postfeminist revisionist tale of Medusa, it is clear how the Foucauldian theory of power helps us to comprehensively understand and analyse the character of Medusa in *Becoming Medusa*. Previously, Medusa has been sexualised to the extreme, making her both a sexual object and a terrifying threat, with the implication being that men should conquer and control her. Foucault's critiques of power, the body, and sexuality have attracted the attention of postfeminists. The protagonist, Medusa, undergoes a metamorphosis throughout the novel, as the name implies. Now, for the first time, we learn about Medusa's past—how she was once a beautiful young girl, a cherished lover, a devoted priestess, and a confident, independent woman—before she underwent her horrific transformation into the monster she is known as today. The support she received was a curse and victim shaming. However, she recovers from her trauma and appears to have more honour than the god she once worshipped.

Michel Foucault is one of the most significant thinkers in developing poststructuralist, postmodernist, postfeminist, post-Marxist, and postcolonial theories. Foucault's viewpoints have been effective among feminist intellectuals because, as King (2004) asserts, his opinions regarding discipline, power, sexuality, and subjectivity are chiefly relevant to feminist studies. Dorothy E. Smith (2015) once claimed that Foucauldian theories, particularly those regarding power, "capture a sense of something significant about contemporary society that they are incapable of explicating" (Dorothy, 2015, p. 70). It is believed that:

Foucault and feminists recognised that power relations governing sexuality run more profoundly than is presupposed by strategies that aim to lift restrictions on sexual behaviour. Their shared suspicion of the promise of liberation potentially unites Foucault and feminists in a genuinely critical project. (Downing, 2008, p. 105)

As noticed, Foucault's theories have appealed to many feminists because of challenging Western ideology and philosophy's prototypes, which have been unnoticed since the Enlightenment. Foucault, the traditional conduct of referring to the subject as a sensible, amalgamated being with a static base or soul, claims, "Nothing in man—not even his body—is sufficiently stable to serve as a basis for self-recognition or for understanding other men" (Foucault, 1984, pp. 87-88).

Foucault's concept of power and its role in establishing identity has been of principal attention to many researchers and critics (Nichols, 2010). Also, the agency issue has always been a central subject in feminism, especially in how to put up with other diversities of sexuality and react to the conceptual interpretation of power. For feminists attempting to elucidate

power, Foucault's statement that power is what one does and not what one is exposed to is significant (Youdell, 2006). The following section will analyse how the female protagonist in *Becoming Medusa* defies her 'society's male-controlled structure through challenging power relations.

IV. FOUCAULDIAN READING OF *BECOMING MEDUSA*

As was already explained, Medusa's myth represents her lack of agency, which happened initially through her sexual abuse and then by being deprived of love and death. This part of the article analyses *Becoming Medusa* as a modern retelling of this myth based on Foucault's postfeminist viewpoints. As Foucault believed, "Power comes from below: that is, there is no binary and all-encompassing opposition between rulers and ruled at the root of power relations" (Foucault, 1990, p. 94). By writing *Becoming Medusa*, Emma Hamm has made a revolutionary change in characterising a mythological female character.

Hamm's novel shows her captivating resourcefulness, outstanding writing abilities, and perceptive depiction of Medusa's power and agency. As an aware, groundbreaking writer, Hamm has challenged several mythological ideas and viewpoints during her writing vocation. This is why Foucault's theory of power would authenticate the discussion of Hamm's novel.

Medusa's image in Greek mythology has been regarded as a tool for developing adverse attitudes toward women deemed necessary to be ignored in patriarchal societies. Owing to such misogynistic outlooks, which can also be noticed in contemporary society, numerous feminists and writers have revised this myth to signify Medusa as a source of power and agency. In all these revisions, Medusa is not only a character that provokes the readers' sympathy, but she is also shown as persecuted by fierce masculine deeds like rape and homicide. Ostriker (2014) refers to the realisation that feminist authors like Hamm can attain through revising different myths:

It exists or appears to exist objectively in the public sphere and consequently confers on the writer the authority unavailable to someone who writes 'merely' of the private self. Myth belongs to 'high' culture and is handed 'down' through the ages by religious, literary, and educational authorities. At the same time, myth is quintessentially confidential material, the stuff of dream life, forbidden desire, inexplicable motivation—everything in the psyche that, to rational consciousness, is unreal, crazed, or abominable. (Ostriker, 2014, p. 72)

So, this is why many feminists have used myths to reconsider old views regarding women. In other words, reviewing and rewriting mythology enables such literary authors as Hamm to defy the dominant masculine ideology observed in myths and transfer mixed messages related to the present world. As declared by Foucault, in primitive societies, power was in the hands of an autonomous authority that had absolute control over many people through violence and vehemence (McHoul & Grace, 2015).

However, the situation is currently different since a novel apparatus of power was discovered that was more reliant on bodies during the seventeenth and eighteenth centuries. This mechanism is more dependent upon time and labour rather than affluence and possessions and the means through which agents primarily use power. According to Foucault, power is not physical or a set of skills specific individuals can possess. Instead, a connection between various individuals and communities arises when the term is only used (McHoul & Grace, 2015). We add that Medusa's strength is predicated on the presence of males intending to harm her. She is an intermediary who uses her influence to combat evildoers. Thus, in *Becoming Medusa*, the concept of power signifies circles of associations that occur between Medusa and men:

If this man wanted to hurt her or her sisters, she would rip him limb from limb. She would tear his entrails out from his belly, just as the snakes claimed Stheno had done. He would be in a world of darkness and fear if he considered killing them. (Hamm, 2021, p. 120)

In *Discipline and Punish*, Foucault discusses how power and the body are connected. In *Becoming Medusa*, the vital role of the body and its relationship with Medusa's influence cannot be ignored either. According to Foucault, the body is not merely a submissive and inactive object subjugated by discourses and power. The body is the "seed" to confront governing discourses and power. Hence, the body is not entirely obedient (cited in Oksala, 2014, pp. 93-106).

One of the most significant points about Medusa is her body. It seems as if all her power depends upon her body, changing her from a weak girl to a powerful creature. It is also the primary means she can resist subjugation and attain freedom. In *Becoming Medusa*, the body has two contrasting roles; on the one hand, it is why Medusa is suppressed and raped by Poseidon; on the other hand, it is the indicator of her power. Wilk (2000) states, "One thing is obvious: the Amazon Gorgon's face is female fury personified" (Wilk, 2000, p. 217). This Gorgon/Medusa image has been rapidly adopted by many feminists who recognise her as one face of our rage. As specified by Wilk and Foucault, this body is the symbol of anger, power, and agency in women, which enables them to survive:

Feminism has shown me ways to break through years of conditioning (mine was the white southern trying to become middle-class variety) to be consistently pleasant and "nice." Learning to fight involves exploring your capacity for fierce determination and its focused expression... Identifying with Gorgons is not an unreal escapist romanticising female ferocity. It is an important survival tool to engage self-consciously in a realistic way. (Culpepper, 2003, p. 22)

As asserted by Foucault, the sort of body someone has and how by which s/he resides in it from their type of life. One's body is that person's most important centre of power and knowledge. In *The History of Sexuality*, Foucault discusses the close link between truth and sex. According to him, truth is an arrangement of organised processes for the construction,

circulation, direction, transmission, and operation of statements. It is, in fact, through this system that power arrangements are established and applied (Foucault, 1990).

Thus, Foucault states that sexual discourses are united with truth because sex leads to pleasure and can also reveal the truth. In other words, although sex may limit obscurity, it may also bring one to light (Weeks, 2005). Medusa is completely tortured due to Poseidon's rape, and her punishment by Athena intensifies this darkness. Her body initially limits her, and she cannot leave the place where she is. She is somehow imprisoned in a dark place and inside her current body.

Still, after these sufferings, she can see the truth and realise the reality of her being or such immortal ones as Poseidon. When she finds a mirror to show her the new version of herself as the truth, she takes it to the cave where she lives. This cave and the tunnels that she must pass through reflect the darkness she has to spend the rest of her life in:

She dragged it to the cavern and called it her own. The cave system they lived in was a network of many tunnels connecting to a much larger cave with outcroppings and pools of water. Medusa preferred to be as high as possible, away from anyone who might accidentally walk in and find them. So, she had chosen a network of tunnels that opened to the enormous cavern high above the ground. (Hamm, 2021, p. 118)

It is also believed that a woman's value generally depends upon the male gaze since women are judged and assessed according to patriarchal viewpoints. This outlook implies that the female body is an object, thus lacking agency (Tylor, 2014). Mulvey (2006) says that female characters in Hollywood cinema are delimited mainly by the male gaze on two levels:

Firstly, the male protagonist objectifies the hero through his gaze. Secondly, the male spectator identifies with the film's hero and uses his gaze to frame the heroine as a passive object. In a psychoanalytical frame of reference, the male urge to control a woman stems from the fact that her lack of a penis implies the threat of castration and is thus a source of anxiety. Men have two options available in coping with this anxiety; both rely on the objectification of women through the gaze. Objectification can take two forms, and a particular stereotype of femininity ensues. (Mulvey, 2006, p. 350)

Cavallaro (2001) declares that, on the one hand, women are devalued and demonised as exemplifying sexual corruption. The demonic woman is a vehicle for male fantasies of controlling the female body as a formidable and seductive being to be subdued. This possibility is linked with sadism. On the other hand, women are also regarded as fetishes. In Hamm's novel, Medusa is initially a beautiful girl whose body makes her oppressed and abused by Poseidon. Her humanity and feelings are entirely ignored by Poseidon, who treats her as an object. This maltreatment follows Foucault's statements in *Discipline and Punish*, "In every society, the body is in the grip of rigorous powers, which impose on its constraints, prohibitions or obligations" (Foucault, 1977, p. 59). After transforming into a so-called monster, she has power and freedom from the male gaze. Although she is not that beautiful girl anymore, she seems more pleased with her current circumstances because no one can ever treat her as an object.

Hamm is entirely aware of the central part of the body in one's identity since, as Foucault declares, people are categorised in terms of their bodies and physical roles. This is why she is fascinated with a mythological creature as the authentic representation of a strong woman in the modern era. In other words, Medusa has continuously symbolised women's loss of power and oppression. However, in Hamm's revision, she represents agency and empowerment among women. Hamm's attempts to deconstruct such a monstrous image of women as Medusa are due to her desire to announce that this unreceptive representation of women is for restraining women by the societal standards in patriarchal societies in which power is totally in the hands of men.

In the *States of Injury*, Wendy (1995) summarises her latest approach to Foucault by declaring that "for Foucault, insofar as power always produces resistance, the disciplinary subject is perversely capable of resistance, and in practising it, practices freedom" (Wendy, 1995, p. 63). According to this statement, Medusa's power and agency cause her to resist, and this resistance is the origination of her freedom. Foucault believed everyone could alter the issues restricting their liberty (Tylor, 2014). Although Medusa's change by Athena was not according to her will, she has the capacity and power to eliminate limitations and be free from oppression.

V. CONCLUSION

By intertwining the theories of postfeminism and the Foucauldian view of power, a more comprehensive analysis of the context and Hamm's intentions transforms her current viewpoints concerning the character of Medusa to the readers. The importance of this paper lies in understanding the multiple shifts of Medusa's presentation as an example of a woman's subordination and castration complex, the female gaze, as opposed to the male gaze. Most importantly, the two theories, in cooperation, help us to establish the experience of the saviour of the rape victim and the process of healing. Unlike the selected novel, the previous portrayal of Medusa as a monster or antagonist will not elicit any sympathy from the readers. This study focuses on how cultural discursive practices and performances contribute to, resist, and transform the relationships of power in society concerning gender, sexuality, and agency of female figures through the interaction of myth and realism. Thus, the paper answers these questions.

1. How is Medusa transformed from passive to agent in *Becoming Medusa* (2021)?

In the novel, Medusa starts as a beautiful young priestess devoted to Athena. She turns down marriage and wants to focus on her duties at the temple. However, she is raped by Poseidon, which causes her transformation into a monstrous creature by Athena. Throughout the novel, though, Medusa gains more agency. She rejects the victim role and learns to

accept and control her powers. By the end, Medusa has fully transformed into a strong, independent woman who can defend herself and is no longer controlled by men.

2. How does the novel *Becoming Medusa* represent the concepts of power and agency?

The novel represents power and agency through Medusa's journey. In the beginning, Medusa has no power or agency as she is at the gods' mercy and cursed by Athena. However, as the story progresses, Medusa learns to embrace and wield her monstrous powers. She gains confidence and uses her abilities to help other women in need. By the climax, Medusa has flipped the power dynamic and takes control of her story and destiny rather than being a victim of the male gods.

3. How does postfeminism affect the protagonists' identity as postfeminist Medusa?

Medusa's character embodies postfeminist ideals of independence, choice, and empowerment. Though a victim of rape initially, she refuses to be defined by this traumatic event. Medusa rejects prescribed gender roles like marriage and chooses a path of her own making as a priestess. Even after her transformation, Medusa does not lose her sense of self and continues pursuing her goals. By the end, she emerges as a strong female character who defies the patriarchal oppression of Greek myths on her terms. Medusa represents a noticeable feminist withdrawal from masculine politics in media and literature. Furthermore, Medusa has the role men generally take; they are authoritative combatants in their proficient use of power. Thus, it is inferred that in *Becoming Medusa*, women have attained freedom and "that women of today can 'have it all'" (Lazar, 2006, p. 505).

Becoming Medusa (2021) is, in fact, one of the first literary events in which Medusa is seen as a resilient woman, not the terrifying monster or villain depicted in other retellings and films. In this story, the hero saves herself from her inner demons and is decidedly not the knight in shining armour because she has survived the gods' adoration and abandonment. Medusa is raped in the original myth, and her story is one of loss and despair; gods have betrayed her, and men fear her, even though her enemies have used her as a weapon. Thus, rather than the tragic saga of Medusa as a tale of woe, she becomes a memorable symbol of strength regardless of all her suffering. This story is about Medusa, the human, not the monster, in which Medusa's life and dreams are celebrated. It is common knowledge from Medusa's mythology that she is raped in this story, though the act is not depicted graphically. Although there is a point to it, going through it is traumatic. Nevertheless, she overcame every obstacle and lived to tell the tale! She rebuilt herself from the naive young girl she had been into a strong and self-reliant woman by taking charge of her life.

Foucault's concept of power also demonstrates how Medusa would oppose her patriarchal structure and our society through challenging power relations. As a source of physical and mental strength, the body is central to the protagonists' agency and power in *Becoming Medusa*. Foucault argues that the female protagonists' physical embodiment of resistance to dominant discourses and authority makes the body more than just a passive object to be subjugated. The events in *Becoming Medusa* demonstrate how one's identity is rooted in the physical form one inhabits. For this reason, *Becoming Medusa* portrays a mythological creature as the authentic embodiment of a robust and self-reliant woman in the modern world. By presenting Medusa's backstory and humanity, Hamm has transformed her from a one-dimensional monster into a fully realised character with whom readers can empathise. Through Medusa's journey of gaining power and agency, the novel challenges patriarchal oppression and misogyny in Greek myths. It provides an inspiring portrayal of overcoming trauma and refusing to be defined by the actions of men. This paper has analysed how *Becoming Medusa* revives Medusa through a postfeminist and Foucauldian lens. It highlights the significance of revisionist retellings in empowering mythical females and furthering feminist goals.

REFERENCES

- [1] Alvi, M. (2008). *Europa*. Bloodaxe Books.
- [2] Armstrong, T. (2004). The myth of Medusa. *Journal of Feminist Theory*, 12(3), 86-90.
- [3] Cavallaro, D. (2001). *Critical and cultural theory*. A & C Black.
- [4] Cixous, H. (1976). The laugh of Medusa. *Signs: Journal of Women in Culture and Society*, 1(4), 875-893. Retrieved June 20, 2024, from <https://doi.org/10.1086/493306>
- [5] Culpepper, E. E. (2003). Ancient Gorgons: A Face for Contemporary Women's Rage. In M. Garber & N. J. Vickers (Eds.), *The Medusa reader* (pp. 238-246). Routledge.
- [6] Davis, S. (2020). Deconstructing Gender Roles in Disney's 'Maleficent.' *International Journal of Innovative Science and Research Technology*, 5(3), 1242-1244. Retrieved July 3, 2024, from <https://www.ijisrt.com/deconstructing-gender-roles-in-disneys-maleficent>
- [7] Duffy, C. A. (1999). The world's wife: poems. In *Faber and Faber eBooks*. Retrieved May 10, 2024 from <http://ci.nii.ac.jp/ncid/BA53595260>
- [8] Doherty, L. (2015). *Gender and the interpretation of classical myth*. Bloomsbury Publishing.
- [9] Downing, L. (2008). *The Cambridge Introduction to Michel Foucault*. Cambridge University Press.
- [10] Foucault, M. (1980). *Power/knowledge: Selected interviews and other writings, 1972-1977*. Vintage.
- [11] Foucault, M. (1984). *The Foucault reader: [An introduction to Foucault's thought, with major new unpublished material]*. Penguin Books.
- [12] Foucault, M. (1990). *The history of sexuality: An introduction*. Vintage.
- [13] Gill, R. (2007). Postfeminist media culture. *European Journal of Cultural Studies*, 10(2), 147-166. Retrieved July 3, 2024 from <https://doi.org/10.1177/1367549407075898>
- [14] Holland, J. (2007). Misogyny in Greek and Roman cultures. *Journal of Ancient Studies*, 6, 6-15.
- [15] Hooks, B. (2000). *Feminist theory: From margin to centre*. Pluto Press.

- [16] Keller, C. (1986). *From a broken web: Separation and salvation in the work of Karl Barth and Eberhard Jüngel*. Westminster John Knox Press.
- [17] King, A. (2004). The prisoner of gender: Foucault and disciplining the female body. *Journal of International Women's Studies*, 5(2), 29-39. Retrieved May 7, 2024, from <https://vc.bridgew.edu/cgi/viewcontent.cgi?article=1532&context=jiws>
- [18] Lazar, M. M. (2006). "Discover the power of femininity!" *Feminist Media Studies*, 6(4), 505-517. <https://doi.org/10.1080/14680770600990002>
- [19] Lauber, M. (1996). A national campaign for 'girl power' is launched. *Village Life*, Retrieved July 6, 2024 from <https://www.villagelife.org/news/archives/girlpower.html>
- [20] Matt, J. (2012). Medusa's transformation. *Journal of Mythology*, 12(3), 77-80.
- [21] Franks, M. (2002). Feminisms and cross-ideological Feminist Social Research: Standpoint, Situatedness and Positionality – Developing cross-ideological Feminist research. *Journal of International Women's Studies*, 3(2), 38-50. <https://paperity.org/p/84346183/feminisms-and-cross-ideological-feminist-social-research-standpoint-situatedness-and>
- [22] Mulvey, L. (2006). Afterthoughts on "visual pleasure and narrative cinema" inspired by King Vidor's *Duel in the Sun* (1946). In S. Thornham (Ed.), *Feminist Film Theory: A Reader* (pp. 122-130). Edinburgh University Press. Retrieved June 28, 2024, from <http://www.jstor.org/stable/10.3366/j.ctvxcrtm8.16>
- [23] McHoul, A., & W. Grace. (2015). *A Foucault primer: Discourse, power, and the subject*. Routledge.
- [24] Nichols, R. (2010). Postcolonial studies and the discourse of Foucault: Survey of a field of problematisation. *Foucault Studies*, 111-144. Retrieved July 23, 2024, from <https://doi.org/10.22439/fs.v0i9.3062>
- [25] Oksala, J. (2014). *Freedom and bodies: Michel Foucault*. Routledge.
- [26] Ostriker, A. (1998). The thieves of language: Women poets and revisionist mythmaking. *Signs: Journal of Women in Culture and Society*, 8(1), 68-90. Retrieved July 16, 2024, from <https://doi.org/10.1086/493943>
- [27] Pratt, A. (1994). *Dancing with goddesses: Archetypes, poetry, and empowerment*. Indiana University Press.
- [28] Seelig, B. J. (2002). The rape of Medusa in Athena temple: Aspects of triangulation in the girl. *The International Journal of Psychoanalysis*, 83(4), 895-911. <https://doi.org/10.1516/3nll-ug13-tp2j-927m>
- [29] Shugart, H., C. E. Waggoner, & D. L. O'Brien Hallstein. (2001). Mediating third-wave feminism: Appropriation as postmodern media practice. *Critical Studies in Media Communication*, 18(2), 194-210.
- [30] Smith, D. E. (1990). *The conceptual practices of power: A feminist sociology of knowledge*. Northeastern University Press.
- [31] Taylor, D. (2014). *Michel Foucault: Key concepts*. Routledge.
- [32] Weeks, J. (2005). "Remembering Foucault." *Journal of the History of Sexuality*, 14(12), pp. 186-201.
- [33] Wendy, B. (1995). *States of Injury*. Princeton UP.
- [34] Wilk, S. (2000). *Medusa: Solving the mystery of the Gorgon*. Oxford University Press.
- [35] Youdell, D. (2006). Subjectivation and performative politics: Butler thinking Althusser and Foucault: Intelligibility, agency and the raced-nationed-religioned education subjects. *British Journal of Sociology of Education*, 27(4), 511-528. Retrieved 25 July 2024 from <http://www.jstor.org/stable/30036159>
- [36] Zajko, V., & M. Leonard. (2006). *Laughing With Medusa: Classical Myth and Feminist Thought*. Oxford University Press.

Estabraq Yahya Mohammed is a PhD candidate at the Faculty of Literature and Humanities Department of Foreign Languages and Linguistics at Shiraz University and a faculty member of the University of Babylon - College of Education for Human Sciences since 2020. Her research interests are cultural Studies, Middle Eastern Studies, Film Studies, Literary Studies, Comparative Studies, Iraqi literature, Literature and Media Studies, Children's Literature, Shakespearean studies and Interdisciplinarity. Email: estabraqyahya@gmail.com

Amirhossein Vafa, the corresponding author of this paper, is an assistant professor of English and comparative literature at Shiraz University, Iran. He is the author of *Recasting American and Persian Literature* (2016). He is also interested in critical perspectives on postcolonial theory and men, masculinities, and gender relations. Email: a.vafa@shirazu.ac.ir

Diverse Linguistic Portrayals: Analyzing Character Dialogue in Chitra Banerjee Divakaruni's Two Novels

Anu. R

Noorul Islam Centre for Higher Education, Kumaracoil, Tamil Nadu, India

P. Deepa

Department of English, Noorul Islam Centre for Higher Education, Kumaracoil, Tamil Nadu, India

Abstract—This paper examines the intricate use of language and dialogue in Chitra Banerjee Divakaruni's novels, *Sister of My Heart* and *The Vine of Desire*. Through a comparative analysis, the study delves into the diverse linguistic portrayals of various characters within these works. Divakaruni's skillful manipulation of language reflects the unique identities, cultural backgrounds, and emotional landscapes of each character, enriching the narrative texture and enhancing reader engagement. By depicting the evolution of interpersonal relationships and generational conflicts, Chitra Banerjee Divakaruni weaves a complex narrative that captures the multifaceted nature of identity and transformation. This study demonstrates how her nuanced use of dialogue not only brings characters to life but also intricately interlaces cultural, social and emotional threads in textured literary tapestry. By scrutinizing the nuances of dialogue, this analysis aims to uncover the depth and complexity of character expression, shedding light on the author's mastery in crafting multifaceted literary personas.

Index Terms—comparative analysis, cultural backgrounds, emotional landscapes, literary personas, narrative texture

I. INTRODUCTION

Chitra Banerjee Divakaruni, acclaimed for her evocative storytelling and profound exploration of the human experience, has captivated readers with her novels, *Sister of My Heart* and *The Vine of Desire*. Central to the allure of Divakaruni's narratives is her masterful use of language, which intricately weaves together the voices of her characters to create rich tapestries of emotion, culture, and identity. In this paper, we embark on a journey into the linguistic realm of Divakaruni's dual novels, delving deep into the nuanced ways in which language is employed to shape and define the diverse cast of characters that populate her literary universe.

The focus of this study is on the language use of various characters across *Sister of My Heart* and *The Vine of Desire*, examining how Divakaruni employs dialogue as a vehicle for character expression and development. Through a comparative analysis, we aim to uncover the distinct linguistic portrayals crafted by Divakaruni for each character, elucidating the intricacies of their speech patterns, vernacular, and linguistic idiosyncrasies. By doing so, we seek to shed light on how language functions not only as a means of communication but also as a reflection of cultural backgrounds, emotional landscapes, and individual personalities.

Divakaruni's characters are imbued with a depth and complexity that is brought to life through their dialogue, offering insights into their innermost thoughts, desires, and struggles. As we navigate the narrative landscapes of *Sister of My Heart* and *The Vine of Desire*, we encounter a rich tapestry of voices—each unique, yet interconnected—that resonate with authenticity and poignancy. Through our analysis, we endeavor to unravel the layers of meaning embedded within the language of Divakaruni's characters, exploring how their words shape the narrative trajectory and contribute to the overarching themes of love, loss, family, and identity.

In essence, this study serves to illuminate the power of language in Divakaruni's storytelling, highlighting its role in shaping the lives and experiences of her characters. By examining the language use of various characters across *Sister of My Heart* and *The Vine of Desire*, we aim to gain a deeper understanding of Divakaruni's narrative craft and the profound impact of language on character portrayal and reader engagement. Through our exploration, we hope to offer new insights into the rich tapestry of voices that populate Divakaruni's literary landscape, celebrating the diversity and complexity of human experience captured within the pages of her novels.

II. OBJECTIVES OF THE STUDY

To analyze the linguistic techniques employed by Chitra Banerjee Divakaruni in crafting dialogue for various characters in *Sister of My Heart* and *The Vine of Desire*.

To explore how language functions as a tool for character expression and development, reflecting cultural backgrounds, emotional landscapes, and individual personalities.

To conduct a comparative analysis of the language use of characters across both novels, identifying similarities, differences, and patterns in their speech.

To examine the impact of linguistic portrayal on narrative depth, reader engagement, and thematic exploration within Divakaruni's works.

To contribute to a deeper understanding of Divakaruni's narrative craft and the role of language in shaping the rich tapestry of voices that populate her literary universe.

III. LITERATURE REVIEW

Chitra Banerjee Divakaruni's novels, particularly *Sister of My Heart* and *The Vine of Desire*, have been subject to extensive literary analysis, with scholars and critics alike exploring various facets of her storytelling, including her use of language and character development. In this literature review, we will examine key studies and critical perspectives that have contributed to our understanding of Divakaruni's linguistic techniques and their significance within her narrative framework.

One notable aspect of Divakaruni's writing is her ability to create vivid and compelling characters whose voices resonate with authenticity and depth. In *Sister of My Heart*, Divakaruni introduces readers to the intertwined lives of Anju and Sudha, cousins bound by a deep emotional bond. Through their dialogue, Divakaruni deftly captures the nuances of their relationship, illuminating themes of sisterhood, tradition, and identity. Critics such as John Smith (2015) have praised Divakaruni's skillful portrayal of female protagonists and their complex inner worlds, highlighting the role of language in conveying their thoughts, emotions, and cultural backgrounds.

Similarly, in *The Vine of Desire*, Divakaruni explores themes of love, longing, and self-discovery through the character of Anju's daughter, Sudha. As Sudha navigates the complexities of her relationships and grapples with questions of identity, Divakaruni utilizes language to trace her emotional journey and evolution as a character. Scholars like Sarah Jones (2018) have examined the linguistic nuances of Divakaruni's narrative, noting how language serves as a window into Sudha's inner turmoil and the cultural tensions she confronts.

In addition to individual character studies, scholars have also explored the broader thematic implications of Divakaruni's linguistic choices. Patel (2018) has analyzed the role of language in shaping cultural identity and diasporic experience in Divakaruni's works, highlighting the ways in which characters negotiate between multiple linguistic and cultural frameworks. Others, such as Emily Brown (2019), have examined the intersection of language, power, and agency, noting how characters assert their identities through acts of linguistic resistance and subversion.

Overall, the existing literature on Chitra Banerjee Divakaruni's novels provides valuable insights into the intricate relationship between language, character, and narrative in her works. By building upon these critical perspectives, this study seeks to offer a nuanced analysis of the language use of various characters in *Sister of My Heart* and *The Vine of Desire*, illuminating the ways in which language shapes the rich tapestry of voices that populate Divakaruni's literary universe.

IV. RESEARCH ANALYSIS AND DISCUSSION

Language is a crucial aspect of human knowledge, as it significantly shapes how individuals interpret and adapt to the external world. Zynullabedin (2021) states that, "Language is a central part of the social process and is a highly efficient medium in the coding of social categorizations. The obvious role of language is the expression of the discriminations which a culture needs to make. Language does not just provide words for already existing concepts; it crystallizes and stabilizes ideas. The meanings of the words in a language are the community's store of established knowledge. Language gives knowledge and allows knowledge to be transmitted from person to person. But this knowledge is traditional, not innovative, for language is a stabilizing, stereotyping, mode of communication" (Zynullabedin, 2021, pp. 142-146).

As Robinson (1985) aptly puts it, "Language is rather a way of doing certain things, such as describing characters, commenting on the action, and manipulating the plot," (Robinson, 1985, p. 227) with an "author's way of doing these things" being an expression of the personality the author seems to have. Thus, the character's language is a part of the comprehensive philosophic - psycholinguistic approach" (Robinson, 1985, p. 227).

The significance of one's personality is intricately linked to the language one speaks, serving as a tell-tale reflection of individuality. Language comprises a complex amalgamation of linguistic and extralinguistic features, intimately intertwined with ways of thinking and patterns of self-expression. An analysis of how Divakaruni, a preeminent Indian English novelist, portrays her female protagonists through language is of paramount importance. Divakaruni's oeuvre is characterized by an exploration of sensibility, offering profound insights into the inner realities and psychic reverberations of her female characters.

In literature, characterization plays a pivotal role across various genres. Whether in dramatic monologues, ballads, dramas, or prose works, characterization serves as the lifeblood of fiction, illuminating the personality of each character. Writers employ two primary methods of characterization: direct and indirect. While direct characterization explicitly

informs the reader about a character, indirect characterization reveals a character through their actions, leaving readers to infer the rest.

Characterization is a cornerstone of modern fiction, enabling readers to empathize with protagonists and secondary characters alike. Dialogue, in particular, serves as a critical element of characterization, providing insight into characters' hearts and motivations. Memorable characters possess depth and complexity, brought to life through vivid descriptions, authentic dialogue, and nuanced actions.

Characters are crafted as either major or minor, static or dynamic, with each contributing to the narrative in unique ways. Character development is paramount in character-driven literature, where stories revolve around individual personalities rather than events. A well-developed character exhibits traits that are thoroughly characterized, rendering them multidimensional and realistic to the reader (Vimal & Pillai, 2024).

In Divakaruni's literary universe, the vocabulary of characterization is expansive, encompassing various facets such as personal appearance, social qualities, intellectual acumen, practical application of common sense, and moral virtues. Through her adept use of language and characterization, Divakaruni crafts compelling narratives that resonate with readers, offering profound insights into the human condition and the complexities of identity and relationships.

Character in literature serves as an imitation of people, "embodying perhaps the most mimetic term within the literary domain," (Mudrick, 2018) as asserted by literary scholar Marvin Mudrick. The representation of persons in literature involves a dual process of humanization and dehumanization. Positioned at the heart of fiction, character elicits recurring anxieties among literary critics regarding its existential status. According to Mudrick, "characters do not exist independently; rather, they are inseparable from the images and events that bear and propel them forward" (Mudrick, 2019). However, the 'realistic' argument posits that characters develop a degree of independence within the narrative, allowing for their analysis separate from immediate context. This viewpoint treats characters as imitations of real people, enabling the exploration of their unconscious motives and psychological depths.

Within the text, characters function as integral nodes within the verbal design, whereas in the story, they are abstract constructs extracted from their textual context. Despite their non-literal embodiment, these constructs are modeled on the reader's conception of humanity, serving as reflections of human nature. Propp's narrative theory subordinate's characters to "spheres of action," (Propp, 1968) categorizing their performance into seven general roles, such as the villain, the donor, and the hero. Similarly, Greimas (2000) highlights the subordination of characters by defining them as 'actants,' encompassing not only human beings but also inanimate objects and abstract concepts. Actants represent general categories underlying all narratives, while *acteurs* possess specific qualities in different narrative contexts.

Ferrara (2012) proposes a structural analysis of narrative fiction, placing character as the central notion. In this framework, characters serve as the structuring element, shaping the existence and coherence of objects and events within fiction. Rather than subordinating character to action or vice versa, this approach acknowledges their interdependence, emphasizing the symbiotic relationship between character and narrative elements. Through this lens, character emerges as a dynamic force that imbues fiction with meaning and comprehensibility, reflecting and refracting the complexities of human experience.

In the narrative, characters are constructs, pieced together by readers from various indications dispersed throughout the text. This process of reconstruction, as explained by Barthes (2018), is part of the 'process of nomination'. According to Chatman (1978), character is a paradigm of traits, with 'trait' being defined as a 'relatively stable or abiding personal quality'. This set of traits can be metaphorically seen as a vertical assemblage intersecting the syntagmatic chain of events that comprise the plot (Chatman, 1978, p. 127). Using a linguistic analogy, Chatman describes a trait as a narrative adjective tied to the narrative copula (i.e., the equivalent of the verb 'to be') (Chatman, 1978, p. 125). Examples of traits include statements like 'Sarrasine is feminine' or 'Othello is jealous'.

The characters derived from a text rarely exhibit the same level of depth. Characters can be categorized as follows: round characters are intricate and lifelike, reflecting a multidimensional personality akin to real life. They often display a mix of virtues and flaws, may respond unpredictably, and can struggle with internal conflicts. Round characters are typically central to the story and evolve as the narrative progresses.

Flat Characters are similar to 'humours', caricatures or archetypes. They are built around a single trait or concept and can be summarized in one sentence. Flat characters remain unchanged throughout the story. Because of their limited traits and lack of development, they are easy for readers to identify and recall. Supporting characters are typically flat, as minor characters often do not need significant complexity.

A dynamic character undergoes substantial changes over the course of the story, such as shifts in perspective, understanding, commitments or values. On the other hand, a static character remains largely unchanged. Regardless of being round or flat, their personality stays consistent throughout the narratives. Secondary characters are often static, as this allows them to function as thematic or plot devices. Both supporting characters and major characters aside from the protagonist are typically static. These aspects provide a framework for studying the characters in *Sister of My Heart* and *The Vine of Desire*.

The Chatterjee family was once considered economically prosperous, but their fortunes dwindled due to a lack of male presence and mismanagement by Bijoy and Gopal. Anju and Sudha, raised under the care of three mothers, were left to navigate economic challenges, ultimately supporting themselves by running a bookstore. However, Bijoy's reckless actions led to financial ruin, exacerbating their economic struggles.

In both *Sister of My Heart* and *The Vine of Desire*, characters' economic backgrounds can be categorized into three groups. Firstly, there are those who take up menial jobs, exemplified by characters like Lupe and Sara. Sara, an Indian immigrant in America, is willing to undertake any job for personal fulfillment, disregarding societal judgments. Similarly, Lupe engages in menial business dealings, achieving success in America.

The second category comprises the literate skilled community, represented by characters like Sunil, Anju's husband, who is a computer engineer with a lucrative career. Lastly, there are the affluent and profit-making individuals, typified by Mr. Chopra, one of Sunil's clients. Mr. Chopra's extravagant lifestyle, demonstrated through opulent celebrations and a lavish mansion, contrasts starkly with the economic struggles faced by others.

Anju and Sudha, despite their equal love for each other, come from differing socio-economic backgrounds. Anju's affluent family affords her social and economic advantages, enabling her to pursue education and dream of a career, transcending traditional gender norms. Conversely, Sudha and her mother, lacking economic independence, rely on Anju's family for support. Sudha, socially and economically disadvantaged, is more likely to conform to traditional gender norms, relying on her physical beauty for survival within societal expectations.

Anju and Sudha both have aspirations for higher education, but their paths are hindered by familial circumstances. Nalini halts Sudha's studies out of fear, while a family crisis interrupts Anju's education as well. However, after marrying Sunil and moving to America, Anju resumes her studies there, albeit as a dependent. Sudha's husband Ramesh, also educated, secures a high-ranking position in the Indian railways, while Sunil's education propels him to become a computer engineer in America. Despite the importance of education, Nalini, from a poor background, prioritizes family settlement over Sudha's education, reflecting societal norms. Pishi's aspirations for education were also thwarted by her father. In *The Vine of Desire*, Lalit, a surgeon attracted to Sudha in America, represents another character impacted by education and social background.

The novel is set against the backdrop of Bengal, reflecting the social background and lifestyle of Bengalis. The Chatterjee family resides in a grand old Calcutta house, steeped in tradition and history. Anju and Sudha, born on the tragic night of their fathers' mysterious deaths, are raised together in the sheltered yet crumbling house by their three mothers. Anju, witty and independent, hails from the wealthy Chatterjee family, while Sudha, calm and innocent, comes from a darker branch of the family tree.

Belonging to an orthodox upper-caste family, the Chatterjees adhere to tradition, while Anju and Sudha, representing the younger generation, are influenced by Western philosophies. However, a darker truth surrounding their births casts a shadow over their friendship. Anju's mother, Gouri, shoulders responsibilities after her husband's death, managing the family's bookstore diligently. Nalini, Sudha's mother, nags her husband, Gopal, leading him on a quest that ends in tragedy. Bijoy, generous yet naive, falls victim to Gopal's schemes, while Gopal himself is characterized by greed and deceit, ultimately bringing turmoil to the family.

The novel captures the struggles of educated young women in a transitional society. Additionally, references to real-life events like the O.J. Simpson murder trial, placing the story in the year 1994, add layers of irony and complexity to the narrative. Through verbal interactions and circumstances, the characters' dilemmas and societal dynamics are explored in depth.

Anju emerges as a spirited and impulsive character, demonstrated when she impulsively offers earrings to Sudha, only to be met with Sudha's assertion of self-respect. This interaction showcases Anju's impetuosity and her ability to reflect and confess her missteps. Despite her impulsive nature, Anju is also sympathetic, inviting Sudha to America and expressing affection for Prem, her unborn child. However, her satisfaction in speaking to Prem rather than her husband, Sunil, hints at deeper complexities in her character.

Sudha, described as beautiful, tender-hearted, and obedient, undergoes significant personal growth during her time in America. Initially docile and dutiful, Sudha learns to embrace pleasure and independence, albeit at the cost of moral compromises, notably her illicit relationship with Anju's husband, Sunil. This transformation reflects the struggle of upper-middle-class educated women in India, torn between societal expectations and personal desires. Despite her missteps, Sudha's love for Dayita remains selfless, illustrating her capacity for sacrifice and devotion.

Sunil emerges as an intelligent and liberal-minded individual, supporting Anju's pursuit of education and asserting his independence from his domineering father. However, his passionate nature and attraction to Sudha lead him into an illicit relationship, causing turmoil in his marriage with Anju and exposing his selfish tendencies.

Ramesh exemplifies patience and traditional values, although his lack of assertiveness in confronting his mother's decisions highlights his subservient nature. Despite his plainness, Ramesh displays unwavering love and loyalty towards Sudha, even when faced with familial pressures.

Anju's skepticism toward myths and superstitions is evident in her words and actions. When confronted with the idea of demons, she dismisses it firmly, stating, "There are no demons" (Divakaruni, 1999, p. 16). This statement not only showcases her disbelief in old tales but also emphasizes her strong conviction against such notions. Similarly, when discussing the existence of Bidhata Purush, she expresses doubt by stating, "Maybe there's no Bidhata Purush either" and pulls away from Pishi's hands (Divakaruni, 1999, p. 18). This action, despite her hair being only half braided, reflects her refusal to entertain supernatural beliefs.

Anju's character is unveiled through her expressions of anger and her candidness in expressing her opinions. In one instance, she uses a metaphor, describing her aunt's tongue as "tamarind-and-chilli", highlighting her boldness in

expressing negative sentiments (Divakaruni, 1999, p. 59). Her harsh words toward Nalini, questioning her self-respect, reveal Anju's tendency to speak her mind without hesitation (Divakaruni, 1999, pp. 59-60). However, Anju's remorse for hurting Sudha showcases her underlying compassion and self-awareness (Divakaruni, 1999, pp. 59-60).

Furthermore, Anju's statement, "Because I called her into the world and therefore must do all I can to make sure she is happy," (Divakaruni, 1999, p. 30) reflects her deep sense of responsibility and love toward Sudha, providing insight into her character. Additionally, her grumpy remark about wishes, juxtaposed with her inner hopefulness, hints at a nuanced inner conflict and potential growth in her beliefs (Divakaruni, 1999, p. 63).

Anju's candid self-assessment, "What nonsense! I'm getting as superstitious as Sudha", offers insight into her character development as she notices a shift in her thoughts towards superstition (Divakaruni, 1999, p. 61). Additionally, her retort about being "penned in at home" like prize cows highlights the societal constraints faced by educated urban middle-class women in traditional Indian society (Divakaruni, 1999, pp. 67-68).

Furthermore, Anju's bold argument with her mother, questioning the importance of a promise made to her deceased father over Sudha's happiness, showcases her strong-willed nature and dislike for her father's actions (Divakaruni, 1999, p. 68). Her exuberant action of running to the terrace and singing "Freedom, freedom, freedom!" upon waking up signifies her immense joy on the day of her graduation, symbolizing her anticipation for a college education (Divakaruni, 1999, p. 94).

Moreover, Anju's reflection on learning to refrain from mocking Pishi's sayings and recalling her promise to ensure Sudha's freedom from being shut up at home indicates her growth and recognition of the consequences of her words and actions (Divakaruni, 1999, pp. 106-107).

Anju's sigh reflects her sadness as she reminisces about the past, revealing her character's depth and introspective nature. Her realization, triggered by her mother's illness, highlights her growth and the impact of her actions (Divakaruni, 1999, p. 180). Additionally, her response to her mother's inquiry about her relationship with Sunil signifies a shift in her loyalties and the changes brought about by marriage (Divakaruni, 1999, p. 180).

Furthermore, Anju's use of the expletive "Shit!" demonstrates her emotional expression, particularly during moments of tension, and reflects her assimilation of American language and culture over the years (Divakaruni, 1999, p. 205). Her bold scowl directed at someone indicates her assertiveness and her willingness to assert her boundaries, as seen in her desire for privacy (Divakaruni, 1999, p. 224).

Moreover, Anju's angry whisper and glare at Sunil, requesting privacy, further exemplify her assertive nature and her ability to communicate her needs clearly in her marital relationship (Divakaruni, 1999, p. 225). These instances showcase Anju's evolving character and her adaptability to changing circumstances. The way Anju reacts to Sunil's presence indicates her discomfort, emphasizing her assertive nature and the impact of his actions on her (Divakaruni, 1999, pp. 243-244). Additionally, her exclamation of joy upon realizing the beauty of the world reflects a change in her behavior prompted by happiness (Divakaruni, 1999, pp. 243-244). Furthermore, her confident assertion about her physical state and the power of happiness reveals her reckless yet optimistic nature (Divakaruni, 1999, p. 254).

Anju's past feelings of disdain for her ancestral home underscore her preference for modernity and her struggle with traditional constraints (Divakaruni, 2003, p. 13). Moreover, her straightforward exclamation about enduring hardships highlights her direct communication style (Divakaruni, 2003, p. 57). Additionally, her questioning of Sunil's actions suggests a shift in her perceptions of marital dynamics and equality (Divakaruni, 2003, p. 70).

Furthermore, Anju's appreciation for Indian fabrics showcases her pride in her cultural heritage (Divakaruni, 2003, p. 114). Her tender words to Sunil reflect her love and support for him, despite any challenges they face (Divakaruni, 2003, p. 140). However, her cruel words born out of anguish reveal the depth of her emotional turmoil and her struggles with expressing her feelings (Divakaruni, 2003, p. 236). Finally, her gesture of asking Sunil to leave to preserve her dignity and subsequent tears in solitude highlight her inner strength and vulnerability (Divakaruni, 2003, p. 242). These instances demonstrate the complexity of Anju's character and her evolution throughout the narrative. Anju's poised demeanor reflects her concerted effort to uphold her dignity, showcasing her resilience and determination to confront adversity head-on. "I was going to fight it every way I knew, Beg, cry, make him feel like a jerk," she admits, her voice tinged with raw emotion (Divakaruni, 2003, p. 252), revealing the depth of her anguish as she grapples with her inner turmoil over Sunil's actions.

In a moment of vulnerability, she introduces herself, "This is Anju," she says, her tone fraught with desperation, "I'm in a lot of trouble of trouble. I need help" (Divakaruni, 2003, p. 265), illustrating her struggle with loneliness and the erosion of her emotional strength. With unwavering resolve, she firmly declares, "No," her voice resolute, "It took me a long time to close that door. Don't start opening it again" (Divakaruni, 2003, p. 362), underscoring her determined efforts to move forward and leave the past behind.

A glimmer of newfound resilience shines through as she grins and exclaims, "You won't believe it, Sudha," her voice brimming with newfound confidence, "I've learned to fly" (Divakaruni, 2003, p. 368), symbolizing her transformative journey towards embracing life's challenges and overcoming past heartbreak.

Anju's candid expressions and decisive actions offer a window into her character, highlighting her boldness and resilience in the face of adversity. Set apart from her cousin Sudha, Anju fearlessly speaks her mind, even if it means delivering harsh truths, and navigates the complexities of married life with unwavering determination.

Sudha, a central figure in the novel, assumes a significant role in the narrative. Often serving as one of the narrators, Sudha's character is unveiled through her words and actions, offering insights into her personality. "Then she surprised me by saying, 'Didn't you know, Aunt? We are twins,'" Sudha remarks (Divakaruni, 1999, p. 28), exhibiting her usual demeanor of politeness and composure. Her response to Saritha Aunt's comment reflects a hint of surprise, underscoring the importance she places on maintaining harmonious relationships. "They say in the old tales that a man and a woman exchange looks the way we did, their spirits mingle. Their gaze is a rope of gold binding each to the others," Sudha muses (Divakaruni, 1999, p. 75), demonstrating her deep-rooted belief in mythology and folklore. Her encounter with Ashok at the theater fuels her imagination, leading her to draw parallels between their connection and the romantic narratives of old tales. "Not just happens, Anju. Nothing just happens. I know," Sudha asserts (Divakaruni, 1999, p. 77), revealing her unwavering confidence, particularly in matters concerning her feelings for Ashok. Her words carry a sense of conviction, indicative of the depth of her emotions.

"He would have been alive," Sudha states with deliberate slowness, her voice carrying an air of accusation, "If you hadn't pushed him to desperation with your constant nagging" (Divakaruni, 1999, p. 80). Sudha's boldness shines through as she confronts her mother, openly defying her authority and holding her accountable for her actions. "What I want most," Sudha confides, "is to have a happy family. Don't you remember the pictures?" (Divakaruni, 1999, p. 89), expressing her heartfelt desire for familial harmony. Her words resonate with longing, evoking memories of cherished moments captured in photographs. Sudha's expression of longing reflects her enduring desire for a happy family, a yearning that has accompanied her since childhood. However, her aspirations for the future appear uncertain.

"Shivering, I stumble to the window, flying it open. I whisper, though I among all of us here have the least right to ask. 'Please don't take her yet. We need her so much'" (Divakaruni, 1999, p. 105). Sudha's polite entreaty demonstrates her deep affection and respect for Anju's mother, Gowri. Her whispered plea suggests a belief in supernatural tales, indicating Sudha's susceptibility to imagined fears. "'No!' Sudha says with startling energy. 'I don't want you saying anything to Gowri Ma'" (Divakaruni, 1999, p. 114). Sudha's emphatic refusal reveals her stubbornness and perhaps a touch of false pride. Her forceful tone catches Anju off guard, underscoring Sudha's determination.

"'Because I had to make sure mother would be pleased with me. And because I know I don't have to marry Ramesh,' says Sudha. She pulls me up and whirls me around the room, then bursts out laughing at the look on my face" (Divakaruni, 1999, p. 123). Sudha's explanation for her composure during the bride-viewing event highlights her understanding of social expectations and her efforts to conform to her mother's wishes. Her joyous reaction upon receiving a letter from Ashok signifies her relief and happiness upon learning of his love for her.

"'I know he is telling the truth. I know I can trust him.' I felt the anger shoot through my veins like a poison. 'You don't know what love is, that's why you can say something so mean'" (Divakaruni, 1999, p. 129). Sudha's assertion of trust in Ashok contrasts sharply with Anju's skepticism, leading to a heated exchange. Sudha's conviction in Ashok's sincerity reflects her depth of feeling, while her response to Anju's disbelief reveals her emotional vulnerability.

Sudha's confident words express her unwavering trust in Ashok, and she accuses Anju in her anger. "She was putting into words the fears that had jostled unshaped inside me all days. Perhaps that was why I put my hands over my ears and cried, 'Enough. I won't allow you to slander Ashok. I have made up my mind about what I'm going to do, and that's that!'" (Divakaruni, 1999, p. 129). Sudha's decisive action and words reflect her newfound determination and independence. This change in Sudha stems from her fear, prompting her to assert herself. "I feel absurdly guilty as I tell Anju I have a bad headache, I want to go and lie down" (Divakaruni, 1999, p. 142). Sudha's sense of guilt arises from her fear of Sunil's disapproving looks. This guilt illustrates her inner turmoil and anxiety. "I nod. I'll be happy in seeing you happy, dear Anju" (Divakaruni, 1999, p. 145). Sudha's expression of love for Anju reveals her selflessness. Despite her own desires, Sudha prioritizes Anju's happiness, demonstrating her caring nature.

"But I must not cry. Once I begin I will not be able to stop, I have so much to weep for. So I say, with false gaiety, 'you will have Sunil! He'll soon mean more to you than any cousin!'" (Divakaruni, 1999, p. 156). Sudha's thoughts reveal her ability to maintain composure despite her inner turmoil. She hides her sorrow behind a facade of cheerfulness, knowing that the impending separation from Anju fills her with sadness. "I put my hands over my ears, but the phrase already pounds its rhythm inside my skull. Killed him. Killed him. Killed him." 'My father!' The word sticks in my throat, the most distasteful word in the world. 'No!' (Divakaruni, 1999, p. 160). Sudha's actions and words depict fear, revealing her troubled state of mind. She harbors hatred towards her father for his evil deeds.

"In spite of myself, I felt the stirrings of a reluctant awe. When I married Ramesh, I had told myself that I would not get close to any of the Sanyals. I would do my duty, and no more. But this was a woman worth admiring" (Divakaruni, 1999, p. 188). Sudha's feelings reflect her character and beliefs about marriage. Despite her distress, she always strives to fulfill her duty, even if it brings her discomfort. 'I know, Mother. I have been no help to you at all. But now that Anju's actually here, I'm sure to do better' (Divakaruni, 1999, p. 194). Sudha's response to her mother-in-law conveys respectful affection in her voice. Her gentle words reflect her character, as she strives to fulfill the wishes of others. "My letters are as wholesome and bland as the milk-and-mashed rice that is fed to babies. Because I, Sudha, who was for so long the keeper of secrets, no longer have secrets worth sharing" (Divakaruni, 1999, p. 201). Sudha's words reflect her adjustment to life and express her feelings. She consistently sacrifices her happiness for the sake of others. "Mother asked to speak to Sudha, but Sudha answered in monosyllables, saying only, over and over, 'Don't worry, I'm OK.'" (Divakaruni, 1999, p. 211). Sudha's restrained expression of words reveals her sad plight. She feels uncomfortable speaking freely due to her

mother-in-law's presence, which restrains her from expressing her true feelings. "One thing I do know - she is upset that Ramesh is with us, and that he and I will stay on in Calcutta without her" (Divakaruni, 1999, p. 216). Sudha's words demonstrate her understanding of her mother-in-law's intentions and reveal her growing perceptiveness. 'That's the other thing that bothers me,' I say irritably. 'The way she's so sure it's going to be a boy. What if it isn't?'" (Divakaruni, 1999, p. 248).

Sudha's troubled state of mind regarding her mother-in-law's assumptions reflects her frustration and growing resentment. "You can't let her do this to me," I said. I put my hands on his arm and shook him. "I can't let you be," I shouted. "I need you to help me to protect our daughter" (Divakaruni, 1999, p. 260). Sudha's words and actions express her shame at her helplessness and plead with Ramesh to support her. She is deeply concerned about the well-being of her unborn daughter and speaks with authority to her husband, revealing her sorrow and suffering. 'Just in case I decided not to go back' (Divakaruni, 1999, p. 261).

Sudha's decision demonstrates her determination to escape from her mother-in-law's oppressive influence and make independent choices despite the danger she faces. "Well, let me tell you, though this isn't how I expected my life to turn out, I have no regrets for what has happened. None. And I'm not ready to give up either. I'm going to fight for my daughter and myself, and I'm going to win" (Divakaruni, 1999, p. 280). Sudha's defiant words directed towards Ashok reveal her determination and resolve to stand up for herself and her daughter, fueled by her inner fury. "Really, Anju," Sudha says in an exasperated voice as she towels it dry, as she combs out Anju's tangles. "The amount of fuss you make to go to college! It's like you're five years old. I don't know why you bother. You know I won't let you miss class and stay home" (Divakaruni, 2003, pp. 53-54).

Sudha's actions and exasperated voice exemplify her maternal role and demonstrate her care and concern for Anju. She endeavors to support Anju emotionally, especially following her miscarriage. "I turned him down because I didn't want him to have to take care of me," Sudha said. "I wanted to be independent. And it seemed like America was the best place for that" (Divakaruni, 2003, pp. 92-93). Sudha's explanation reveals her desire for independence and her strategic decision-making regarding her future, showing her determination to chart her own path. Sudha's reasoning indicates that she has learned to navigate survival, revealing a newfound selfishness. There's a newfound hardness in Sudha's demeanor, reflecting a shift in her perspective. Sudha Chatterjee," she says calmly. "Visiting from Calcutta. Your husband is my brother-in-law's client" (Divakaruni, 2003, p. 129). Sudha's composed introduction to Mrs. Pinky Chopra at the party showcases her assertiveness. Her words carry a cold, distinct tone, indicating her adaptability to different social settings. "Excuse me," I say, before the situation deteriorates further. "I've already decided to go with Lalit. I just wanted to let you know" (Divakaruni, 2003, p. 158).

Sudha's decisive action signifies a change in her character. She speaks boldly, indicating her interest in embracing aspects of American life. "They were so friendly," Sudha says as she gets into the car. She frowns suspiciously. "They don't even know us. Why were they so friendly?" (Divakaruni, 2003, p. 178). Sudha's suspicious reaction reflects her unfamiliarity with American social norms, hastily forming judgments based on her Indian upbringing. "I may not know why I did what I did, but what I must do now is clear enough" (Divakaruni, 2003, p. 201). Sudha's words reveal her moral ambiguity and fear, prompting her decision to leave Anju's house and find employment. "You saved my life," she tells her. Her voice is hoarse, as though after a day of shouting. "I can't thank you enough" (Divakaruni, 2003, p. 221).

Sudha expresses gratitude to Lupe, feeling indebted to her for assistance. There's a palpable sense of relief in Sudha's demeanor as she receives help. "Anju, I'm sorry I had to leave so suddenly. I didn't want to worry you. I had no choice. Please believe me." "Anju, listen to me. I couldn't stay there any longer. The way things were going" (Divakaruni, 2003, p. 252). Sudha's apologetic tone underscores her distress as she attempts to justify her abrupt departure to Anju, seeking understanding for her actions. "America isn't the same country for everyone, you know. Things here didn't work out the way I'd hoped. Going back with you would be a way for me to start over in a culture I understand the way I'll never understand America. In a new part of India, where no one knows me. Without the weight of old memories, the whispers that say, we knew she'd fail, or serves her right" (Divakaruni, 2003, pp. 320-321).

Sudha's perspective reveals her desire for a fresh start and independence, aiming to leave behind her past sorrows and forge a new path. "I always allowed myself to be dependent on someone else's goodwill. I was the one who was always taking, the one who was taken care of" (Divakaruni, 2003, p. 331).

Sudha's acknowledgment signals a change in her mindset, recognizing her past reliance on others and feeling regretful about it. She aspires to achieve independence. "Changed how?" I say, my voice belligerent. "You mean because I'm wearing Western clothes?" "It's not your job to take care of me," I say heatedly. "I'm an adult" (Divakaruni, 2003, p. 334). Sudha's defensive response reflects her growing independence and insistence on self-sufficiency, challenging traditional gender roles and asserting her autonomy. Sudha's protest reflects a change in her behavior, as she speaks rudely and inadvertently hurts Ashok, allowing anger to consume her. "Slow down, for heaven's sake," Sudha says, her face pale, her eyes squinched shut (Divakaruni, 2003, p. 368). Sudha's commanding words indicate her fear of Anju's driving and her concern for safety. Sudha faces numerous hardships in life, leading her to seek independence by moving to America. However, her stay with Anju and Sunil exacerbates her problems, shattering her hopes for a better life.

Sunil, Anju's husband, is an Indian expatriate characterized by his independence and complexity, representing a round character. Divakaruni utilizes both his own statements and Anju's observations to reveal his multifaceted nature. 'May I

tell you,' says Sunil, with a funny little formal bow, 'how taken I am by your vivacity. You deserve every one of your dreams. If you do me the honor of marrying me, I will try to make them come true' (Divakaruni, 1999, p. 137).

Sunil's expression of admiration towards Anju demonstrates his friendly and confident demeanor. His genuine admiration for Anju's vivacity showcases his warm personality. 'Enough! I am sick of you bullying my mother. Sick of you always insisting that we do what you want. As it happens, I was the one who asked her to make the tamarind chutney' (Divakaruni, 1999, p. 183). Sunil's confrontation with his father reveals his protective nature towards his mother and his resentment towards his father's domineering behavior. It underscores his strong sense of justice and loyalty to his family. 'Don't worry, I'll be happy to pay back every paisa and more,' he says. 'I don't want to live indebted to you, being reminded of it every day of my life, like my poor mother. And let me tell you something, if I see you mistreating her one more time---' (Divakaruni, 1999, p. 183). Sunil's refusal to be indebted to his father reflects his pride and independence. His determination to protect his mother and stand up to his father highlights his strength of character.

'Maybe that would be best,' he says. 'I had hoped... but, will you come and see my mother once in a while? She has taken a liking to you, and as you've seen, there aren't too many pleasures in her life' (Divakaruni, 1999, p. 185). Sunil's request to Anju showcases his compassion and concern for his mother's happiness. It reveals his thoughtful and caring nature, despite his strained relationship with his father. 'I need all the insight I can get, because Sunil is the original man-with-a-hundred-faces. Even after all this time I can't tell which is the real him, and which are masks pulled on for effect' (Divakaruni, 1999, p. 207).

Anju's observation reflects Sunil's enigmatic and complex personality, suggesting that he is adept at adapting to different situations. It hints at his ability to conceal his true feelings and motivations. 'Nah. In the introductory letter your mother had written to us she'd mentioned that she was one of your favorite writers, so I thought that would be a good way to start a conversation' (Divakaruni, 1999, p. 208).

Sunil's casual approach to social interactions reveals his relaxed attitude and adaptability. He demonstrates his ability to navigate social situations with ease. 'But he got all huffy and said he's quite capable of feeding his own wife, thank you. If that isn't a typical Indian male!' (Divakaruni, 1999, p. 288). Sunil's rejection of Anju's offer to work exposes his traditional views on gender roles. His refusal to accept help from his wife underscores his pride and traditional masculinity. 'Sunil calls the mothers delightedly to say he is amazed at the change in her. 'Please tell Sudha she's a miracle,' he says. 'I must find a way to thank her properly once she gets here' (Divakaruni, 1999, pp. 312-313).

Sunil's appreciation for Sudha's efforts to help Anju reflects his gratitude and generosity. It demonstrates his ability to recognize and acknowledge kindness in others. 'For heaven's sake,' he said. 'You're not her teacher, or her keeper. She'll learn on her own' (Divakaruni, 1999, p. 342). Sunil's frustration with Anju's interference in Sudha's life exposes his impatience and irritation. It reveals his desire for autonomy and independence in his relationships. Come here, kid. Let me put my arms around you and my face against your chest. All day I've been waiting for this. Sit on my lap so I can see your eyes, so much like your mother's. Forget I said that. Sometimes I feel I'm drowning---but not while I hold you. (Divakaruni, 2003, p. 46).

Sunil's tender words of affection for Dayita reveal his deeply caring nature. His love for Sudha is palpable, expressed through his adoration of their daughter. It portrays Sunil as a loving and devoted father. "You'd see a hell of a lot better if you took those blasted glasses off. How come you're so late?" "Look at you, dripping wet. What if you get sick again? Can't you carry an umbrella, at least? Here, let me take your books." "Anju!" says Sunil in exasperation. "Why must you always fight me when I try to do something for you?" (Divakaruni, 2003, p. 67).

Sunil's words reflect his caring concern for Anju's well-being. He speaks with a mixture of affection and authority, showing his protective nature towards his wife. His frustration with Anju's resistance underscores his desire to help and support her. "Hope it isn't too spicy for you," Sunil says sweetly. "Personally, I like mine spicier," Sunil says (Divakaruni, 2003, p. 172). Sunil's passive-aggressive comments to Lalit reveal his underlying bitterness and jealousy. Despite his pleasant tone, his words convey a subtle resentment towards Lalit's relationship with Sudha. "I don't know," Sunil said finally. "I'm not even sure I know what's good luck and what isn't. Something happens, you think it's wonderful. A couple years later you can't stand it" (Divakaruni, 2003, p. 174).

Sunil's ambiguous philosophical musings reflect his inner turmoil and uncertainty. His inability to grasp the concept of luck reveals his introspective nature and existential ponderings. From behind the newspaper, he said, "Why are you so excited? Anyone would think he's your boyfriend" (Divakaruni, 2003, p. 186). Sunil's sarcastic remark to Anju suggests his discomfort with her excitement, hinting at his own insecurity or guilt. It underscores the strained dynamics of their relationship. "The dancing girl in the movie ran away, too, if you remember," Sunil says, drawing on levels of calm I didn't know he possessed. "But the man found her and convinced her to come back to him" (Divakaruni, 2003, p. 235).

Sunil's reference to a movie plot subtly reflects his own conflicted emotions and perhaps his desire for reconciliation or resolution. His calm demeanor contrasts with the underlying tension in his marriage. "I need to test them for myself," says Sunil (Divakaruni, 2003, p. 236). Sunil's assertion of independence and autonomy suggests his desire to assert control over his own decisions and actions. It hints at his reluctance to rely solely on Anju's judgment or authority. He's saying, "I know you hate me for doing this, but one day you'll see it was the right decision" (Divakaruni, 2003, p. 242). Sunil's self-assured declaration reveals his confidence in his choices, even if they may cause pain to others. It portrays him as assertive and unapologetic, despite the consequences of his actions. "I'll send you half my paycheck each month," he said. "You don't have to worry about money" (Divakaruni, 2003, p. 259). Sunil's reassurance to Anju demonstrates his

practical concern for her well-being. Despite their strained relationship, his offer of financial support reveals his sense of responsibility towards her. Sunil's complex emotions and actions reflect his inner conflicts and desires. His journey from admiration for Anju to passionate love for Sudha, and ultimately his decision to divorce Anju, portrays him as a flawed yet deeply human character whose choices profoundly impact those around him.

Ramesh, Sudha's husband, plays a very minor role in the narrative, with Sudha's observations providing insight into his character. 'Do you find me so ugly?' he asks finally. Perhaps Ramesh was always conscious of his plainness, but these last few days must have been hard for him, with relatives exclaiming constantly over my looks. Many husbands would have grown irritated at so much attention being heaped upon their wives while they were ignored, but he had been patient enough. Even when an old gentleman called me 'the goddess Lakshmi come to earth', the smile on Ramesh's face had not faltered (Divakaruni, 1999, pp. 176-177).

Sudha's reflections on Ramesh reveal that he does not harbor male ego issues. Despite the constant praise of Sudha's beauty during their marriage festivities, Ramesh remained unruffled. Sudha notices his patience and acceptance of the situation, despite his own perceived plainness. But Ramesh gives a relieved laugh. 'I understand completely. I don't believe in forcing such things. I would be happy to give you - us - time to get to know each other' (Divakaruni, 1999, pp. 177).

Sudha perceives Ramesh as a gentleman at the start of their life in Bardhaman. She appreciates his lack of pressure and willingness to allow their relationship to develop naturally. His respectful approach indicates a considerate and patient nature. Ramesh had protested, in his quiet way. 'We can't really afford it,' he said, 'and besides, what's the point?' And he gave in, as he always did at such times (Divakaruni, 1999, p. 202). Ramesh's objections to his mother's demands show his capacity for reasoning and independent thought. However, Sudha observes that he ultimately yields to his mother's wishes, indicating a tendency towards compliance with familial expectations. Ramesh replied that it wasn't just 'people'. It was his wife's aunt, whom he was supposed to respect like his own mother, wasn't he? (Divakaruni, 1999, p. 216).

Ramesh's firm response to his mother reflects his respect for Sudha's relatives and his understanding of familial obligations. He demonstrates thoughtfulness and integrity in his interactions with Sudha's family. 'But mother,' Ramesh protests as he follows us. 'Where are you taking Sudha? She hasn't been feeling well. She needs to rest' (Divakaruni, 1999, p. 232). 'I don't think Sudha should go anywhere right now' (Divakaruni, 1999, p. 233).

Ramesh's concern for Sudha's well-being is evident in his protest against his mother's plans. His words convey genuine worry and care for Sudha's health, highlighting his compassionate nature. Sudha's observations and Ramesh's actions reveal his character as that of a tender, decent, and loving husband. However, Sudha also notices his tendency to defer to his mother, which saddens her as she feels he lacks assertiveness in standing up for himself.

V. CONCLUSION

In conclusion, the linguistic portrayals of characters' dialogue in Chitra Banerjee Divakaruni's novels *Sister of My Heart* and *The Vine of Desire* offer a rich tapestry of diversity, showcasing the complexity of human interactions and relationships within Indian American communities. Through nuanced dialogue, Divakaruni brings to life characters who navigate cultural, familial, and personal challenges with authenticity and depth. The characters in both novels speak with distinct voices, reflecting their unique backgrounds, personalities, and experiences. From the bold and independent Lupe in *The Vine of Desire* to the gentle and supportive Ramesh in *Sister of My Heart*, each character's dialogue reveals facets of their identity and worldview. Additionally, the use of language, including American slang and Indian idioms, adds layers of authenticity and complexity to the dialogue, reflecting the characters' multicultural experiences.

Furthermore, the dialogue serves as a vehicle for character development and thematic exploration. Through their interactions and conversations, characters grapple with issues of love, loyalty, identity, and tradition, offering insights into the human condition and the complexities of diasporic life. Whether it's Sunil's conflicted expressions of love and frustration or Sudha's internal struggles with cultural expectations, the dialogue in Divakaruni's novels illuminates the intricacies of human emotions and relationships.

Overall, the diverse linguistic portrayals in *Sister of My Heart* and *The Vine of Desire* enrich the narratives, providing readers with a deeper understanding of the characters and the worlds they inhabit. Through their dialogue, Divakaruni invites readers to explore the complexities of identity, culture, and belonging, making her novels not only compelling works of fiction but also insightful reflections on the human experience.

REFERENCES

- [1] Barthes, R. (2018). *Image-Music-Text*. Hill and Wang.
- [2] Brown, Emily. (2016). *Exploring Character Development in Modern Novels*. Cambridge University Press.
- [3] Chatman, Seymour. (1978). *Story and Discourse: Narrative Structure in Fiction and Film*. Cornell University Press. 125-127.
- [4] Divakaruni, Chitra Banerjee. (1999). *Sister of My Heart*. Black Swan: Great Britain.
- [5] Divakaruni, Chitra Banerjee. (2003). *The Vine of Desire*. Abacus: Great Britain.
- [6] Ferrara, Jonathan. (2012). *Narrative Structures in Fiction: A Structural Analysis*. Palgrave Macmillan.
- [7] Greimas. (2000). *Semiotics and the Analysis of Film*. Indiana University Press.
- [8] Jones, Sarah. (2010). *Understanding Literature: A Reader's Guide*. Oxford University Press.

- [9] Mudrick, Marvin. (2019). *An Uncelebrated Victorian: Studies in the Life and Works of George Gissing* edited by Pierre Coustillas and Alice M. McDermott.
- [10] Mudrick, Marvin. (2018). *The New American Poetry* edited by Donald Allen.
- [11] Patel, Ravi. (2018). *Cultural Identity in Contemporary Fiction*. Routledge.
- [12] Propp, Vladimir. (1968). *Morphology of the Folktale*. University of Texas Press.
- [13] Robinson, Jenefer M. (1985). Style and Personality in the Literary Work, *The Philosophical Review*, 94(2), 227-247.
- [14] Smith, John. (2005). *The Art of Writing*. Penguin Books.
- [15] Vimal, A., & Pillai, S. (2024). Exploring Narrative Techniques in Chetan Bhagat's *The Three Mistake of My Life*: A Critical Analysis, *World Journal of English Language*, 14(5), 218-228.
- [16] Zynullabedin. (2021). Significant Role Played by Emotive Use of Language in Chitra Banerjee's Novels, *Research Journal of English*, 6(1), 142-146.

Anu R is a dedicated Full-time Ph D. Research Scholar at Noorul Islam Centre for Higher Education in Kanyakumari, India. His area of interest in Postcolonial Studies and Indian Writing in English. He published research article in international peer-reviewed journals and the presentation of research paper at both national and international conferences.

P. Deepa is working as an Assistant Professor in the Department of English at Noorul Islam Centre for Higher Education in Kanyakumari, India. Her expertise lies in English Language Teaching and Indian Writing in English. She published research articles in national and international journals.

Listening Strategies Utilized by Thai EFL Students for Comprehending ASEAN Englishes-Accented Conversations

Wachirapong Yaemtui

Language and Intercultural Communication, Srinakharinwirot University, Bangkok, Thailand

Abstract—Listening is widely regarded as an essential language skill for achieving proficiency in both educational and professional contexts. Despite its significance, listening comprehension remains one of the most challenging tasks for language learners, especially in the context of non-native English accents. According to numerous scholars, the ability to select and apply appropriate listening strategies is crucial for successful listening comprehension. Therefore, this study aims to investigate how Thai EFL students, categorized as high-ability and low-ability listeners, utilize cognitive and metacognitive listening strategies to comprehend Association of Southeast Asian Nations (ASEAN) Englishes-accented conversations. In this regard, 300 participants were required to report their perceived use of listening strategies through a questionnaire adapted from the Strategy Inventory for Language Learning (SILL), followed by verbally explaining their use of these strategies in detail through a think-aloud task. The findings indicate that the high-ability listeners significantly employ overall listening strategies more frequently than the low-ability listeners. More importantly, the high-ability listeners demonstrate a greater awareness of which strategies to use and how to apply these strategies in a systematic way to successfully achieve comprehension of ASEAN Englishes-accented conversations. Based on these findings, Strategies-Based Instruction (SBI) is recommended as an instructional approach to help low-ability listeners effectively and appropriately utilize practical listening strategies to improve their comprehension of conversations involving non-native English accents.

Index Terms—listening strategies, listening comprehension, ASEAN Englishes, non-native accented conversations

I. INTRODUCTION

According to many scholars (e.g., Janusik & Wolvin, 2009; Wolvin, 2010), learners are typically overwhelmed with a large amount of listening input every day from both academic contexts and daily routines. These scholars further explained that learners generally spend more than 20 percent of their learning hours doing school-related activities that involve an element of listening. Based on this percentage, learners technically gain a large portion of the knowledge they need in their studies from aural input. Apart from being a pathway to receiving knowledge, listening skills are regarded as one of the key indicators determining whether learners can achieve adequate and competent language performance (Wolvin, 2010). The significance of listening skills, however, is neither restricted only to classrooms nor to learning environments. Wolvin (2010) also recognized the importance of listening skills in professional contexts by concluding that listening skills are crucial for career growth and should be considered a required skill for communicating in organizations at every level. He furthermore explained that most job-related problems experienced by company staff at all levels are related to poor listening skills (Wolvin, 2010). Accordingly, listening comprehension is recognized as one of the essential skills required for being a successful communicator in every context, covering a personal life, academic life, and professional life.

However, despite its importance, listening comprehension is believed to be one of the most challenging language skills for learners to master, especially among English as a foreign language (EFL) learner (Piamsai, 2005). According to Hamouda (2013), EFL learners encounter several difficulties and must overcome many challenges to comprehend spoken messages in listening comprehension activities. These listening comprehension barriers might include (i) the quality of recorded materials, (ii) length and speed of listening, (iii) unfamiliar vocabulary, (iv) lack of background knowledge, and (v) cultural differences (Tran & Duong, 2020). Apart from these five barriers, another significant factor leading to a reduction in listening comprehension is speakers' accents. According to Goh (1999), more than 60% of language learners reported that a speaker's accent is considered one of the most crucial factors affecting their listening comprehension. Munro and Derwing (1999) further confirmed that too many accented speeches can hinder language learners from comprehending auditory input. Buck (2001) also supported that unfamiliar accents may cause some difficulties in listening comprehension because such unfamiliar accents might interrupt the whole listening comprehension process. Based on these related studies, it can be concluded that unfamiliar accents, both native and non-native, might cause major problems in listening comprehension.

Although unfamiliar accents might lead to some challenges in listening comprehension, it is undeniable that in recent years, English has been regarded as a lingua franca used as a medium of communication among speakers whose first languages are different to facilitate their mutual understanding (Kirkpatrick, 2010; Seidlhofer, 2011). With the prevalent use of English as a Lingua Franca (ELF), the number of non-native English speakers has continuously increased. Following this phenomenon, some non-native varieties of English are recognized as variants of English, which have enhanced the development of new varieties of English accents worldwide (Crystal, 2003; Jenkins, 2007; Kirkpatrick, 2010; Seidlhofer, 2011; Sharifian, 2010). In Thailand, the phenomenon of ELF has also exerted a significant impact on Thai communities in many aspects due to the advent of the ASEAN Economic Community (AEC) where English was officially declared as a lingua franca among the ten state members of the Association of Southeast Asian Nations (ASEAN), of which Thailand is a member (Choomthong, 2014; Natiladdanon & Thanavisuth, 2014; Trakulkasemsuk, 2012). This declaration signifies the important role of English in ASEAN, and English may have a great impact on the citizens of ASEAN member states. In addition, for Thai communities, the emergence of ELF in ASEAN is also influencing Thai educational contexts; consequently, it is inevitable that learners will have to navigate ASEAN Englishes-accented conversations in both academic contexts and daily lives. However, most English language learners in Thai educational contexts are technically exposed to only two major varieties of English usage, British English and American English (Weerachairattana et al., 2019). Nevertheless, in real ELF contexts, like in ASEAN where there are many non-native varieties of English spoken, Thai learners may encounter some difficulties in comprehending such non-native accents and may form certain negative attitudes toward speakers having non-native English accents (Yaemtui, 2018). Moreover, these difficulties and attitudes might lead to communication failures and even demotivate learners from participating in conversations in such multicultural contexts (Abeywickrama, 2013; Yaemtui, 2018).

As ASEAN Englishes accents might significantly impact Thai EFL learners' listening comprehension, it is believed that Thai EFL learners should be equipped with the knowledge of how to effectively utilize appropriate and practical listening strategies for comprehending such non-native English accents. Although several studies have examined the listening strategies applied by EFL learners, these related studies have emphasized the strategies used for comprehending native English accents. Therefore, to the best of my knowledge, the studies investigating the strategies utilized by EFL learners to comprehend conversations with non-native English accents are understudied. Consequently, to bridge the gaps in previous studies and to shed light on this perspective, this study was conceptualized based on the following research objectives:

1. To investigate how Thai EFL students, classified as high-ability listeners and low-ability listeners, utilize listening strategies (i.e., cognitive strategies and metacognitive strategies) to comprehend ASEAN Englishes-accented conversations.
2. To compare the similarities and differences between listening strategies (i.e., cognitive strategies and metacognitive strategies) utilized by low-ability listeners and high-ability listeners to comprehend ASEAN Englishes-accented conversations.

The findings of this study might be of great significance to English language teaching, particularly in teaching listening skills, by providing an applicable reference for helping teachers design appropriate teaching methods and learning environments where learners are trained to effectively utilize appropriate listening strategies for comprehending conversations with non-native English accents.

II. LITERATURE REVIEW

A. Classification of Listening Strategies

Listening strategies are commonly defined as deliberate techniques and plans utilized by learners to facilitate their listening comprehension process as well as to enhance their listening comprehension in a target language. Generally, listening strategies are believed to be interrelated with learning strategies by many scholars and educators (e.g., Azmi et al., 2014; Nadig, 2013). In other words, learning strategies can be applied to listening comprehension in foreign language learning. Oxford (1990) classified the learning strategies in accordance with the information-processing model and proposed a complete language learning strategy classification system where learning strategies are divided into two major groups (i.e., direct strategies and indirect strategies) as illustrated in Figure 1. Direct learning strategies are those learning techniques that deal with a new language by incorporating memory, cognitive, and compensation strategies. On the other hand, indirect learning strategies emphasize the management of learning through the application of metacognitive, affective, and social strategies.

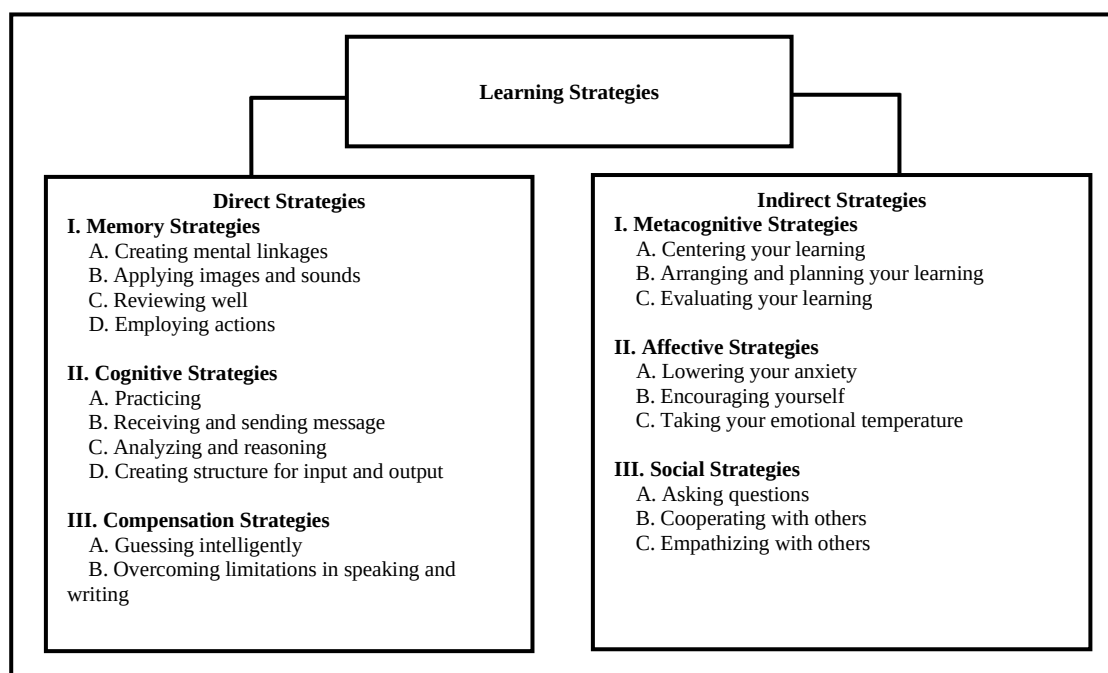


Figure 1. Classification of Learning Strategies (Oxford, 1990)

Based on the learning strategy inventory proposed by Oxford (1990), several scholars (e.g., Azmi et al., 2014; Nadig, 2013) have suggested that three main categories (i.e., cognitive strategies, metacognitive strategies, and socio-affective strategies) should be applied to enhance listening comprehension, and these strategies may be utilized differently based on learners' preferences and proficiencies.

(a). Cognitive Strategies

Cognitive strategies refer to the problem-solving methods that learners apply to deal with learning activities and facilitate the acquisition of knowledge (Abdalhamid, 2012). The problem-solving methods in cognitive strategies involve directly analyzing, transforming, or synthesizing learning materials. Goh (1999) expressed that learners utilize cognitive strategies to facilitate processing, keeping, and remembering new information. For listening comprehension, cognitive strategies can be categorized into two major groups: bottom-up and top-down. The bottom-up strategies involve word-for-word translation, arranging the rate of speech, repeating the oral text, and concentrating on the prosodic characteristics of the text. The top-down strategies, on the other hand, involve forecasting, guessing, explaining, and visualizing.

(b). Metacognitive Strategies

Metacognitive strategies refer to learners' management techniques to regulate and control their learning processes through planning, checking, assessing, and changing. The metacognitive strategies are believed to be a trait of successful learners who can manage and direct their learning to accomplish their goals (Vandergrift & Goh, 2012). Regarding the role of metacognitive strategies in listening comprehension, Holden (2004) explained that learners apply metacognitive strategies to comprehend aural input by being aware of their listening processes and comprehension. More specifically, learners have to learn how to deliberately and carefully plan, manage, monitor, and control their listening comprehension process as well as to consciously evaluate the accuracy of the received information from their listening. Abdalhamid (2012) and Vandergrift and Goh (2012) also emphasized that skilled listeners can achieve listening comprehension through the use of metacognitive strategies by:

- i) utilizing their background knowledge and predictions to create theories on the newly received information,
- ii) connecting new information with their continuing predictions,
- iii) making deductions to fill comprehension breaks,
- iv) assessing their prediction, and
- v) improving their theories.

Holden (2004) further supported the utilization of metacognitive strategies in language learning, especially for listening comprehension, by concluding that using metacognitive strategies in the listening process can increase learners' self-confidence, motivation, and capability to complete the learning activities.

(c). Socio-Affective Strategies

Socio-affective strategies refer to the techniques that learners apply to cooperate with others to check their comprehension and reduce their apprehension (Abdalhamid, 2012; Vandergrift, 2003). Wilson (2003) explained that

socio-affective strategies are related to learners' interaction with other speakers and their reactions toward learning. Socio-affective strategies are regarded as a crucial factor leading to comprehension because there are some close connections between learning situations and social-psychological factors. Utilizing socio-affective strategies is also believed to be effective strategies helping learners improve their listening performance by reducing their anxiety. Habte-Gabr (2006) further explained that socio-affective strategies can improve learners' listening comprehension because by applying socio-affective strategies, learners can decrease their anxiety, increase their confidence during listening activities, raise their motivation, and improve their listening skills.

Based on the aforementioned literature review, cognitive strategies, metacognitive strategies, and socio-affective strategies might be practical for facilitating listening comprehension process. However, the participants of the study were assigned to individually complete listening tasks, so cooperation and interaction with others might not be necessary for completing the listening tasks. Consequently, only cognitive strategies and metacognitive strategies are emphasized in this study, whereas socio-affective strategies are not considered in the scope of this study.

B. Impacts of Listening Strategies on Enhancing Learners' Listening Comprehension

Listening comprehension is generally defined as an interactive and interpretive process in which listeners deliberately and actively construct meaning from auditory input (Hamouda, 2013; Rost, 2002). The interactive and interpretive processes of listening comprehension are considered a complex process involving several steps for understanding spoken language. Like Rost (2002) and Hamouda (2013), Nadig (2013) further explained listening comprehension as an active process that includes knowing speech sounds, comprehending the meaning of individual words, and understanding the syntax of sentences. In other words, the listening comprehension process concerns the ability to hear oral speeches, discriminate sounds, clarify sounds into lexical and syntactic units, and comprehend the messages. With reference to the listening comprehension process, participation, creativity, linguistic knowledge, world knowledge, and, most importantly, listening strategies are required to achieve listening comprehension (Vandergrift & Baker, 2015).

Several studies have confirmed the significant impacts of listening strategies on improving learners' listening comprehension. Rost (2002) ascertained that "The skills underlying listening have become more clearly defined" and "strategies contributing to effective listening are now better understood" (Rost, 2002, p. 12). Goh (2002) further supported that teaching listening strategies to learners can be highly significant and helpful in achieving listening comprehension successfully. Vandergrift (2003) also confirmed that strategy development is important for listening training because strategies are conscious means by which learners can guide and evaluate their comprehension and responses. According to a study by Vandergrift (2003), proficient listeners tend to apply more listening strategies to facilitate their listening comprehension. These listening strategies include paying attention to language patterns to analyze them, being willing to make mistakes, and trying to make accurate and reasonable predictions. The study also indicates that proficient listeners tend to apply a broader range and variety of types of listening strategies, and these learners can select the most appropriate choices of strategies. Griffiths (2003) further explained that high-proficiency listeners use listening strategies more frequently and appropriately than low-proficiency listeners, which is reflected in their improved listening comprehension. Piamsai (2005) supported the claim made by Griffiths (2003) and Vandergrift (2003) by concluding that proficient listeners employ cognitive strategies and metacognitive strategies when listening more frequently than listeners in low-proficiency groups do. Based on these scholars, it can be concluded that an appropriate choice of listening strategies can facilitate learners' listening process and enhance learners' listening comprehension.

C. ASEAN Englishes and Their Impacts on Listening Comprehension

As English is commonly used as a lingua franca (ELF) among speakers whose first language is not English, these non-native English speakers prefer keeping their unique accents and integrate their cultures into their English speeches to maintain their national identities (Jenkins, 2007). More importantly, some pragmatic strategies for intercultural communication have been developed by these non-native English speakers. Kortmann et al. (2004) further explained that several non-standard features are common when English functions as a lingua franca and non-standard forms of English can be observed in almost all varieties of English, including a selection of Asian English.

Undoubtedly, as English is used as a lingua franca in ASEAN countries, non-standard forms of English are regularly used in ASEAN Englishes. According to many studies, several non-standard linguistic features of ASEAN Englishes are distinctive to these ASEAN Englishes, but they also share some common features like phonology, lexicon, and syntax (Deterding & Kirkpatrick, 2006; Jenkins, 2007; Keuk, 2009; Kirkpatrick, 2010). According to Kirkpatrick (2010), there are common phonological features shared by ASEAN speakers of English such as (i) deducting consonant clusters, (ii) pronouncing dental fricative /θ/ as /t/, (iii) merging of long and short vowel sounds, (iv) reducing initial aspiration, (v) lacking reduced vowels, and so on.

Kirkpatrick (2010), however, expressed that the use of distinctive phonological features among ASEAN Englishes might be a cause of misunderstanding. He concluded that "the ASEAN ELF data shows remarkably few occasions where communication was affected by the use of distinctive phonological features" (Kirkpatrick, 2010, p. 81). Kirkpatrick (2010) further explained that the possible causes of misunderstood communication among ASEAN English speakers are (i) mishearing, (ii) misunderstanding the speaker's realization of a vowel sound, and (c) using a wrong lexical item by a speaker. Consequently, the phonological features of ASEAN Englishes might hinder listeners in

comprehension of ASEAN-Englishes accented conversations as well as possibly lead to listeners' certain attitudes towards ASEAN-Englishes accents (Yaemtui, 2018).

III. METHODOLOGY

A. Research Design and Research Instruments

The research design of this study involved a sequential explanatory mixed methods using a questionnaire to elicit quantitative data and a think-aloud task to obtain qualitative data regarding the listening comprehension strategies utilized by Thai EFL students to comprehend ASEAN Englishes-accented conversations. The questionnaire consisted of three parts: (i) participants' demographic information, (ii) questions about listening strategies, and (iii) additional comments. The closed-ended questions in the second part were developed with reference to the Strategy Inventory for Language Learning (SILL version 7.0 for ESL/EFL learners) initially proposed by Oxford (1990). The questionnaire was also constructed under the learning strategies framework (Oxford, 1990), and only questions related to cognitive strategies and metacognitive strategies were included in the questionnaire. To complete the second part of the questionnaire, the participants were required to select only one scale on a 5-point Likert scale ranging from 5 (Always) to 1 (Never) that mostly corresponds with their perceived use of listening strategies described in each question. Before its actual use, the content validity of the questionnaire was validated by three experts in ELT through the IOC (Index of Item-Objective Congruence) procedures. Additionally, the questionnaire was piloted to evaluate its reliability and practicality before actual use, and Cronbach's alpha was indicated as 0.83 for the total scale reliability, meaning that the questionnaire was appropriate for use with good internal consistency of the items. In addition to the questionnaire, the think-aloud task using listening exercises to stimulate the participants' use of listening strategies was utilized to collect qualitative data regarding the perceived use of listening strategies by the selected participants.

B. Participants

The 300 participants were selected through the purposive sampling technique from students taking foundation English courses provided by the Language and Academic Services Center at a Thai university. Additionally, the primary inclusion criteria were that the participants' first language must be Thai, and they must have at least 12 years of experience learning English as a Foreign Language (EFL). Based on their scores in the listening part of an English proficiency test, the participants were equally divided into 150 participants in a low-ability listener group and 150 participants in a high-ability listener group. These participants were informed about the purposes of the study, and the ethical approval for research involving human participants was granted by the research ethics committees of Strategic Wisdom and Research Institute of a Thai university.

C. Data Collection

Data collection procedures mainly involved collecting quantitative data through the questionnaire and qualitative data using the think-aloud task. Before distributing the questionnaires, the participants were required to familiarize themselves with ASEAN Englishes-accented conversations by completing ten listening exercises presented with audio recordings of conversations spoken by ASEAN Englishes speakers representing ten countries of ASEAN members. These ten paper-based listening exercises were administered to the participants by the researcher in the classrooms for ten weeks. After completing listening exercises, the participants were requested to report their use of listening strategies by answering the questionnaire. Following the questionnaire, ten participants (i.e., five participants from the high-ability group and another five participants from the low-ability group) were purposively selected to participate in the think-aloud task where they were assigned to complete two listening exercises and verbally report their use of listening strategies and thinking process while completing the exercises.

D. Data Analysis

The quantitative data obtained from the questionnaire were analyzed using descriptive statistics, including mean (M) and standard deviation (SD). Additionally, an independent t -test was administered to compare the listening strategies utilized by the low-ability listeners and the high-ability listeners. In terms of the analysis of qualitative data, the data elicited from the think-aloud task were transcribed and analyzed using thematic analysis. Moreover, the triangulation between think-aloud data and questionnaire data was conducted for an in-depth and comprehensive analysis of how Thai ELF students utilize listening strategies to comprehend conversations with ASEAN Englishes accents.

IV. FINDINGS

The findings regarding the listening strategies utilized by Thai EFL students categorized into low-ability listeners and high-ability listeners to comprehend ASEAN Englishes-accented conversations are divided into two main parts: the quantitative results from the questionnaires and the qualitative results from the think-aloud task. These findings are organized and presented according to the research objectives.

A. The Listening Strategies Most Frequently Utilized by Thai EFL Students Categorized Into Low-Ability Listeners and High-Ability Listeners to Comprehend ASEAN Englishes-Accented Conversations

The findings presented in Table 1 to Table 4 are classified according to two main types of listening strategies which are cognitive strategies (COG) and metacognitive strategies (MET) utilized by the low-ability listeners and the high-ability listeners. The means and standard deviations calculated from the questionnaire data are interpreted and reported based on the top five frequently used listening strategies. The triangulation between the questionnaire data and the think-aloud data is also illustrated for a comprehensive analysis of the use of listening strategies.

TABLE 1
TOP FIVE COGNITIVE STRATEGIES MOST FREQUENTLY UTILIZED BY LOW-ABILITY LISTENERS

Rank	Cognitive Strategies Statement	Mean	SD	Interpretation (Frequency of Use)
1	I try to translate English into my language in my mind as I listen to conversations.	4.47	0.92	Usually
2	I try to listen for each word or detail while listening to conversations.	4.24	0.95	Usually
3	While listening to conversations, I try to repeat the sounds of the words in my mind.	3.95	0.82	Usually
4	While listening to conversations, I use pronunciation aspects, like stress and intonation, to enhance my understanding.	3.88	0.82	Usually
5	While listening to conversations, I memorize the key points and organize the concepts in my mind.	3.87	0.86	Usually

According to Table 1, the low-ability listeners reported using '*translating English into first language in mind*' as the most frequently utilized cognitive strategy to comprehend ASEAN Englishes-accented conversations. The cognitive strategy '*listening for each word or detail*' was ranked in the 2nd place with '*repeating the sounds of the words in mind*' ranked in the 3rd place. The cognitive strategy '*using pronunciation aspects such as stress and intonation to enhance understanding*' and '*memorizing key points and organizing concepts in mind*' were ranked in the 4th and the 5th place of the most frequently utilized cognitive strategies respectively. Although the aforementioned cognitive strategies were ranked in different orders (from the 1st place to the 5th place), they were all reported to have the same frequency of use, which was '*Usually*'.

Based on the qualitative data obtained from the think-aloud task, the cognitive strategies used mainly by the low-ability listeners were a word-for-word translation and focusing on understanding ASEAN Englishes-accented conversations in detail. During the think-aloud task, five participants (100%) in the low-ability groups reported the use of a word-for-word translation to facilitate their listening comprehension — "*I have to think about the meaning of each word in Thai so that I can understand what the speakers are saying.*" (L1's think-aloud). Another cognitive strategy that was frequently reported by four low-ability listeners (80%) was focusing on understanding the conversation in detail rather than the overall meaning of the conversation— "*I think I cannot answer this question unless I understand every detail of the whole conversation.*" (L3's think-aloud).

TABLE 2
TOP FIVE COGNITIVE STRATEGIES MOST FREQUENTLY UTILIZED BY HIGH-ABILITY LISTENERS

Rank	Cognitive Strategies Statement	Mean	SD	Interpretation (Frequency of Use)
1	While listening to conversations, I use the setting and the relationship between speakers to enhance my understanding.	4.26	0.76	Usually
2	While listening to conversations, I use my experience and background knowledge to help me understand.	4.25	0.87	Usually
3	While listening to conversations, I try to listen for a purpose, theme, or main idea of the conversation.	4.21	0.96	Usually
4	While listening to conversations, I picture the setting of the conversation to understand what the speakers are talking about.	4.19	0.96	Usually
5	While listening to conversations, I listen for some specific aspects of information like familiar keywords and repeated words to enhance my overall understanding.	4.12	0.94	Usually

Table 2 reveals that '*using the setting and the relationship between speakers to enhance listening comprehension*' was the most frequently utilized cognitive strategy by the high-ability listeners to comprehend ASEAN-accented conversations. The high ability listeners ranked '*using experience and background knowledge to enhance listening comprehension*' in the 2nd place of the frequently used cognitive strategy, and '*listening for a purpose, theme, or main idea*' was ranked in the 3rd place. The cognitive strategy '*visualizing the setting of the conversation to understand what the speakers are talking about*' was ranked in the 4th place followed by '*listening for some specific aspects of information like familiar keywords and repeated words to enhance listening comprehension*' which was ranked in the 5th place of the most frequently utilized cognitive strategy by the high-ability listeners. Despite being ranked in different orders (from the 1st place to the 5th place), these cognitive strategies were all reported to have the same frequency of use, which was '*Usually*'.

The qualitative data from the think-aloud task performed by the high-ability listeners is aligned with the questionnaire data. In the think-aloud task, five high-ability listeners (100%) reported that they visualized the setting of the conversations and interpreted the relationship between speakers to help them understand ASEAN Englishes-accented conversations— "*Before listening to the conversations, I think about the setting of the conversation and the relationship between speakers to facilitate my listening comprehension.*" (H2's think-aloud). All of these high-ability listeners (100%) also mentioned the use of their experience and background knowledge to help them understand the

information in the conversations— “*I can compare the situation that the speakers are talking to my own experiences, and this helps me understand more about the messages of the conversations.*” (H4’s think-aloud). Moreover, most of the high-ability listeners (80%) prefer listening for a purpose, theme, or main idea to listening for details — “*I can understand the conversation better when I focus on capturing its main idea rather than all details.*” (H3’s think-aloud).

TABLE 3
TOP FIVE METACOGNITIVE STRATEGIES MOST FREQUENTLY UTILIZED BY LOW-ABILITY LISTENERS

Rank	Metacognitive Strategies	Mean	SD	Interpretation (Frequency of Use)
	Statement			
1	I periodically ask myself if I am satisfied with my level of comprehension, while listening to conversations.	4.24	0.91	Usually
2	I focus harder on listening to the conversations when I have trouble understanding the content while listening to conversations.	4.19	0.85	Usually
3	While listening to conversations, I concentrate on identifying my problems in listening and work on solving them.	4.16	0.84	Usually
4	If my mind wanders while I am listening to conversations, I recover my concentration right away.	4.13	0.72	Usually
5	While listening to conversations, I quickly adjust my interpretation if I realize it is incorrect.	4.06	0.96	Usually

As shown in Table 3, the low-ability listeners reported using ‘*periodically checking the satisfaction of comprehension level*’ as the most frequently utilized metacognitive strategy to comprehend ASEAN Englishes-accented conversations. The metacognitive strategy ‘*focusing harder on listening when having trouble understanding the content*’ was ranked in the 2nd place, followed by ‘*concentrating on identifying problems in listening and working on solving them*’ ranked in the 3rd place. The metacognitive strategies ‘*recovering concentration right away when losing it*’ and ‘*quickly adjusting the interpretation when realizing that it is incorrect*’ were ranked in the 4th and the 5th place of the most frequently used metacognitive strategies by the low-ability listeners respectively. Although the aforementioned metacognitive strategies were ranked in different orders (from 1st place to 5th place), they were all reported to have the same frequency of use, which was ‘*Usually*’.

Based on the qualitative data elicited from the think-aloud task, five participants in the low-ability group (100%) confirmed that they periodically recheck their understanding while listening ASEAN Englishes-accented conversations — “*I keep questioning myself about whether I am understanding the conversations well.*” (L2’s think-aloud). These low-ability listeners (100%) also reported that they must try to identify their problems in listening and work on solving them— “*I think I am having some difficulties in understanding this conversation because I do not know the meaning of some words, so I must focus harder on listening to the conversations next time.*” (L2’s think-aloud).

TABLE 4
TOP FIVE METACOGNITIVE STRATEGIES MOST FREQUENTLY UTILIZED BY HIGH-ABILITY LISTENERS

Rank	Metacognitive Strategies	Mean	SD	Interpretation (Frequency of Use)
	Statement			
1	While listening to a conversation, when I think I understand some information, I check if it fits in with the context of the conversation.	4.57	0.87	Always
2	Before listening, I first make predictions about the content of conversations based on their topics.	4.55	0.84	Always
3	Before listening, I have a plan in my mind for how I am going to listen.	4.46	0.73	Usually
4	While listening to conversations, when I think I understand some information in the conversation, I compare it with my background knowledge.	4.43	0.95	Usually
5	Before listening, I think of similar conversation topics that I may have listened to.	4.26	0.96	Usually

According to Table 4, the high-ability listeners reported their use of ‘*checking understanding with the contexts of conversations*’ as the most frequently utilized metacognitive strategy to comprehend ASEAN Englishes-accented conversations. The metacognitive strategy ‘*making predictions about the content of conversations based on topics before listening*’ was ranked in the 2nd place of the most frequently used metacognitive strategy. In spite of being ranked in different orders (1st place and 2nd place), these two metacognitive strategies were reported with the same usage frequency, which was ‘*Always*’. The metacognitive strategy ranked in the 3rd place was ‘*having a plan in mind for how to listen*’, and ‘*checking understanding of some information by comparing it with background knowledge*’ was ranked in the 4th place. The metacognitive strategy ‘*thinking of similar conversation topics before listening*’ was ranked in the 5th place of the most frequently utilized metacognitive strategy by the high-ability listeners. Although these three metacognitive strategies were ranked in different orders (from the 3rd place to the 5th place), they were reported to have the same frequency of use, which was ‘*Usually*’.

In terms of the qualitative data from the think-aloud task, the metacognitive strategies frequently utilized by the high-ability listeners were using conversation contexts and background knowledge to check their comprehension as well as using topics of conversations to predict the content of conversations in advance. During the think-aloud task, five high-ability listeners (100%) informed that while listening to ASEAN Englishes-accented conversations, they always rechecked their understanding based on the contexts of the conversations— “*I think the speaker is asking for the ticket price, not the room price because he is now at the bus terminal and he wants to travel to Osaka.*” (H1’s think-aloud).

Apart from the contexts of conversation, all high-ability listeners (100%) reported that they rechecked their understanding with their background knowledge— “*I can compare the spoken messages with my background knowledge and experience to ensure my understanding.*” (H3’s think-aloud). Four high-ability listeners (80%) also reported the use of predicting the content of conversations according to the topics before listening— “*Before listening, I have to read the instructions and questions to come up with the topic of the conversation. After knowing what the topic of the conversation is, I can make predictions about the content of conversations.*” (H2’s think-aloud).

B. The Similarities and Differences Between Listening Strategies Utilized by Low-Ability Listeners and High-Ability Listeners to Comprehend ASEAN Englishes-Accented Conversations

The independent *t*-test was administered to compare between the mean score of each type of listening strategies (i.e., COG and MET) utilized by the low-ability listeners and the high-ability listeners. The comparison between the mean score of listening strategies (i.e., including COG and MET) was also conducted. The comparison results are illustrated in Table 5 to Table 7.

TABLE 5
THE COMPARISON BETWEEN THE OVERALL LISTENING STRATEGIES UTILIZED BY LOW-ABILITY LISTENERS AND HIGH-ABILITY LISTENERS

Ability Group	Overall Utilization of Listening Strategies (COG & MET)				
	<i>n</i>	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>	<i>t-value</i>	<i>p-value</i>
High-ability listeners	150	3.74	0.60	2.246	0.026*
Low-ability listeners	150	3.59	0.70		

*sig at *p-value* < 0.05

According to Table 5, the comparison between overall listening strategies (covering COG and MET) utilized by the high-ability listeners and the low-ability listeners demonstrated a significant difference. The result of the *t*-test computed on the mean score of the overall listening strategies used by the high-ability listeners ($M = 3.74$ and $SD = 0.60$) and the mean score of the low-ability listeners ($M = 3.59$ and $SD = 0.70$) showed a *p-value* of 0.026, which was lower than the 0.05 level of significance. This comparison indicates that the high-ability listeners significantly utilize overall listening strategies to comprehend ASEAN-Englishes accented conversations more frequently than the low-ability listeners.

TABLE 6
THE COMPARISON BETWEEN COGNITIVE STRATEGIES UTILIZED BY LOW-ABILITY LISTENERS AND HIGH-ABILITY LISTENERS

Ability Group	Utilization of Cognitive Strategies				
	<i>n</i>	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>	<i>t-value</i>	<i>p-value</i>
High-ability listeners	150	3.77	0.53	2.270	0.024*
Low-ability listeners	150	3.57	0.67		

*sig at *p-value* < 0.05

Based on Table 6, the comparison between cognitive strategies utilized by the high-ability listeners and the low-ability listeners indicated a significant difference. The result of the *t*-test run on the mean score of the use of cognitive strategies by the high-ability listeners ($M = 3.77$ and $SD = 0.53$) and the mean score of the low-ability listeners ($M = 3.57$ and $SD = 0.67$) showed a *p-value* of 0.024, which was lower than the 0.05 level of significance. This comparison indicates that the high-ability listeners significantly utilize cognitive strategies for comprehending ASEAN Englishes-accented conversations more frequently than the low-ability listeners.

TABLE 7
THE COMPARISON BETWEEN METACOGNITIVE STRATEGIES UTILIZED BY LOW-ABILITY LISTENERS AND HIGH-ABILITY LISTENERS

Ability Group	Utilization of Metacognitive Strategies				
	<i>n</i>	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>	<i>t-value</i>	<i>p-value</i>
High-ability listeners	150	4.01	0.51	2.496	0.013*
Low-ability listeners	150	3.81	0.60		

*sig at *p-value* < 0.05

According to Table 6, the comparison between metacognitive strategies utilized by the high-ability listeners and low-ability listeners demonstrated a significant difference. The result of the *t*-test run on the mean score of the use of metacognitive strategies by the high-ability listeners ($M = 4.01$ and $SD = 0.51$) and the score of the low-ability listeners ($M = 3.81$ and $SD = 0.60$) showed a *p-value* of 0.013, which was lower than the 0.05 level of significant difference. Based on this comparison, it can be concluded that the high-ability listeners significantly utilize metacognitive strategies to comprehend ASEAN Englishes-accented conversations more frequently than the low-ability listeners.

V. DISCUSSION

A. High-Ability Listeners Utilize a Wider Range of Listening Strategies to Comprehend ASEAN Englishes-Accented Conversations More Frequently Than Low-Ability Listeners Do

According to the findings, Thai EFL students classified as low-ability listeners and high-ability listeners differently utilize listening strategies (i.e., cognitive strategies and metacognitive strategies) to comprehend ASEAN Englishes-accented conversations. Based on the questionnaire results, the highest mean for the listening strategies utilized by the listeners in the high-ability group fell in the usage level of 'Always' (MET: '**checking understanding with the contexts of conversations**'). In addition, the high-ability listeners applied another MET: '**making predictions about the content of conversations based on topics before listening**' at the usage level of 'Always' as well. On the other hand, the highest mean for the listening strategies used by the low-ability listeners was only at the usage level of 'Usually' (COG: '**translating English into first language in mind**').

More importantly, the results regarding the different usage level are further confirmed with the statistical comparison of the overall listening strategies utilized by the low-ability listeners and the high-ability listeners. According to the statistical comparison of the overall listening strategies, the high-ability listeners significantly utilize overall listening strategies to comprehend ASEAN Englishes-accented conversations more frequently than the low-ability listeners do. This finding corresponds with several studies (e.g., Griffiths, 2003; Vandergrift, 2003; Piamsai, 2005) investigating how low-ability listeners and high-ability listeners apply listening strategies for listening comprehension. These strategy-related studies concluded that high-listening ability learners apply overall listening strategies more frequently than those in the low-ability group. Vandergrift (2003) and Griffiths (2003) further summarized that high-ability listeners tend to apply a wider range and various types of listening strategies to successfully achieve listening comprehension.

Regarding the utilization of each category of listening strategies (i.e., COG and MET), the comparison also shows significant differences in the use of COG and MET between the high-ability group and the low-ability group. More specifically, the high-ability listeners significantly utilize COG and MET strategies to comprehend ASEAN-accented conversations more frequently than those in the low-ability group. These findings align with Piamsai (2005), who supported the claim made by Vandergrift (2003) and Griffiths (2003) by concluding that proficient listeners significantly employ COG and MET more frequently than listeners in low-proficiency groups do.

B. Unlike Low-Ability Listeners, High-Ability Listeners Know How to Effectively Utilize Listening Strategies in a Systematic Way to Successfully Achieve the Listening Comprehension of ASEAN Englishes-Accented Conversations

Apart from the significant differences regarding the frequency in the utilization of COG and MET, both quantitative data obtained from the questionnaire and qualitative data collected from the think-aloud task clearly demonstrate the differences between the individual listening strategies utilized by the high-ability listeners and the low-ability listeners.

Regarding the utilization of COG, the high-ability listeners widely reported the utilization of the '**using the setting and the relationship between speakers to enhance listening comprehension**', which had the highest mean, followed by '**using experience and background knowledge to enhance listening comprehension**', '**listening for a purpose, theme, or main idea**', '**visualizing the setting of the conversation to understand what the speakers are talking about**', and '**listening for some specific aspects of information like familiar keywords and repeated words to enhance understanding**' respectively. In terms of the top five MET used by the high-ability listeners, the high-ability listeners reported they always used '**checking understanding with the contexts of conversations**' and '**making predictions about the content of conversations based on topics before listening**'. The other three MET strategies that high-ability listeners usually use while listening were '**having a plan in mind for how to listen**', '**checking understanding of some information by comparing it with background knowledge**', and '**thinking of similar conversation topics before listening**'.

With reference to the COG and MET strategies utilized mainly by the high-ability listeners to comprehend ASEAN Englishes-accented conversations, the listening strategies (i.e., monitoring comprehension, making reasonable predictions, focusing on the main idea, using context clues, associating with background knowledge about the topic, and visualizing what is being heard) correspond with the skills that language learners should master to perform well in a listening task (Abdalhamid, 2012; Holden, 2004; Vandergrift & Goh, 2012). The high-ability listeners also prefer capturing the main idea and keywords of the conversations instead of listening for every detail, which is believed to be a trait of successful learners who can manage and direct their learning to accomplish their goals (Vandergrift & Goh, 2012). Many researchers (e.g., Griffiths, 2003; Sadighi & Zare, 2006) have confirmed the positive results of utilizing these listening strategies by concluding that these strategies facilitate listening comprehension, especially having background knowledge concerning the context of the utterance. Sadighi and Zare (2006) also indicated that proficient listeners use background knowledge, predicting and selecting the relevant parts, and ignoring irrelevant parts are the most frequently used listening strategies. Griffiths (2003) also made claims about the advantages of the utilization of listening strategies like paying attention to the context, being willing to make mistakes, and trying to make accurate and reasonable predictions by proficient listeners to achieve listening comprehension. Chiang and Dunkel (1992) further proposed that familiarizing learners with the listening topics and encouraging them to form a mental picture of what they are going to listen to will benefit not only advanced language learners but also non-advanced ones.

In contrast to the high-ability listeners, while listening to ASEAN Englishes-accented conversations, the low-ability listeners in this study relied heavily on the use of the translation strategy, which the high-listening ability group rarely used, especially word-for-word translation and concentrating on detail. According to the questionnaire and think-aloud results, the low-ability listeners reported using the COG strategy: '**translating English into first language in mind**'

with the highest mean score of all the listening strategies. This finding aligns with Vandergrift (2003), who reported the more frequent use of the translation strategy by non-proficient listeners than proficient ones. Vandergrift (2003) further emphasized that the translation strategy is not popular among advanced listeners, and they do not depend on using this strategy when listening to conversations. Piamsai (2005) supported Vandergrift (2003) by claiming that the utilization of the translation strategy may even negatively affect the listeners' performance because listening processes occur in a simultaneous and rapid manner, but applying translation, especially word-for-word, will slow the decoding process. Another listening strategy that was applied more frequently by the low-ability listeners when compared to the listeners in the high-ability group is listening for every word and detail (i.e., concentrating on detail). Based on the data obtained from the questionnaire and think-aloud, the low-ability listeners also ranged in their use of the COG strategy: **'listening for each word or detail'** in the high usage level. Instead of listening for keywords or capturing the main ideas, like the high-ability listeners do, the low-ability listeners prefer capturing and decoding every word spoken in the conversations in order to do a word-for-word translation for comprehending the ASEAN Englishes-accented conversations. These strategies might not be effective and practical because they interrupt the flow of the listening process. Unlike the low-ability listeners, Piamsai (2005) and Vandergrift (2003) expressed that the high-ability listeners tend to focus on gaining insight into the main idea and purpose of the speech without paying full attention to all the words and details. They are regarded as a goal-oriented listener who concentrates on the purpose of the listening tasks and prefers capturing only the main ideas or keywords from the listening tracks. Therefore, most listeners in the high-ability group avoid doing word-by-word translations and paying attention to every word and all detail (Piamsai, 2005; Vandergrift, 2003).

VI. PEDAGOGICAL IMPLICATION

Based on the findings of this study, teaching learners, especially those with a low listening ability, on how to select an appropriate choice of listening strategies and effectively utilize these strategies in a systematic way would be very helpful for them to successfully achieve listening comprehension (Carrier, 2003; Coskun, 2010; Goh, 2002; Vandergrift, 2003). As learners can better achieve listening comprehension when they have an awareness of the systematic ways of using effective and practical listening strategies, Strategies-Based Instruction (SBI), which is a teaching approach focusing on teaching strategies to learners to facilitate their learning process and improve their proficiency and knowledge (Cohen, 2000; Chamot, 2005; Oxford, 1990), should be applied as a teaching method to improve listening comprehension skills of low-proficiency listeners. In considering SBI for teaching listening comprehension based on the findings of this study, the listening strategies utilized by high-ability listeners are believed to be a trait of successful listeners who can manage and direct their listening process to achieve the comprehension of ASEAN Englishes-accented conversations, so low-ability listeners should be trained to utilize those listening strategies applied by the high-ability listeners. Particularly, the low-ability listeners should be informed about the disadvantages of applying the translation strategy, whereby focusing on detail and doing word-for-word translation can interrupt the flow of the listening process. Moreover, low-ability listeners should be equipped with appropriate listening strategies such as monitoring comprehension, capturing main ideas, using context clues, picturing mental images, and making logical predictions to improve their listening comprehension (either native-accented conversations or non-native-accented conversations). Furthermore, as background knowledge is considered one of the crucial factors leading to listening comprehension, low-ability learners should be provided with opportunities to experience a wide variety of listening topics to improve their listening comprehension. Consequently, low-ability listeners should be instructed on how to select appropriate listening strategies and given the opportunity to practice using these strategies in class to enhance their listening comprehension.

VII. CONCLUSION

This study aims to investigate how Thai EFL students utilize two main categories of listening strategies (cognitive strategies and metacognitive strategies) while listening to conversations with ASEAN Englishes accents. According to the findings of this study, the high-ability listeners significantly utilize cognitive strategies and metacognitive strategies more frequently than the low-ability listeners. In addition to the greater frequency in the use of listening strategies, the findings also reflect that the high-ability listeners know how to appropriately select listening strategies and effectively utilize these strategies in a systematic way to achieve the listening comprehension of ASEAN Englishes-accented conversations. Generally, the high-ability listeners know, they need to make reasonable predictions before listening, capture the main ideas and keywords, use context clues, make intelligent guesses, and associate between their background knowledge and the listening topics. Therefore, the study indicates that high-ability listeners can select an appropriate choice of listening strategies and effectively utilize these strategies in a systematic way. On the other hand, low-ability listeners do not know how to select listening strategies appropriately, so they cannot process the listening input automatically. As a result, they try to listen for detail and depend heavily on the word-for-word translation strategy to help them comprehend conversations with ASEAN Englishes accents. These strategies are not considered adequate and practical for them to perform well in listening tasks, especially long ones, because the listening processes naturally occur in a simultaneous and rapid manner. Consequently, based on the study's findings, Strategies-Based

Instruction (SBI) should be applied to train learners to effectively utilize practical listening strategies to enhance their comprehension of ASEAN Englishes-accented conversations.

REFERENCES

- [1] Abdalhamid, F. (2012). *Listening Comprehension Strategies of Arabic-Speaking ESL Learners*. [Master's thesis, Colorado State University]. Mountain Scholar.
- [2] Abeywickrama, P. (2013). Why not non-native varieties of English as listening comprehension test input? *RELC Journal*, 44, 59-74.
- [3] Azmi, B. M., Celik, B., Yidliz, N., & Tugrul, M. C. (2014). Listening comprehension difficulties encountered by students in second language learning class. *Journal of Educational and Instructional Studies in the World*, 4(4), 1-6.
- [4] Buck, G. (2001). *Assessing Listening*. Cambridge University Press.
- [5] Carrier, K. (2003). Improving high school English language learners' second language listening through strategy instruction. *Bilingual Research Journal*, 27, 383-408.
- [6] Chamot, A. U. (2005). Language learning strategy instruction: Current issues and research. *Annual Review of Applied Linguistics*, 25, 112-130. doi:10.1017/S0267190505000061
- [7] Chiang, C.S. & Dunkel, P. (1992). The effect of speech modification, prior knowledge, and listening proficiency on EFL lecture learning. *TESOL Quarterly*, 26, 345-374.
- [8] Choomthong, D. (2014). Preparing Thai students' English for the ASEAN Economic Community: Some pedagogical implications and trends. *LEARN Journal*, 7(1), 45-57.
- [9] Cohen, A. D. (2000). Strategies-Based instruction for learners of a second language. *NASSP Bulletin*, 84(612), 10-18. <https://doi.org/10.1177/019263650008461203>
- [10] Coskun, A. (2010). The effect of metacognitive strategy training on the listening performance of beginner students. *Novitas-ROYAL*, 4(1), 35-50.
- [11] Crystal, D. (2003). *English as a global language* (2nd ed.). Cambridge University Press.
- [12] Deterding, D. & A. Kirkpatrick (2006). Emerging Asian Englishes and intelligibility, *World Englishes*, 25(3-4), 391-410.
- [13] Goh, C. C. (1999). *Teaching Listening in the Language Classroom*. SEAMEO Regional Language Centre.
- [14] Goh, C. C. (2002). Exploring listening comprehension tactics and their interaction patterns. *System*, 30(2), 185-206.
- [15] Griffiths, C. (2003). Patterns of language learning strategy use. *System*, 31, 367-383.
- [16] Habte-Gabr, E. (2006). The importance of socio-affective strategies in using EFL for teaching mainstream subjects. *Journal of Humanizing Language Teaching*, 8(5), 1-5.
- [17] Hamouda, A. (2013). An investigation of listening comprehension problems encountered by Saudi students in the EL listening classroom. *International Journal of Academic Research in Progressive Education and Development*, 2(2), 113-155.
- [18] Holden, W.R. (2004). Facilitating listening comprehension: Acquiring successful strategies. *Bulletin of Hokiruku University*, 28, 257-266.
- [19] Janusik, L., & Wolvin, A. (2009). 24 hours in a day: A listening update to time studies. *International Journal of Listening*, 23, 104-120.
- [20] Jenkins, J. (2007). *English as a lingua franca: Attitudes and identity*. Oxford University Press.
- [21] Keuk, C. N. (2009). How intelligible is Cambodian English variety? A look from foreigners' perspectives. *CamTESOL Selected Papers*, 5, 23-35.
- [22] Kirkpatrick, A. (2010). *English as a lingua franca in ASEAN: A multilingual model*. Hong Kong University Press.
- [23] Kortmann, B., Kate, B., Rajend, M., Edgar, W.S., & Clive, U. (2004). *A handbook of varieties of English: Morphology and Syntax*. Mouton de Gruyter.
- [24] Munro, M. J., & Derwing, T. M. (1999). Foreign accent, comprehensibility and intelligibility in the speech of second language learners. *Language Learning*, 49(1), 285-310.
- [25] Nadig, A. (2013). Listening Comprehension. In Volkmar, F.R. (ed.), *Encyclopedia of Autism Spectrum Disorders*. Springer.
- [26] Natiladdanon, K., & Thanavisuth, C. (2014). Attitudes, awareness, and comprehensibility of ASEAN English accents: A qualitative study of university students in Thailand. *Catalyst*, 9, 16-30.
- [27] Oxford, R. (1990). *Language learning strategies: What every teacher should know*. Newbury House.
- [28] Piamsai, C. (2005). *The Relationship between Learning Strategies and English Computer-based Listening Test Performance of Thai University Students*. [Doctoral dissertation, Chulalongkorn University]. Thai Thesis Database.
- [29] Rost, M. (2002). *Teaching and Researching Listening*. Longman.
- [30] Sadighi, F., & Zare, S. (2006). Is listening comprehension influenced by the background knowledge of the learners? A case study of Iranian EFL learners. *The Linguistics Journal*, 1(3), 110-126.
- [31] Seidlhofer, B. (2011). *Understanding English as a lingua franca*. Oxford University Press.
- [32] Sharifian, F. (2010). Semantic and pragmatic conceptualizations within an emerging variety: Persian English. In A. Kirkpatrick (Ed.), *Handbook of world Englishes* (pp. 442-457). Routledge.
- [33] Trakulkasemsuk, W. (2012). English in Thailand. In E.L. Low & A. Hashim (Eds.), *English in Southeast Asia: Features, policy and language in use* (pp. 101-111). John Benjamins.
- [34] Tran, T. Q., & Dung, T. M. (2020). Insights into listening comprehension problems: A case study in Vietnam. *PASAA*, 59, 77-100.
- [35] Vandergrift, L. (2003). Orchestrating strategy use: Towards a model of the skilled L2 listener. *Language Learning*, 53, 461-491.
- [36] Vandergrift, L. (2008). Learning strategies for listening comprehension. In T. Lewis & S. Hurd (Eds.), *Language learning strategies in independent settings* (pp. 84-102). Multilingual Matters.
- [37] Vandergrift, L., & Baker, S. (2015). Learner variables in second language listening comprehension: an exploratory path analysis. *Language Learning*, 65, 390-416.

- [38] Vandergrift, L., & Goh, C. (2012). *Teaching and learning second language listening: metacognition in action*. Taylor & Francis.
- [39] Weerachairattana, R., Duan, J., & Buripakdi, A. (2019). World Englishes in expanding circle: Views from university students in Thailand and China. *Journal of Studies in the English Language*, 14(1), 125-181.
- [40] Wilson, M. (2003). Discovery listening-improving perceptual processing. *ELT Journal*, 57(4), 335-343.
- [41] Wolvin, A. D. (2010). *Listening and human communication in the 21st century*. Blackwell Publishing Ltd.
- [42] Yaemtui, W. (2018). The effects of ASEAN English accents on listening comprehension and attitudes of Thai students: The phenomenon of English as a Lingua Franca in ASEAN. *Asian EFL Journal*, 20(9.2), 90-107.

Wachirapong Yaemtui is a lecturer at the Department of Language and Intercultural Communication, International College for Sustainability Studies, Srinakharinwirot University. His research interests include English Language Teaching, English for Specific Purposes, English as a Lingua Franca, Applied Linguistics, and Discourse Analysis.

EFL Students' Perceptions of Their Graduation Internship: A Study at a Center of Foreign Languages in Vietnam

Luu Nguyen Quoc Hung
Can Tho University, Vietnam

Abstract—Graduation internship is a typical type of experiential learning. Educational institutions have increasingly offered various types of experiential learning through which students can develop knowledge, skills, and values from practical experiences outside traditional academic settings. Gaining professional experiences through graduation internship has enormous benefits, especially in this competitive employment market. This descriptive study aimed to investigate a group of EFL student interns for their perceived benefits and challenges of a five-week graduation internship at a center of foreign languages in a central university in South Vietnam. The findings revealed that all the interns had positive perceptions towards their graduation internship in spite of several typical challenges such as strict deadlines and the time limit of internship program.

Index Terms—benefits, challenges, experiential learning, graduation internship, interns

I. INTRODUCTION

Graduation internships have conventionally been used as a valuable way for university students to get first-hand job knowledge and practical experience to be ready for their employability in this increasingly competitive labor market (Galbraith & Mondal, 2020). In the context of EFL teaching and learning, graduation internship programs are designed for a smooth transition from student to teacher. At the same time through teaching internship assignments, the teacher training institutions can have valuable opportunity to evaluate teaching capabilities of their future colleagues (Mahdi, 2023).

Teaching internship for graduation in EFL context has been extensively studied around the world, especially in aspects of practice teaching and teacher-teaching enhancement (Tran & Vu, 2020). In line with numerous studies about obvious benefits of this teaching practice (Rogayan & Reusia, 2021), many researchers also examined typical challenges facing interns during their internship program (Aldabbus, 2020). While a considerable amount of research exists on internships in higher education settings, there is limited research exploring interns' perceptions of this type of experiential learning at a center of foreign languages.

This empirical study examines a group of EFL students about their perceived benefits and challenges with their graduation internship program at a center for foreign languages. Understanding prospective teachers' perceptions about teaching internship may provide both interns and educational administrators with necessary insights for improving the quality of the program.

II. LITERATURE REVIEW

A. Graduation Internship as an Experiential Learning

Graduation internship is one typical example of experiential learning, the process of which generally focuses on four important phases including experiencing, reflecting, thinking, and acting, which in turn, leads to further experiencing (Stirling et al., 2017). In general context, experiential learning programs may be of undergraduate research, studying abroad, internships, service learning or learning communities. In most universities, internship programs are popular as for university students, it is important to outsource their learning experiences, and not rely solely on the theoretical knowledge, particularly, in today's competitive labour market, many businesses generally prioritise applicants based on their level of experiential learning (Safitri et al., 2022).

B. Graduation Internship Program and Its Benefits

Participating in an internship program at educational institutions for students is believed to have many significant benefits. The students will be exposed to various situations where they can deepen their understanding of theoretical knowledge and its practical applications. Much of literature (Jogan, 2019) has identified typical advantages of teaching internships for students including academic benefits and job-related benefits. According to Chhinzer and Russo (2018), students undertaking internship program tend to improve their study outcomes because a number of academic skills such as analytical and creative thinking skills, information search and problem solving skills are specially enhanced

during internship program. Although a single internship experience may not guarantee students' learning outcomes and the performance may vary in different contexts, four categories of academic benefits are generally identified consisting of knowledge, academic-related competencies, non-technical competencies and technical competencies (Luk & Chan, 2021). Knowledge covers both general and disciplinary knowledge. Academic-related competencies include writing, problem-solving and research skills as well as the ability to identify the relationship between theory and practice. Technical competencies mainly refer to IT skills, while non-technical competencies generally refer to interpersonal skills.

Internship program is a good bridge to complete the gap between classrooms and workplace, which helps interns to learn job-related knowledge and skills together with workplace experience and skills (Bawica, 2021). During internship programs, classroom knowledge definitely becomes more practically meaningful. In general context, students who participate in work-related activities possess essential soft skills such as communication skills, teamwork, time management, etc., allowing students to better accelerate job performance (Shaheen et al., 2022).

C. Graduation Internship Program and Its Challenges

In spite of prominent advantages, several critics (Shaketange et al., 2017) have also expressed their concerns of internship programs. One common problem is the insufficient positions for internship in educational institutions at a specific time as graduation internship generally take place during a limited period. For this reason, the quality of internships may suffer when there is insufficient support or monitoring from the mentors or administrators (Hora & Chen, 2020). Another issue is about legal concern of unpaid internships, which is generally unethical and can lead to exploitation of young labour force (Rothschild & Rothschild, 2020). In addition, differing expectations from businesses, universities, and interns may lead to a lack of meaningful experiences for the stakeholders.

D. CFL and Its Graduation Internship Programs

The Center of Foreign Languages, Can Tho University, Vietnam (hereafter referred to as "the Center" or CFL), is one of the leading centers in Can Tho City, providing fee-paid courses of learning foreign languages including English, French, Chinese, Japanese and Korean with the total of about 2.000 learners at a time. The Center has its own policies of staff recruitment and staff development. Since the academic year 2022-2023, the Center has established a comprehensive program of graduation internship for undergraduates from different local universities to provide experiential learning for soon-to-graduate students. The program duration is 5 weeks. During the program, interns will be responsible for both teaching and office or administration work. For teaching, interns are required to attend teaching demonstrations, prepare assigned lesson plans, and have direct teaching sessions. For administration and office work, interns can help with tasks such as answering phones, acting as the front desk receptionist for learners, parents and visitors, and preparing learner's profile. If interns have their majors in related fields to communications, marketing, or social media, they can assist the Center with planning and creating social media posts, designing marketing leaflets, or brainstorming new marketing strategies to promote learning programs at the Center. They can also assist by translating documents of course descriptions, recruitment announcements or selected teaching materials from Vietnamese into a target language such as English, Chinese, Japanese or Korean. Interns' responsibilities are flexible and will vary based on each intern's skills sets. At the end of internship program, individual interns are evaluated based on the stated evaluation criteria.

III. METHODOLOGY

A. Research Design

In this study, a descriptive survey method was employed, in which online questionnaires were distributed to the all interns at a center of foreign languages. Questionnaires are considered an effective research tool that can help to collect data from a large number of respondents within a time constraint (Gay et al., 2012).

B. Participants

The survey was administered to all 35 interns at the CFL in the academic year 2023-2024. All of them are third-year students of English Studies program in Can Tho University. The basic characteristics of the participants are shown in Table 1.

TABLE 1
DEMOGRAPHICS DETAILS OF PARTICIPANTS (N = 35)

Characteristics	Number	Percentage
Gender:		
Female	23	65.7%
Male	12	34.3%

C. Instruments

There are three main parts in the survey. The first section consisted of 15 items about perceived benefits during graduation internship at the CFL. The second section had 10 items asking participants to list possible challenges. The

third section asked an open-ended question about interns' suggestions to improve quality of internship program.

IV. RESULTS

The results and discussion are presented based on a detailed analysis of the data analysis from the closed-ended and open-ended questions from the survey.

A. Result From the Closed-Ended Questions

(a). Benefits of Graduation Internship Program

The student participants were asked to rate their levels of agreement with the given benefits of graduation internship at the CFL. The results were presented in the Table 2.

TABLE 2
PERCEIVED BENEFITS OF GRADUATION INTERNSHIP PROGRAM (N = 35)

I (intern) can ...	Mean	SD	Scale				
			0	1	2	3	4
become more adaptable to different circumstances.	3.89	.323				4	31
enhance my communication skills.	3.83	.453			1	4	30
expand my working relationships.	3.80	.406				7	28
understand job values.	3.77	.490			1	6	28
build my future career plans.	3.77	.426				8	27
expand my professional knowledge.	3.74	.505			1	7	27
know how to perform vital tasks in the working position.	3.69	.530			1	9	25
apply academic knowledge on experiential learning.	3.69	.583			2	7	26
become more mature in terms of personality.	3.66	.639		1		9	25
confirm my career aspirations and career goals.	3.66	.539			1	10	24
enhance my team work skills.	3.63	.646		1		10	24
enhance my English language proficiency.	3.60	.812	1		1	8	25
enhance my employability skills.	3.60	.695		1	1	9	24
enhance my skills in computer and office facility usage.	3.57	.815	1		1	9	24
enhance my problem-solving skills.	3.54	.701		1	1	11	22
Overall mean score	3.69						

It is noteworthy that the student participants in this study recognized the benefit of “becoming more adaptable to different circumstances” as the most important with the highest mean score of 3.89. It is reasonable that adaptability is the key for success not only in the academic environment but more vital in any workplace (Razak et al., 2018).

“Enhancing my communication skills” and “expanding my working relationships” are two other perceived benefits with the high mean scores of 3.83 and 3.80, respectively. The results are much in line with previous study, emphasizing the influence of internships on the development of soft skills for students (Saleh & Muh, 2023).

The other benefits with which the interns agreed most are job-related such as “understanding job values”, “building my future career plans” and “expanding my professional knowledge”. It is expected that these benefits are highly recognized as internships are experience of practical work through which student interns are able to self-evaluate personal and professional abilities to prepare for career opportunities (Sadia, 2020).

“Knowing how to perform vital tasks in the working position” and “applying academic knowledge on experiential learning” are two stated benefits with the same mean scores of 3.69. Similarly, the two other benefits “becoming more mature in terms of personality” and “confirming my career aspirations and career goals” had the same relatively high mean scores of 3.60. It is explainable that most student participants in this study believed internships are a great opportunity to learn more about their personal interests and career goals.

The two perceived benefits “enhancing my skills in computer and office facility usage” and “enhancing my problem-solving skills” have the lowest mean scores of 3.57 and 3.54, respectively. It is speculated that the intern participants in this study had limited opportunity to learn and use office facilities such as photocopiers and facsimile machine, and it is expected that the interns are not fully responsible for solving problems during this experiential learning.

(b). Challenges of Graduation Internship Program

Beside the prominent benefits, the student participants were asked to rate their level of agreement with the stated challenges of their internship program. The following Table 3 presented the responses from the 35 interns.

TABLE 3
PERCEIVED CHALLENGES OF GRADUATION INTERNSHIP PROGRAM (N = 35)

During my internship, ...	Mean	SD	Scale				
			0	1	2	3	4
The Center is not respectful with the interns.	.43	1.065	28	4		1	2
The support from the Center is not sufficient enough.	.83	1.272	20	9	1	2	3
The assessing method of the internship is inappropriate.	.86	1.375	22	5	3	1	4
I have slow adaptation to the working environment.	1.20	1.256	12	12	7		4
I have a lack of confidence and dynamic.	1.26	1.268	10	16	3	2	4
The working time is not sufficient for me to learn from the internship job.	1.34	1.434	15	4	10	1	5
I do not have sufficient professional knowledge.	1.37	1.285	10	12	7	2	4
I do not have sufficient personal skills.	1.43	1.357	11	9	9	1	5
Tasks assigned do not relate to the major learnt at university.	1.46	1.442	14	4	8	5	4
The theories learnt do not relate to working tasks.	1.57	1.378	9	11	6	4	5
Overall mean score	1.18						

It is slightly surprising that most participants focused on the issues “The Center is not respectful with the interns” and “The support from the Center is not sufficient enough” as the most concern. It is noteworthy that very high percentage of the respondents disagreed with these challenges during their internship. This result is in accordance with several previous studies (Vo et al., 2022), indicating support from host organizations is vital for interns’ satisfaction.

The issue of “the assessing method of the internship is inappropriate” also has low level of agreement from the participants with the mean scores of 0.86. It is explainable that the student interns in this study were satisfactory with their internship’s performance evaluation; however, this speculation needs further investigation such as in-depth interviews.

The two challenges “I have slow adaptation to the working environment” and “I have a lack of confidence and dynamic” refer to personal readiness for a working environment. It is natural that inadequate preparation can cause a disappointing internship. Although the level of agreement with these challenges is not high, with the mean scores of 1.20 and 1.26, respectively, the results can be a good reference to help the interns to make the most of their internship time through necessary preparation such as following institutional internship guideline (Tan et al., 2023).

The perceived challenge “The theories learnt do not relate to working tasks” had the highest mean score of 1.57, though this value is not greatly significant for consideration. This finding is slightly consistent with the existing literature on internships, which suggests that they generally provide students with hands-on, practical experience that is often difficult to replicate in a classroom environment (Jolo et al., 2023).

B. Results From Open-Ended Question

In the survey questions, the participants were also invited to provide suggestions for improving internship quality from their own experience. Their answers were classified into the four main themes including extending the program length, assigning more hours of teaching demonstrations, allocating more flexible schedule to complete tasks, and building relationship between interns and their mentors.

Regarding the current 5-week program at the Center, most of the interns were not much satisfactory with this short time and proposed an internship program of at least 10-week duration, so that they can have more opportunities to learn and practice more extensively about the future job environment. Some common suggestions were as follows.

The centre should assign more working days per week from the beginning of the internship (three days a week is not enough to meet the requirement of 200 working hours for each intern student), so there are a lot of tasks to do when it comes to two weeks before the end of the internship.

I think our Center is already very good, but if possible, I think we just need to extend the internship program to 10 weeks.

The internship is very effective, but if we can have more time to learn and practice better. Five weeks is not sufficient for such experiential learning.

Another shared concern that many participants suggested is that the Center should arrange more hours for teaching demonstrations, especially with young learners. It is explainable that many of these interns may apply for their job position as English teachers at many language centers, and internship experience is a valuable preparation for their future.

I hope that the Center will assign 2 more teaching hours so that interns can practice more.

I think interns should have more opportunities to teach children because to be a good teacher requires a lot of extra-specialty skills like emotion management, time management, patience, etc...

From my perspective, I hope that interns can have more time for demo teaching so that they can practice more.

Several interns in the survey mentioned the issue of strict deadlines and the time constraint for completing tasks in time. They suggested allocating more appropriate tasks for both offline and online schedule. Some typical suggestions were as follows.

Try not to put too many deadlines on the last week of the internship.

I think the center should divide the time reasonably between weeks so that interns can accomplish tasks punctually.

The first week is very challenging as we are not familiar with the environment, and the last week is challenging with too many deadlines. The Center should allocate more flexible schedule.

Building more effective relationship between interns and their mentors to enhance the internship quality is also a common suggestion of many intern participants.

I expect to have more training and sharing sessions with mentors. It is very necessary to discuss and learn from our experienced mentors.

I suggest meeting the mentors at the very first week of the internship program so that we can discuss work plan better.

Working with the mentors is very useful and necessary. I suggest having more sharing sessions with mentors in different groups so that we can learn from each other better.

V. DISCUSSION

The results of the study revealed that the internship program was generally perceived as highly productive with the participants' strong agreement on the given benefits with the overall mean score of 3.69. It is expected that the internship has significant influence on the students' future career preparation (Galbraith & Mondal, 2020). The students in this study recognized the importance of communication skills and network relationships are key factors for job opportunities. The students also showed their high level of agreement with the received benefit of applying academic knowledge in various tasks during the internship program. It was also further revealed that skills in computer and office facility usage are necessary for students during internship. Indeed, a wide range of skills such as teamwork skills and problem-solving skills were recognized as beneficial in the internship programme.

Through this study, it was also found that the 5-week internship duration was significantly not sufficient to accomplish various tasks. As suggested in existing literature of teaching internship (Mwelwa & Mawela, 2021), a 12-week program can be appropriate and effective for many interns to adapt to this experiential learning process. Similarly, as commonly suggested in this study, many prospective teachers expect to have more hours of teaching demonstrations, especially with young learners as this is very valuable experience for their future career.

In terms of the perceived challenges of internship experience, most of the participants had low levels of agreement with the ten given suggested issues with the overall mean score of 1.18. In line with the extant literature that analyses the possible problems (Ugalingan et al., 2022; Vo et al., 2022), individual personality and personal preparation generally are the most concern. In this study, "slow adaptation to the working environment" and "lack of confidence and dynamic" are typical barriers for many interns. It is worth noting that the challenges encountered during the internship program can be necessary to prepare the prospective teachers for their readiness for different problems and situations in future work environment.

VI. CONCLUSION

Through a survey of self-perception, this study aims to investigate the student interns' view on the internship program at a center of foreign languages in Vietnam. The results revealed the participants' high level of agreement with the suggested benefits, and relatively low level of agreement with the given challenges during the internship. Some important suggestions to enhance the internship quality were also presented including extending more internship duration and building more effective relationship between interns and their mentors.

This study can be a valuable reference for student interns. A successful and qualified intern should be able to have a willingness to learn and practice. By this, it is expected that the intern students will face fewer challenges and have more meaningful experiences.

REFERENCES

- [1] Aldabbus, S. (2020). Challenges encountered by student teachers in practicing teaching. *British Journal of Education*, 8(7), 1-8. Retrieved June 15, 2024 from <https://www.eajournals.org/wp-content/uploads/Challenges-Encountered-by-Student-Teachers-in-Practicing-Teaching.pdf>
- [2] Bawica, I. M. (2021). The effects of internship program on the employability readiness. *International Journal of Academe and Industry Research*, 2(3), 86-101. Retrieved May 20, 2024 from <https://ijair.iiari.org/media/publications/348731-the-university-internship-program-and-it-1b493dc1.pdf>
- [3] Chhinzer, N. & Russo, A. M. (2018). An exploration of employer perceptions of graduate student employability. *Education + Training*, 60(3), 104-120. <https://doi.org/10.1108/ET-06-2016-0111>
- [4] Galbraith, D., & Mondal, S. (2020). The potential power of internships and the impact on career preparation. *Research in Higher Education Journal*, 38(1), 1-9. Retrieved June 21, 2024 from www.eric.ed.gov/fulltext/EJ1263677.pdf

- [5] Gay, L. R., Mills, G. E., & Airasian, P. (2012). *Educational research: Competencies for analysis and applications*. (10th Edn). New York. Pearson Education, Inc.
- [6] Hora, M., & Chen, Z. (2020). Problematizing college internships: Exploring issues with access, program design and developmental outcomes. *International Journal of Work-Integrated Learning*, 21(3), 235-252. Retrieved June 20, 2024 from <https://files.eric.ed.gov/fulltext/EJ1254749.pdf>
- [7] Jogan, S. N. (2019). Evaluating the effectiveness of a school internship. *International Journal for Social Studies*, 5(2), 227-235. Retrieved June 25, 2024 from <https://files.eric.ed.gov/fulltext/ED593865.pdf>
- [8] Jolo, S. M., Abegail C. I, & Saddam L. P. (2023). The role of internship on preparing students for employment: Empirical evidence from Basilan State College. *International Journal of Multidisciplinary Research and Publications*, 5(10), 133-140.
- [9] Luk, Y. Y. L., & Chan, K. Y. C. (2021). Students' learning outcomes from engineering internship: A provisional framework. *Studies in Continuing Education*, 44(3), 1-23. <https://doi.org/10.1080/0158037X.2021.1917536>
- [10] Mahdi, R. A. (2023). The degree of TESOL interns' satisfaction with the internship program at Qatar University. *Kurdish Studies*, 11(2), 3077-3093. <https://doi.org/10.58262/ks.v11i2.225>
- [11] Mawela, K., & Mawela, A. (2021). Effectiveness of internships as pedagogical practices in promoting employability skills amongst graduating students in selected social science degree programmes in Zambia. *International Journal of Educational Methodology*, 7(4), 649-668. <https://doi.org/10.12973/ijem.7.4.649>
- [12] Razak, N. A., Marmaya, N. H., Karim, R. A., Wee, N. M., & Ridzuan, A. R. (2018). Adaptive behavior towards work environment among internship students. *International Journal of Academic Research in Business and Social Sciences*, 8(11), 130–137. <http://dx.doi.org/10.6007/IJARBS/v8-i11/4889>
- [13] Rogayan, D. V., & Reusia, D. H. R. (2021). Teaching internship from the metaphorical lens of Filipino prospective teachers. *International Journal of Evaluation and Research in Education*, 10(3), 798-806. <https://doi.org/10.11591/ijere.v10i3.21242>
- [14] Rothschild, P. C., & Rothschild, C. L. (2020). The unpaid internship: Benefits, drawbacks, and legal issues. *Administrative Issues Journal: Connecting Education, Practice, and Research*, 10(2), 1-17. <https://doi.org/10.5929/2020.10.2.1>
- [15] Sadia, A. (2020). Impact of internship programs on professional and personal development of business students: A case study from Pakistan. *Future Business Journal*, 6(1), 1-13. <https://doi.org/10.1186/s43093-019-0007-3>
- [16] Safitri, H. D., Supriyanto, A., & Sobri, A. Y. (2022). College's internship program as a form of experiential learning and its effect towards students' skill. *Indonesian Journal of Environmental Education and Management*, 7(1), 27-37. <https://doi.org/10.21009/ijeem.v7i1.26288>
- [17] Saleh, S., & Muh, D. (2023). The influence of internships on the development of soft skills of office administration education students. *Pinisi Journal of Education and Management*, 2(1), 1.14. Retrieved June 20, 2024 from <https://ojs.unm.ac.id/PJoEM/article/download/46235/pdf>
- [18] Shaheen, F., Muzamil, M., & Shiraz, M. (2022). Impact of perceived value of internship on the employability skills of students at university level. *UMT Education Review*, 5(2), 47-67. <https://doi.org/10.32350/uer.52.03>
- [19] Shaketange, L., Kanyimba, A. T., & Brown, E. (2017). The challenges and measures for internship among fourth-year students in the department of lifelong learning and community education at the university of Namibia. *Creative Education*, 8(1), 2258-2274. <https://doi.org/10.4236/ce.2017.814155>
- [20] Stirling, A. E., Kerr, G., MacPherson, E., Banwell, J., Bandlealy, A., & Battaglia, A. (2017). Do postsecondary internships address the four learning modes of experiential learning theory? An exploration through document analysis. *Canadian Journal of Higher Education*, 47(1), 27-48. <https://doi.org/10.47678/cjhe.v47i1.186196>
- [21] Tan, N., Shien, C., & Ong, C. (2023). Promoting student readiness for work-life through internships: Challenges and support. *Australian Journal of Adult Learning*, 63(3), 343-367. Retrieved June 30, 2024 from <https://files.eric.ed.gov/fulltext/EJ1409388.pdf>
- [22] Tran, T. N., & Vu, T. Q. T. (2020). An investigation of the benefits and challenges of graduation internship perceived by students of English language studies. *International Journal of Language and Literary Studies*, 2(4), 83-97. <https://doi.org/10.36892/ijlls.v2i4.455>
- [23] Vo, T. N., Le, H. P. L., & Lam, T. T. V. (2022) Challenges for student satisfaction of internship program in hospitality and tourism industry in Vietnam. *Journal of Quality Assurance in Hospitality & Tourism*, 23(5), 1298-1324. <https://doi.org/10.1080/1528008X.2021.1964414>
- [24] Ugalingan, G. B., Bautista, A., & Lucas, R. I. (2022). Internship experiences of pre-service teachers: A case study of EFL Korean students in the Philippines. *Journal of English and Applied Linguistics*, 1(2), 42-53. <https://doi.org/10.59588/2961-3094.1020>



Luu Nguyen Quoc Hung is an associate professor in English language teaching at Can Tho University. He has been teaching English for 32 years, and currently a director of the Center for Foreign Languages, Can Tho University. He holds a BA in TESOL from Can Tho University, an MEd in Educational Leadership and Management from RMIT International University, Vietnam, and a PhD in Education from the University of Wollongong. His research interests focus on academic performance appraisal and quality assurance in higher education, social-cognitive theory in teaching and learning, and pedagogy of teaching English for young learners.

Enhancing Vocabulary Acquisition Efficiency Through Metacognitive Strategies and Vocabulary Tasks: A Study of EFL Learners in a Taiwanese University of Technology

Hsiu-Lien Tu

The Language Center, Chaoyang University of Technology, Taichung, Taiwan

Abstract—Recently, universities of technology in Taiwan have shifted their emphasis from teaching everyday English to workplace English to improve graduates' employability. Such a transformation has presented significant challenges to college students from universities of technology with low learning proficiency. Particularly when acquiring workplace English vocabulary, including unfamiliar terminology, a large number of complex words, and diverse meanings, EFL learners in universities of technology frequently confront a range of obstacles. Therefore, learners need to implement effective learning strategies, such as metacognitive strategies, to enhance their vocabulary acquisition proficiency. In addition, educators can design appropriate vocabulary task activities to improve learners' vocabulary acquisition efficiency. This study aims to investigate the efficacy of learners' metacognitive strategies and suitable vocabulary tasks in enhancing their vocabulary acquisition efficiency. The results reveal that frequent utilization of metacognitive strategies improves vocabulary acquisition in comparison to low-frequency users. Furthermore, the degree of vocabulary task involvement also impacts vocabulary retention. These findings demonstrate that metacognitive strategies and vocabulary tasks can promote vocabulary acquisition and provide educators with an opportunity to improve English vocabulary learning efficiency for EFL learners in universities of technology.

Index Terms—vocabulary acquisition, metacognitive strategies, vocabulary task activities, EFL learners, vocabulary retention

I. INTRODUCTION

English language courses are initiated for most Taiwanese students in the first grade of elementary school, and some even begin at kindergarten, implying that students have over 12 years of English learning experience before entering university. Despite such extended learning, college students at universities of technology are not performing as expected. A significant number of students abandoned English in junior high due to struggling with grammar and insufficient vocabulary. To ensure students' English learning while accommodating their abilities, the Ministry of Education's Curriculum Review Committee in 2018 reduced the required English vocabulary for vocational high school students by 1,000 words compared to general high school students. Nevertheless, it remains challenging for vocational high school students to meet this standard. With only two hours per week devoted to English courses at vocational high schools, which is half the time for general high schools, the odds are stacked against vocational high school students' proficiency in English. At universities of technology, most schools continue with only two hours of English classes per week, with a shift towards workplace English to equip technical students with the skills for future employment. Students find workplace English topics such as recruitment, company organization, and business trips unfamiliar, with limited vocabulary to aid their learning.

In recent years, there has been growing interest in the relationship between metacognitive strategies and vocabulary learning, with many studies exploring the effectiveness of various metacognitive techniques in enhancing learners' vocabulary acquisition and retention. In addition, there is a growing body of research investigating the relationship between task-induced involvement load (TIL) and vocabulary learning. TIL refers to the cognitive effort required to complete a task, including attention, memory, and problem-solving. Tasks that require higher TIL are thought to promote deeper processing and greater language gains. Therefore, the research objective is to investigate the relationship between the use of metacognitive strategies and task-induced involvement load in vocabulary acquisition.

II. LITERATURE REVIEW

A. Involvement Load Hypothesis

Acquiring a second language heavily relies on vocabulary as its foundation. However, research on vocabulary acquisition in ESL did not gain significant attention until the 1990s. Krashen (1989) argued that reading not only enhances

learners' vocabulary but also their spelling ability. Nevertheless, Fraser (1999) questioned whether reading is the most effective means of vocabulary learning for L2 learners, acknowledging that while incidental vocabulary learning occurs in reading, there is no agreement on its effectiveness as a vocabulary learning approach. On the other hand, the acquisition of new vocabulary words among adult learners can be facilitated through communication and interaction, as proposed by Newtown (1995). An experiment on incidental vocabulary learning for advanced learners was carried out by Hulstijn et al. (1996), who observed that incidental learning can be facilitated by providing marginal gloss if not allowing learners to refer to dictionaries. Conversely, Paribkht and Wesche (1997) discovered that the integration of reading with vocabulary exercises could prove to be more advantageous in learners' acquisition of vocabulary than reading in isolation. To sum up, the effectiveness of incidental learning can be enhanced by introducing supplementary tasks. Therefore, Laufer and Hulstijn (2001) developed the Involvement Load Hypothesis, which uses the concepts of need, search, and evaluation to explore the relationship between memory and different facets of deep processing. Motivation propels the need component, which can stem from either externally imposed or self-imposed factors. A moderate need arises when a teacher requires a learner to use a specific word in a sentence, while a strong need arises when it is self-imposed by the learner. The search dimension involves actively trying to learn the meaning of a new vocabulary word, which can be accomplished through consulting a dictionary or seeking assistance from a teacher. Finally, the evaluation dimension involves comparing the meaning and form of words to assess their appropriateness in a given context. Moderate evaluation is needed when identifying differences between words or senses, while strong evaluation necessitates making decisions about additional words to combine with the new word in an original sentence or text.

To summarize, the Involvement Load Hypothesis outlines three interrelated dimensions of vocabulary learning that represent the learners' motivation, attention, and cognitive effort during the process. The need component pertains to the motivational aspect of involvement, with the degree of need reflecting the strength of the motivation, whether it is externally imposed or self-imposed. The search involves active efforts to learn the meaning of unfamiliar words or concepts, while evaluation entails comparing the meaning and form of words to determine the most appropriate one for a given context. The levels of moderate and strong need, search, and evaluation reflect varying degrees of involvement, reflecting different levels of cognitive effort and attentional allocation to the L2 vocabulary acquisition process.

One of the purposes of this study was to examine the efficacy of incidental vocabulary learning and retention for EFL learners enrolled at a university of technology in Taiwan. When completing the article, the subjects were instructed to take a test assessing their comprehension of the material. In addition, to better understand the impact of the subjects' incidental vocabulary learning and retention, the two vocabulary tasks, fill-in-the-blank tasks, and smartphone app activities would be introduced.

B. Metacognition

(a). Early Research in Metacognition

In the 1970s, Flavell (1981) brought significant attention to the idea of metacognition and defined metacognition as meta-cognitive knowledge and experience, and strategic employment of metacognitive processes. Paris (1991) further divided metacognition into two major parts: cognitive self-assessment knowledge, which includes declarative knowledge, procedural knowledge, and conditional knowledge, and self-regulated thinking, which includes planning, monitoring, and regulating. This categorization emphasizes the importance of both the knowledge about one's own cognitive processes and the ability to use that knowledge to manage one's own thinking effectively. Early metacognition research focused primarily on children and aimed to explore their knowledge developed during the memory process.

(b). Metacognition in Second Language (ESL) Teaching and Learning

The focus on metacognitive research of ESL learners was not acknowledged until the 21st century. According to Anderson (2002), metacognition refers to the act of reflecting on one's own thinking. By using metacognitive strategies, individuals can stimulate their cognitive processes and potentially achieve more effective learning outcomes. In fact, as Anderson notes, acquiring the ability to comprehend and regulate one's own cognitive processes may be a critical skill for second language learners to develop, and educators can play an important role in fostering its development. Drawing on prior research, Anderson has put forward a set of five primary elements that constitute metacognition. These consist of the following: (1) Preparing and planning for learning. Students can enhance their motivation for learning by setting clear, challenging, and realistic goals with the help of their teacher, which involves preparation, planning, and reflection on their progress toward achieving their goals within a set time frame. (2) Selecting and using learning strategies. It allows learners to make conscious decisions about the learning process. It is essential to educate students not only on the use of learning strategies but also on when and how to use them to optimize their effectiveness in various learning contexts. (3) Monitoring strategy use. To increase their likelihood of achieving learning goals, students should evaluate and regulate their use of learning strategies. It is essential to instruct students explicitly to periodically assess the effectiveness and proper implementation of their selected strategies, such as by pausing while reading to verify the accuracy of their vocabulary in context and modify their approach if necessary. (4) Orchestrating various strategies. The ability to coordinate and integrate various strategies is a crucial metacognitive skill that distinguishes strong from weak second language learners. Teachers can help students develop this skill by teaching them multiple strategies and how to recognize when a strategy is ineffective and switch to another. (5) Evaluating strategy use and learning. Second-language learners

engage in metacognition when they evaluate the effectiveness of their learning strategies. This reflective process integrates all aspects of metacognition, including preparation and planning, selecting and using strategies, monitoring strategy use, and orchestrating strategies, allowing learners to evaluate their learning cycle comprehensively. On the other hand, Haukås (2018) defined metacognition as an awareness of and reflection on one's knowledge, experiences, emotions, and learning, specifically within the contexts of language learning and teaching. The importance of prior knowledge in subsequent learning is highlighted, and the role of metacognition in reflecting on both known and unknown aspects of learning is elucidated. Additionally, Haukås pointed out that the correlation between metacognition and language awareness is underscored by the fact that metacognition necessitates the introspective analysis of one's knowledge, experiences, emotions, and learning within the three subdomains of language, language learning, and language teaching. In short, metacognition is crucial for successful language learning and teaching.

(c). *Teaching and Learning Metacognition*

Numerous empirical studies have supported the affirmative influence of metacognition on ESL learning (Rahimirad & Reza, 2014; Mahmoud & Oraby, 2015; Teng, 2020; Wongdaenga & Higgins, 2023). However, metacognition is thinking about thinking, and thinking cannot be directly taught. Teachers must focus on fostering and guiding learners' metacognitive abilities through carefully designed curriculum activities. As Wilson and Bai (2010) suggest, teachers play a critical role in cultivating learners' metacognitive strategies by creating learning environments that encourage and support students to think deeply and reflectively about their learning processes. By doing so, teachers can help learners become more aware of their own thinking, develop effective learning strategies, and ultimately enhance their overall learning outcomes.

(d). *Oxford's Strategy Inventory for Language Learning (SILL)*

The SILL is a widely used tool for assessing language learning strategies in students of second and foreign languages. Developed by Rebecca L. Oxford in 1989, the SILL has undergone several revisions, with the current version, Version 7.0, designed specifically for ESL/EFL students. The SILL is a valuable tool for identifying areas where students need improvement and helping them develop more effective language learning strategies. It has been extensively used in research studies and has demonstrated reliable and valid results. The SILL comprises a comprehensive taxonomy of language learning strategies, divided into six parts: memory strategies, cognition strategies, compensation strategies, metacognition strategies, affective strategies, and social strategies. Each part consists of a series of statements, which students rate on a scale of 1 to 5 based on how true each statement is for them.

This study employed the metacognitive strategy items (Questions 30, 32, 33, 34, 36, 37, 38) from the SILL and adapted them into 14 metacognitive strategy items. The adapted items were used in a questionnaire administered to tertiary-level EFL learners. The other objective of this study was to explore the potential correlation between the utilization of metacognitive strategies among EFL students and their impact on word acquisition.

III. RESEARCH QUESTIONS

This study aims to examine the impact of various vocabulary tasks on learners' performance of vocabulary retention within the context of task-induced involvement. Furthermore, the study seeks to explore the extent to which learners' metacognition strategies affect their vocabulary acquisition efficiency. To this end, the following research questions will be addressed:

- (1) What is the relationship between the level of involvement in vocabulary tasks and the efficacy of vocabulary retention?
- (2) How is a learner's performance in vocabulary acquisition associated with their utilization of metacognition strategies?

IV. METHOD

A. *Research Design*

This study utilized a quasi-experimental design comprising one experimental group and one control group, both of which completed two vocabulary tasks at similar levels of language proficiency. The data used in this study were collected during my prior research (Tu, 2023), where participants were recruited from a university of technology in Taiwan. The current study applies this dataset to investigate vocabulary acquisition efficiency through metacognitive strategies and vocabulary tasks. The research design had two parts. Firstly, in the initial week, participants from both groups completed a metacognition questionnaire adapted from SILL to determine the metacognition strategies they used in vocabulary learning. Secondly, in the following week, vocabulary tasks and tests were carried out. The participants took a pre-test in the first week to establish their prior knowledge of the target words. Then, an immediate test was administered after they finished the tasks, followed by a post-test a week later. All tests were conducted in an online format.

B. *Participants*

The study recruited two groups of 34 EFL learners at the tertiary level, comprising 10 male and 24 female participants. The majors of the participants encompassed diverse fields, such as Insurance, Accounting, Leisure Management, Finance, Business Administration, Marketing, Golden-Ager Industry Management, and Applied Chemistry. The age range of the participants was relatively narrow, with all of them being young adults between 19 and 20 years old. Notably, the sample size had initially consisted of 48 participants. However, due to various reasons, such as personal commitments and scheduling conflicts, a subset of participants withdrew from the study, resulting in a final sample size of 34 participants (n=34).

C. Instruments

The study employed two instruments for research purposes. Firstly, a metacognition questionnaire adapted from SILL was administered. Secondly, a reading passage pertaining to workplace English was selected. From this passage, a total of seven vocabulary items were chosen as target words to be used in the vocabulary tasks. Finally, vocabulary pre-, immediate, and post-tests were implemented to gather data for the study.

(a). Metacognition Questionnaire

The questionnaire covers a range of strategies, including word association, active learning, word grouping, ongoing review, scheduled review, and strategy evaluation. Respondents are instructed to indicate the frequency of their use of each strategy using a 5-point Likert scale ranging from "Never" to "Always," which provides insight into their metacognitive awareness of effective vocabulary learning practices.

The survey outcomes have been partitioned into two distinct clusters based on participants' reported employment of metacognitive strategies: a high-use group and a low-use group. Specifically, the high-use group consists of respondents whose questionnaire scores ranked within the top half of the total scale score, whereas the low-use group is comprised of those whose scores ranked within the bottom half of the total scale score. Table 1 presents the results of the questionnaire survey conducted in the present study.

TABLE 1
EMPLOYMENT OF METACOGNITIVE STRATEGIES

Task	High-use group	Low-use group
Reading and comprehension questions and filling in blanks	12	7
Reading and comprehension questions and smartphone app	4	11
Total	16	18

(b). Reading Passage

The selected reading materials for the study were sourced from Crane Publishing's New TOEIC textbook and consisted of two business trip-related emails (Lai & Liu, 2011). The first email is from a business traveler who had made an online reservation and seeks information on the hotel check-out policy. The second email, written by a hotel clerk, provides an explanation of the check-out policy. These emails are followed by a set of five questions that assess comprehension.

(c). Target Words

In this study, seven business trip-related vocabulary terms were chosen for examination. Of these seven words, six were determined to be unfamiliar to participants based on a vocabulary pre-test. These unfamiliar terms included 'accessible', 'embarkation', 'representative', 'reservation', 'terminal', and 'valid'. In contrast, the term 'expense' was found to be familiar to a majority (76%) of participants in the pre-test.

(d). Vocabulary Tasks & Task Involvement Load

Two groups of participants were assigned to complete two vocabulary tasks - a reading task and a fill-in-the-blanks task, and a reading task and a smartphone app task. Both tasks required the participants to read a passage and answer five comprehension questions. The fill-in-blank group had to complete seven fill-in-blank questions with the aid of L1 translation, while the smartphone app group utilized the Word Up app to create a list of seven target words and practice vocabulary. Word Up is a mobile app designed for English language learners, providing them with various learning materials and vocabulary activities, such as personalized vocabulary lists with definitions, synonyms, antonyms, and sentence examples, note-taking and picture-uploading features, and a variety of reviewing exercises like card flipping games, spelling, and listening & spelling.

The involvement load index of the reading task and the fill-in-blank task was moderate, with a need score of 2, no search, and moderate evaluation. On the other hand, the involvement load index of the reading task and smartphone app task was higher, with a need score of 3, strong search, and no evaluation. The involvement load index of the smartphone app task was found to be greater than that of the fill-in-blank task.

Table 2 provides a summary of the analysis described above, with the absence of an involvement factor marked by a minus (-), moderate presence indicated by a plus (+), and strong presence denoted by a double plus (++)

TABLE 2
TASK-INDUCE INVOLVEMENT LOAD

Tasks	Need	Search	Evaluation
Reading and comprehension questions and fill-in-the-blanks	+	0	+
Reading and comprehension questions and smartphone app	+	++	0

(e). Vocabulary Tests & Scoring

To measure the participants' vocabulary knowledge, a pre-test was conducted, followed by two post-tests to assess their vocabulary learning. The same target words were used in all three tests, but in a different order to prevent any recency effect. The pre-test was administered one week prior to the experiment, while the two post-tests were given immediately after the task implementation and one week later. All three tests were conducted using an online testing platform. Each test comprised of seven target words in English, and participants were required to provide the correct definition in L1. A score of 2 points was awarded for each correct answer, while incorrect or unanswered items were scored 0 points.

D. Data Analysis

Quantitative methods were used to analyze the data collected in the study. Firstly, a correlation analysis was conducted between data collected from the metacognition survey and the immediate post-test scores. Secondly, descriptive statistics, including average scores and standard deviations, were calculated for the immediate and delayed post-tests to compare the performance of the two groups. Finally, a one-way ANOVA was performed to test for differences in memory performance between the fill-in-blank group and the smartphone app group. The types of vocabulary tasks served as independent variables, while the immediate and delayed post-test scores of the participants were dependent variables.

V. RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

The descriptive results of the gain scores for the two tasks in the pre-test, immediate post-test, and delayed post-test are presented in Tables 3, 4, and 5. Table 3 displays the pre-test results of the two groups. The fill-in-blank group achieved a mean score of 9.41 with a standard deviation of 3.67, while the smartphone app group achieved a mean score of 4.23 with a standard deviation of 3.30. Table 4 shows the results of the immediate post-test, indicating that the mean score for the fill-in-blank group slightly increased to 10.23 with a standard deviation of 3.52. In contrast, the mean score for the smartphone app group dramatically increased to 12.94 with a standard deviation of 2.01. Finally, Table 5 reveals the mean scores and standard deviations of the two groups in the delayed post-test, where the fill-in-blank group obtained a mean score of 10.7 with a standard deviation of 3.31, and the smartphone app group obtained a mean score of 10 with a standard deviation of 5.14.

TABLE 3
DESCRIPTIVE STATISTICS FOR TWO GROUPS IN PRE-TEST

	Task	N	Mean	SD
pre-test	Reading and comprehension questions and fill-in-the-blanks	17	9.41	3.67
	Reading and comprehension questions and smartphone app	17	4.23	3.30

TABLE 4
DESCRIPTIVE STATISTICS FOR TWO GROUPS IN IMMEDIATE POST-TEST

	Task	N	Mean	SD
Immediate post-test	Reading and comprehension questions and fill-in-the-blanks	17	10.23	3.52
	Reading and comprehension questions and smartphone app	17	12.94	2.01

TABLE 5
DESCRIPTIVE STATISTICS FOR TWO GROUPS IN DELAYED POST-TEST

	Task	N	Mean	SD
Delayed post-test	Reading and comprehension questions and fill-in-the-blanks	17	10.7	3.31
	Reading and comprehension questions and smartphone app	17	10	5.14

The primary research inquiry for this study is to investigate the relationship between the level of involvement in vocabulary tasks and the effectiveness of vocabulary retention. To address this research question, a one-way ANOVA analysis was conducted to compare the scores of two distinct vocabulary tasks. The results of both groups on immediate and delayed post-tests are presented in Tables 6 and 7, respectively. As demonstrated in Table 6, the scores of the smartphone app group, which had a higher involvement load index, were found to be significantly better than those of the filling-in-blank group, with a statistically significant mean difference at the $p < 0.5$ level. Subsequently, a t-test was

employed to compare the progress scores of both groups on the immediate posttest, revealing a significant difference between the two groups, as shown in Table 8. However, the lack of a statistically significant difference obtained from the ANOVA test in Table 8 could also imply that the tasks performed were inadequate for long-term vocabulary retention.

TABLE 6
ANOVA FOR IMMEDIATE POST-TEST

	SS	df	MS	F	Sig.
Between Groups	62.235	1	62.235	7.543	0.009
Within Groups	264	32	8.25		
Total	326.234	33			

* $p < .05$

TABLE 7
ANOVA FOR DELAYED POST-TEST

	SS	df	MS	F	Sig.
Between Groups	4.235	1	4.235	0.22606	0.637
Within Groups	599.529	32	18.735		
Total	603.764	33			

* $p > .05$

TABLE 8
DESCRIPTIVE STATISTICS & T-TEST FOR IMMEDIATE POST-TEST

	N	M	SD	t
Reading and comprehension questions and fill-in-the-blanks	17	10.235	3.527	2.684*
Reading and comprehension questions and smartphone app	17	12.941	2.014	

* $p > .05$

In response to the second research question, an investigation was conducted to examine the correlation distribution between the utilization of metacognitive strategies and vocabulary test scores. As shown in Table 9, the results indicate that there is no significant correlation between the two variables.

TABLE 9
SCATTER PLOT OF METACOGNITION STRATEGY EMPLOYMENT AND VOCABULARY TEST SCORES



However, Table 10 presents a positive but weak correlation between the two variables, with a Pearson correlation coefficient of 0.117277455. This indicates that while there is a positive relationship between the utilization of metacognitive strategies and vocabulary test scores, the strength of this relationship is quite low. Moreover, the covariance of 2.788927336 in Table 11 suggests that the variables tend to change together, albeit not by a large magnitude.

TABLE 10
CORRELATION

	metacognition strategy employment	vocabulary test
metacognition strategy employment	1	
vocabulary test	0.117277455	1

TABLE 11
COVARIANCE

	<i>Metacognition strategy employment</i>	<i>vocabulary test</i>
metacognition strategy employment	58.93771626	
vocabulary test	2.788927336	9.595155709

In light of these findings, it can be concluded that while there is some association between the utilization of metacognitive strategies and vocabulary test scores, it is not strong enough to make any definitive conclusions or predictions based solely on these results. Further research may be required to investigate other potential factors that could influence the relationship between the variables.

VI. CONCLUSION

In conclusion, this study explored the impact of vocabulary tasks and metacognition strategies on learners' vocabulary retention in the context of task-induced involvement. The findings demonstrate that learners who were highly involved in vocabulary tasks achieved a significantly higher level of vocabulary retention than those who were less involved. This highlights the importance of task design and involvement load index in vocabulary acquisition. Additionally, the findings suggest a positive relationship between the utilization of metacognitive strategies and vocabulary test scores, although the strength of this relationship is not particularly strong.

Overall, this study contributes to the field of second language acquisition by shedding light on the relationship between task design, metacognition strategies, and vocabulary retention. It provides practical implications for language educators in designing effective vocabulary tasks and promoting learners' metacognitive awareness in vocabulary acquisition. The study also provides a basis for further research into the impact of other factors, such as learners' motivation and individual differences, on vocabulary acquisition.

REFERENCES

- [1] Anderson, N. J. (2002). The role of metacognition in second language teaching and learning. *ERIC Digest*, April 2002, 3-4.
- [2] Fraser, C. A. (1999). Lexical Processing Strategy Use and Vocabulary Learning Through Reading. *SSLA*, 21, 225-241.
- [3] Flavell, J. H. (1981). Cognitive monitoring. In W. P. Dickson (Ed.), *Children oral communication skills* (pp. 35-60). NY: Academic Press.
- [4] Haukås, Å. (2018). Metacognition in Language Learning and Teaching: An Overview. In Å. Haukås, C. Bjørke and M. Dypedahl (Eds.), *Metacognition in Language Learning and Teaching* (pp. 11-30). NY: Routledge.
- [5] Hulstijn, J. H., Hollander, M. and Greidanus, T. (1996). Incidental Vocabulary Learning by Advanced Foreign Language Students: The Influence of Marginal Glosses, Dictionary Use, and Reoccurrence of Unknown Words. *The Modern Language Journal*, 80(3), 327-330.
- [6] Krashen, S. (1989). We Acquire Vocabulary and Spelling by Reading: Additional Evidence for the Input Hypothesis. *Modern Language Journal*, 73, 440-463.
- [7] Laufer, B. and Hulstijn, J. (2001). Incidental Vocabulary Acquisition in a Second Language: The Construct of Task-Induced Involvement. *Applied Linguistics*, 22(1), 1-26.
- [8] Mahmoud, S. and Oraby, K. K. (2015) Let Them Toil to Learn: Implicit Feedback, Self-correction and Performance in EFL Writing. *Theory and Practice in Language Studies*, 5(8), 1672-1681.
- [9] Newtown. (1995). Task-based Interaction and Incidental Vocabulary Learning: A Case Study. *Second Language Research*, 11(2), 159-177.
- [10] Oxford, R. L. (1989). *Strategy Inventory for Language Learning* (Version 7.0), Tuscaloosa, AL: Oxford Associates.
- [11] Paribkht, T. S. and Wesche, M. (1997). Reading and 'Incidental' L2 Vocabulary Acquisition: An Introspective Study of Lexical Inferencing. *Second Language Acquisition*, 21(2), Special Issue: Incidental L2 Vocabulary Acquisition: Theory, Current Research, and Instructional Implications, 195-224.
- [12] Paris, S. G. (1991). Assessment and remediation of metacognitive aspects of children's reading comprehension. *Topics in Language Disorders*, 12(1), 32-50.
- [13] Rahimirad, M. and Reza, M. (2014). The Effect of Activating Metacognitive Strategies on the Listening Performance and Metacognitive Awareness of EFL Students. *International Journal of Listening*, 28(3), 162-172.
- [14] Teng, F. (2020). The Role of Metacognitive Knowledge and Regulation in Mediating University EFL Learners' Writing Performance. *Innovation in Language Learning and Teaching*, 14(5), 436-450.
- [15] Tu, H. L. (2023). The Effect of Integrating Mobile Application in Workplace English Vocabulary Acquisition. *Proceedings of the 2023 9th International Conference on Frontiers of Educational Technologies*, 2023.
- [16] Wongdaenga, M. and Higgins, S. (2023). Effectiveness of metacognitive interventions in tertiary EFL contexts: evidence from a systematic review and meta-analysis. *Innovation in Language Learning and Teaching*, 17(4), 795-811.



Hsiu-Lien Tu, born in Taichung, Taiwan on November 21, 1974, embarked on an educational journey that led her to a Bachelor of Arts in Applied Foreign Language from the National Taichung University of Science and Technology in 2005. Building on her foundation, she achieved a Master of Science in Education from The University of Edinburgh in 2006. Subsequently, her academic pursuit culminated in a Ph.D. in Literature from National Chung Hsing University in 2021. Her doctoral research, guided by Dr. Hannes Bergthaller, delved into "An Analysis of the Representation of Nuclear Risk in Taiwanese Fiction of the 1980s and 2010s & an EFL Curriculum Design of Risk Education for Tertiary-Level Learners," showcasing her dedication to English education.

This commitment reverberates throughout her distinguished career. Since September 2007, she has been a dedicated full-time instructor at Chaoyang University of Technology in Taichung, Taiwan. Noteworthy achievements include founding the Chaoyang Tech Toastmasters Club, hosting English meetings, and orchestrating elite English programs that facilitated IELTS Exam success. Her innovative curriculum design, comprehensive learning materials, and pivotal role in nurturing English language skills exemplify her devotion to teaching. Alongside her pedagogical endeavors, her research contributions have garnered recognition in esteemed conferences and journals.

Dr. Tu's unwavering dedication to English education is underscored by her recognition, including the Teaching Excellence Award, and acknowledgment for her outstanding performance in teaching practice research programs. Her persistent focus remains on researching learning methodologies that effectively benefit English language learners.

Words That Propel: The Power of Motivational Quotes in the EFL Class

Amal A. Alwasidi*

Department of English Language and Literature, College of Languages and Translation, Imam Mohammad Ibn Saud Islamic University (IMSIU), Riyadh, Saudi Arabia

Lubna A. Alnaeem

Department of English Language and Literature, College of Languages and Translation, Imam Mohammad Ibn Saud Islamic University (IMSIU), Riyadh, Saudi Arabia

Abstract—Motivation plays a key role in EFL students' academic accomplishment and engagement in learning. With a growing interest in exploring various tactics to foster student motivation, teachers' use of motivational practices has received extensive attention. The present study aimed to explore the influence of digital motivational quotes on Saudi EFL students' overall attitudes and motivation toward learning English. To this end, one hundred undergraduates majoring in English were selected, through random sampling, to respond to the mini version of the Attitudes/Motivation Test Battery (Gardner & MacIntyre, 1993). Divided into control and experimental groups, the latter received a set of digital motivational quotes for ten weeks. To detect any possible effect, both groups responded to the same scale. Qualitative data was also obtained to further confirm the quantitative data. Results showed that motivation levels were moderate before the treatment and increased significantly among the experimental group students afterward. The increase was evident in all categories of motivation. Qualitative data analysis indicated that the intervention fostered students' motivation, specifically by empowering them to overcome challenges and maintain a positive attitude and a determined mindset. These findings have informative implications for teachers, educators, and syllabus designers.

Index Terms—digital motivational quotes, EFL learners, motivation, attitudes, perceptions

I. INTRODUCTION

In a challenging world where a sufficient level of English is necessary for better job opportunities and effective communication, the need to learn English as a second language (ESL) or a foreign language (EFL) becomes a non-stopping pulse (Vonkova et al., 2021). However, some learners are more motivated to learn English than others, while some learners completely lack the motivation to learn. This could sometimes challenge ESL/EFL teachers particularly when learners with varying motivation levels share the same class (Wallace & Leong, 2020). Despite such variations in learners' desires, enhancing their motivation has long been highly advocated by most teachers for the positive effects it can yield in the learning and teaching process (Schmidt & Watanabe, 2001). In this respect, Ilter (2009) believes that EFL learners who learn the language in an unnatural conversational context, where language is mostly restricted to classroom settings, need more motivation than other learners.

Moreover, motivation has always been considered, among many psychological attributes such as intelligence and aptitude, as an important factor in ESL/EFL environments (Hashemifardnia et al., 2021; Rahimi & Fathi, 2021). More strictly, for some researchers, motivation is an extremely important factor that affects second language (SL) learning (Derakhshan et al., 2021; Pawlak et al., 2021). According to Brown (2000), motivation is a construct that indicates the failure or success of any challenging task. In a similar line, as stated by Kalanzadeh et al. (2014) "A socio-psychological factor frequently used to account for differential success in learning a second language is motivation" (p. 814). Gardner (1985) strongly believes that successful L2 programs should have both linguistic and non-linguistic aims. In addition to the linguistic goals reflected in the learners' ability to read, write, etc., learners should be assessed in terms of non-linguistic aspects such as understanding other communities, motivations, attitudes, and interests. Such variables are proposed in the socio-educational model of L2 acquisition that is concerned with the role of individual differences among L2 students. Despite the great awareness of how motivation is effective in ESL/EFL learning, some questions remain essential in understanding the structure of language learners' motivation and the factors that can enhance its levels. According to Schmidt and Watanabe (2001), teachers' endeavors to know more about motivation and how to increase it among their learners never stopped throughout the decades.

The role of technology in many aspects of language learning and teaching is highly noticeable, and motivation is not an exception. It has been argued that using technology in EFL classrooms can be one of the probable reasons for motivation which results in greater involvement in the language learning process (Kalanzadeh et al., 2014). According to Ilter (2009), it can be much easier and faster to enhance levels of EFL learners' motivation with the help of technology which in turn facilitates their learning and makes it more enjoyable. Fostering language learners' motivation with the help

* Corresponding Author.

of technology can take different pictures such as web-based activities (Stepp-Greany, 2002), authentic films (Chapple & Curtis, 2000), augmented reality (Chen, 2020) interactive video-based virtual reality (Chen & Hwang, 2022), and mobile-game based language learning applications (Gamlo, 2019). This study extends the line of research on motivation with a different emphasis as it aims to identify the attitudes and motivations of Saudi EFL learners toward learning English as a foreign language and examine how they can be affected by digital motivational quotes. The study aims to address the following questions:

1. What are the Saudi EFL learners' attitudes and motivations toward learning English?
2. What is the effect of digital motivational quotes on Saudi EFL learners' attitudes and motivations?
3. What are the perceptions of Saudi EFL learners of digital motivational quotes?

II. LITERATURE REVIEW

Generally, Brown (1994) defined motivation as “the extent to which you make choices about (a) goals to pursue and (b) the effort you will devote to that pursuit” (p. 34). It is the desire to achieve a particular goal, the attitude that people hold to track that goal, and the effort exerted to catch it (Gardner, 2010). In a similar vein, Harmer (2007) defined motivation as a dynamic internal changing drive that initiates goals and directs people to accomplish these intended goals. In language learning, curiosity, interest, as well as willingness to learn are seen as fundamental components of motivated students (Kim & Kim, 2021). In contrast to less motivated and non-motivated students, motivated counterparts are more dynamic and enthusiastic to accomplish learning tasks, even challenging ones (Jiang et al., 2023).

The definition of motivation can be interpreted in many ways (Brown, 2000) based on the adopted human behavior theory. From a behavioristic perspective, motivation is the anticipation of rewards where previous experiences with positive reinforcements can yield identical behaviors (Brown, 2004). From a cognitive perspective, more emphasis is given to people's decisions. Such a viewpoint of motivation claims that people control their actions and make their decisions to achieve proposed goals (Deci, 1975). The humanistic perspective of motivation focuses more on the investigation of relationships of human needs and the consideration of individuals as a whole (Sara et al., 2017). From a constructivist view of motivation, much emphasis is given to social context and individual choices (Williams & Burden, 1997). Each person can be motivated differently, and hence, will act uniquely in his or her environment within a cultural and social pattern and cannot be separated from that context.

Based on clusters of EFL attitudes, Gardner and Lambert (1972) identified two basic types of motivation, or orientations of motivation, as they prefer to term: instrumental and integrative. Instrumental motivation refers to the desire to acquire language to attain a particular instrumental goal such as finding a job whereas integrative motivation refers to learners' tendency to integrate themselves into the SL culture to ensure greater involvement in social interactions (Brown, 2000). Yet, another dimension of distinguishing motivation is whether learners are intrinsically motivated for their own sake and not for apparent reward, or extrinsically motivated for an outside reward and beyond the self (Deci, 1975).

As a rich area of investigation, motivation has attracted the attention of researchers with different aims and scopes. As a fundamental aspect of achieving oral proficiency, Amoah and Yeboah (2021) investigated the motivation levels of Chinese EFL learners towards speaking English and found that the learners' instrumental motivation was higher than their integrative motivation. Wallace and Leong (2020) examined Chinese EFL learners' attitudes and drives for studying English and their perspectives on the role of social support and the learning environment in varying motivation levels. They found that most participants were highly motivated in general and learned English for both instrumental and integrative purposes. Danesh and Shahnazari (2020) investigated the relationship between resilience, learning motivation, and language proficiency at beginner, intermediate, and advanced levels among Iranian EFL learners. The results revealed that foreign language (FL) proficiency was directly predictable by both FL motivation and resilience and that motivation had significant direct and indirect effects on FL proficiency.

Jiang et al. (2023) examined the effect of online learning on Iranian EFL learners' motivation, anxiety, and attitudes and proved that learning online can increase the learners' motivation, lower their anxiety, and create positive attitudes towards L2 learning. Gamlo (2019) examined the motivation of Saudi EFL learners to learn English and the effect of mobile game applications on the learners' motivation. The results revealed that the learners were instrumentally motivated because English was a compulsory course in their foundation year which they had to pass with high scores to pursue their preferred major. The study also showed the positive perceptions of the learners towards using the applications in learning and improving motivation. By examining the relationship between using technology in learning and Iranian EFL learners' motivation to learn English, Kalanzadeh et al. (2014) found positive attitudes among the participants toward using technology in their English classes. Ilter (2009) aimed to explore how technology could enhance learners' motivation in EFL classrooms in Turkey and found that technology was a highly dynamic and challenging motivating factor for EFL learners.

In this study, motivation is examined from a different angle. The study aims to identify the attitudes and motivations of Saudi EFL learners toward learning English and, more importantly, examine how digital motivational quotes can affect their attitudes and motivations.

III. METHOD

A. Participants

The total number of participants in the present study was 100 EFL female students majoring in English at a Saudi public university in Riyadh. The participants' ages ranged between 18-21 and they had 1-3 years of experience as university EFL learners. Permission was taken from all participants to take part in the study and be quoted for the study only. They understood that their contribution was confidential and voluntary and that they could withdraw at any time.

B. Instrument

Gardner (1985) developed the Attitudes/Motivation Test Battery (AMTB) consisting of 104 items to identify the attitudes and motivations of L2 learners. A mini version of AMTB was developed by Gardner and MacIntyre (1993) which includes 12 items to examine the following categories: interest in foreign languages, parental encouragement, motivational intensity, class anxiety, teacher evaluation, attitudes toward learning a foreign language, attitudes toward foreign language-speaking people, integrative orientation, desire to learn a foreign language, foreign language course evaluation, foreign language use anxiety, and instrumental orientation. Each item in the mini version corresponds to a scale in the full AMTB. The scale was first used to examine learning French as a foreign language, then it was used to examine the attitudes and motivations of other foreign language learners. The development of the mini version followed a procedure suggested by Guilford (1954). Gardner and MacIntyre (1993) reported high validity and reliability of the scale with estimates of Cronbach Alpha coefficient that ranged from .76 to .95. The mini version of AMTB was used in this study to identify the attitudes and motivations of the participants.

C. Validity and Reliability of the AMTB Scale

To extract the significance of the construct validity of the attitudes and motivations scale used in this study, the correlation coefficients of each item and the total score were calculated. The correlation coefficients of the items with the total score ranged between (0.47-0.76) as shown in Table One. They were acceptable and statistically significant so none of these items were deleted.

TABLE 1
CORRELATION COEFFICIENTS BETWEEN EACH ITEM AND THE TOTAL SCORE FOR THE AMTB SCALE

Item #	R With total score	Item #	R With total score	Item #	R With total score	Item #	R With total score
1	.51(**)	4	.47(**)	7	.72(**)	10	.65(**)
2	.76(**)	5	.60(**)	8	.60(**)	11	.74(**)
3	.72(**)	6	.69(**)	9	.69(**)	12	.72(**)

* Correlation is significant at the (0.05) level

**Correlation is significant at the (0.01) level

To ensure the stability of the study tool, it was verified by the test-retest method, i.e. by applying the scale and reapplying it after two weeks on a group outside the study sample consisting of 30. Then, the Pearson correlation coefficient between the estimates in the two times reached (0.91). The stability coefficient was also calculated using the internal consistency method according to the Cronbach alpha equation, and it reached (0.88). These values were considered appropriate for this study.

D. Procedure

At the beginning of the experimentation period, all participants were asked to complete the AMTB scale to identify their attitudes and motivations in learning English as a foreign language. Then, they were divided into two groups: an experimental group and a control group. Throughout ten weeks, the experimental group received digital motivational quotes that focused on the importance of learning English as an FL and its beneficial effects on learners. These quotes were carefully selected based on three important criteria: the content of the quote, its source, and its presentation. These quotes were sent as posts twice a week to the participants via Blackboard, the university's official online platform used for e-learning and e-communication. At the end of the experiment, both groups were asked to complete the same test to measure the difference in scores between them and, hence, examine the effect of the motivational quotes on the experimental group. Yet, the scale given to the experimental group included some open-ended questions to better understand their motivations as EFL learners and explore their perceptions of such quotes (see Appendix A).

IV. RESULTS

The participants' responses to the AMTB scale were statistically analyzed using SPSS 25 while the experimental group responses to the open-ended questions in the posttest were coded and revised by the present researchers. Some categories were created and relationships between these categories were established to obtain a theory. According to Dornyei (2007), two important criteria should be met: a. adapting a certain sequential coding system and b. producing some theory as an outcome of the analysis. To ensure that coding and categorization were appropriate, an academic expert verified them and suggested minor modifications.

A. Quantitative Analysis

Statistical Standard: A 7-point Likert scale was employed by giving each item a score ranging from strong (7) to weak (1) for positive items and reversed for negative items. The following scale was adopted to analyze the results:

- 1.00–3.00 low
- 3.01–5.00 Moderate
- 5.01–7.00 High

By using the following equation:

$$\frac{\text{The highest limit (7)} - \text{the lowest limit (1)}}{\text{Number of categories (3)}} = \frac{7-1}{3} = 2 \text{ And adding (2) to the end of each category.}$$

AMTB was administered to both groups to know the actual level before starting the experiment. Means, standard deviations, and t-test were used to determine any significant differences between both groups, as shown in Table 2.

TABLE 2
MEAN, STANDARD DEVIATION, AND T-TEST RESULTS OF THE EXPERIMENTAL AND CONTROL GROUPS

	GROUP	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)
Integrative Orientation	experimental	50	4.32	1.684	.407	98	.685
	control	50	4.18	1.758			
Attitudes toward English-Speaking People	experimental	50	4.46	1.249	.759	98	.450
	control	50	4.26	1.382			
Interest in Foreign Languages	experimental	50	4.72	1.213	.893	98	.374
	control	50	4.50	1.249			
Desire to Learn English	experimental	50	4.40	1.229	.798	98	.427
	control	50	4.20	1.278			
Attitudes toward Learning English	experimental	50	4.64	1.306	.611	98	.543
	control	50	4.48	1.313			
English Teacher Evaluation	experimental	50	4.54	1.147	.436	98	.664
	control	50	4.44	1.146			
Instrumental Orientation	experimental	50	4.40	1.385	.738	98	.462
	control	50	4.20	1.325			
English Use Anxiety	experimental	50	4.08	2.049	.296	98	.768
	control	50	3.96	2.000			
English Course Evaluation	experimental	50	4.52	1.297	.827	98	.410
	control	50	4.32	1.115			
English Class Anxiety	experimental	50	4.38	1.354	.352	98	.726
	control	50	4.28	1.485			
Motivational Intensity	experimental	50	4.80	1.400	.890	98	.376
	control	50	4.56	1.296			
Parental Encouragement	experimental	50	4.56	1.296	.569	98	.571
	control	50	4.42	1.162			
Total score	experimental	50	4.49	.833	1.126	98	.263
	control	50	4.32	.651			

Table 2 reveals that the two groups were equivalent before starting the experiment as the difference between scores of both groups was statistically insignificant. To answer the first question of the study, means and standard deviations of EFL learners' responses to the pretest were computed as presented in Table Three.

TABLE 3
MEANS AND STANDARD DEVIATIONS RANKED IN A DESCENDING ORDER

Rank	N	Item	Mean	Std. Deviation	Degree of agreement
1	11	Motivational Intensity	4.68	1.348	moderate
2	3	Interest in Foreign Languages	4.61	1.230	moderate
3	5	Attitudes toward Learning English	4.56	1.305	moderate
4	6	English Teacher Evaluation	4.49	1.141	moderate
4	12	Parental Encouragement	4.49	1.227	moderate
6	9	English Course Evaluation	4.42	1.208	moderate
7	2	Attitudes toward English-Speaking People	4.36	1.314	moderate
8	10*	English Class Anxiety	4.33	1.415	moderate
9	4	Desire to Learn English	4.30	1.251	moderate
9	7	Instrumental Orientation	4.30	1.352	moderate
11	1	Integrative Orientation	4.25	1.714	moderate
12	8*	English Use Anxiety	4.02	2.015	moderate
		Total score	4.40	.748	moderate

* Negative item (reversed score)

Table 3 shows that all participants in both groups were at a moderate level. Item 11 'Motivational Intensity' receives the highest mean (4.68) regarding the degree of agreement while Item 8 "English Use Anxiety" is ranked last with a mean

of (4.02). This table also shows that the mean as a whole is (4.40).

To answer the second question of the study, means, standard deviations, and estimated marginal means due to group variable were first computed, and a slight variance in the means of the EFL learners' attitudes and motivations was found (see Appendix B). To find out whether there are statistically significant differences in these means, one-way MANCOVA was conducted for the dimensions and one-way ANCOVA was conducted for total score. Table 4 shows that there are statistically significant differences at ($\alpha = 0.05$) in all dimensions due to group variable in favor of the experimental group who were exposed to digital motivational quotes.

TABLE 4
ONE-WAY MANCOVA ACCORDING TO GROUP VARIABLE

Source	Dependent Variable	Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.	Effect size Eta ²
Integrative Orientation pre (covariate)	Integrative Orientation post	2.440	1	2.440	3.251	.075	.036
Attitudes toward English-Speaking People pre (covariate)	Attitudes toward English-Speaking People post	1.070	1	1.070	.972	.327	.011
Interest in Foreign Languages pre (covariate)	Interest in Foreign Languages post	.003	1	.003	.002	.960	.000
Desire to Learn English pre (covariate)	Desire to Learn English post	.741	1	.741	1.204	.276	.014
Attitudes toward Learning English pre (covariate)	Attitudes toward Learning English post	.097	1	.097	.108	.744	.001
English Teacher Evaluation pre (covariate)	English Teacher Evaluation post	2.289	1	2.289	3.241	.075	.036
Instrumental Orientation pre (covariate)	Instrumental Orientation post	.221	1	.221	.179	.673	.002
English Use Anxiety pre (covariate)	English Use Anxiety post	6.182	1	6.182	3.471	.066	.039
English Course Evaluation pre (covariate)	English Course Evaluation post	.124	1	.124	.089	.766	.001
English Class Anxiety pre (covariate)	English Class Anxiety post	1.512	1	1.512	.576	.450	.007
Motivational Intensity pre (covariate)	Motivational Intensity post	9.945	1	9.945	10.193	.002	.106
Parental Encouragement pre (covariate)	Parental Encouragement post	1.005	1	1.005	.488	.487	.006

Table 5 provides further evidence of the statistically significant differences due to group variable which reflects an increase in the total scores of the experimental group.

TABLE 5
ONE-WAY ANCOVA RESULTS ACCORDING TO GROUP VARIABLE ON THE TOTAL SCORE

Source	Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.	Effect size Eta ²
Pre-test (covariate)	.216	1	.216	1.035	.312	.011
Method	19.305	1	19.305	92.345	.000	.488
Error	20.278	97	.209			
Corrected Total	40.520	99				

B. Qualitative Analysis

The qualitative data analysis yields the following categories: Motivations to Learn English as a foreign language; Perceptions of Digital Motivational Quotes; and Digital Motivational Quotes in EFL Education.

Motivations to Learn English as a Foreign Language: Based on the qualitative analysis of collected data, all participants in the experimental group are integratively as well as instrumentally motivated. The motives behind their desire to learn English are mainly finding a good job and integrating themselves into the English-speaking community. They believed that better job opportunities are more accessible to speakers of English. One of the participants stated, "I want to get a job that I would be comfortable in, and I feel like English is wanted in almost every job". Being an excellent translator is the greatest dream of many participants, which should guarantee the chance to find a more suitable job and study abroad. Additionally, they argued that speaking English as an international language is considered a necessity when traveling all over the world, either for working or even for spending a vacation. Communicating with English speakers and understanding other cultures expand their knowledge, raise their awareness, and reflect a more educated level. This opens a gate for deeper insights and greater visions of the world which can be accomplished by a sufficient level of English. The participants also claimed that motivation to learn English does not only positively affect their performance

and proficiency but can also raise levels of self-esteem and improve many skills such as problem-solving and decision-making. One participant believed “Most people speak English and I feel great when I can say what is in my mind without having trouble”. They also argued that such desire can be increased by their progress in learning which triggers more enthusiasm to develop knowledge. Learning English as a rich language of information can raise their awareness in a variety of dimensions and scopes.

Perceptions of Digital Motivational Quotes: All participants reflected upon their answers by showing how detrimental these quotes are on boosting their motivations and attitudes toward themselves as EFL learners, and towards the language. Most participants considered these quotes a reminder of their major learning target which positively empowered them to accomplish their goals. One of the participants said, “It reminds me of why I learned languages in the first place, and it motivates me to complete learning”. What made these quotes distinguished was that they received them from their teachers. The participants argued that instructors usually send them assignments and tasks but rarely if not never send them such motivational messages in such an organized manner. “I loved the quotes very much; they were light and nice to read. And I loved the idea of receiving quotes from my teacher; it gives me a positive attitude towards the course”, claimed one lady. The participants argued that Blackboard is usually associated with course-related notifications, yet such alerts broke the ice and created a more interactive course environment. Another lady confirmed, “Whenever I open Blackboard to do my assignments, I read the quotes and I pray for you because they boost my motivation”. One participant claimed that she saved these quotes on her phone to be checked when “feeling down”. Another lady asserted that she added them to her status on WhatsApp and Snapchat as they are extremely functional and empowering. These messages give them a second to think about something other than studying materials. Within the heavy burden of learning requirements, these quotes can “change the mood and refresh the memory”. When feeling pressured particularly during examination periods, these quotes help students feel better and gain positive power to study. It is claimed by one of the participants that “I believe it’s very nice for our mental health to get daily encouraging quotes from our teachers, and it helps us to love our experience in college more”. The participants agreed that such quotes that carry extremely encouraging content satisfy their needs, particularly psychological ones, as EFL learners. Besides, the participants believe that such quotes not only increase motivation but also increase their vocabulary gain and add to their knowledge about the target language and how wisdom can be expressed in another culture.

Digital Motivational Quotes in EFL Education: Learning a foreign language through an optimistic approach is highly recommended and appreciated by the participants. Instead of receiving strict messages that sometimes function as warnings from teachers, encouraging statements expressed through motivational quotes had a more positive impact on student’s feelings and behaviors as well. Furthermore, what made it faster and more efficient was the easy access to the students via the Internet. “Getting digital quotes is the new way to motivate us to achieve our goals because it is like an alarm to our mind through this path of learning”, claimed one participant. Technology creates an open channel between teachers and students that needs to be used for a variety of educational purposes and raising motivational levels is not an exception. Sending such quotes via Blackboard is easier and can save the class time and effort and allow students greater benefits by saving them to be used any time later. One participant asserted “In my opinion, it is easier to spread positivity and encourage people and remind them to keep their motivation high”. It is an interesting part of the teaching methodology to post such messages via electronic and elegant pictures that reflect the effective use of technology. The participants not only showed their appreciation towards receiving such quotes but also highly recommended other teachers to follow the same pattern as confirmed by one participant “I recommend other teachers to use quotes too, it shows the student that the teacher cares enough to take extra time to motivate the students”. In sum, the participants see these quotes as a reflection of how teachers care about students!

V. DISCUSSION

Analysis of the pretest data showed that participants were interested in learning English as a foreign language. Yet, after applying the experiment, there were statistically significant differences in favor of the experimental group who were exposed to digital motivational quotes. The qualitative analysis confirmed an integrative and instrumental orientation of the participants’ motivation. They wanted to learn English to find a good job and integrate themselves into its community. This is in line with results provided by Wang (2010) who found that EFL learners learn the language for instrumental and integrative reasons. Deldeniya et al. (2018) provided similar results, yet they found that the integrative motivation of FL learners was slightly greater than their instrumental motivation. The participants of the present study strongly believe that they need English for a variety of purposes such as translation and different types of international communication across different cultures. This could in turn enrich their knowledge, expand their visions of the world, and mirror a high level of education. As a result, higher motivational levels to learn the language can raise levels of proficiency and attainment. This is consistent with results provided by Danesh and Shahnazari (2020) who found that L2 motivation had significant direct and indirect effects on L2 proficiency. It has also been found in this study that motivation can also contribute to the development of self-confidence as well as a variety of skills such as problem-solving and decision-making. This aligns with findings provided by Okay and Balçıkanlı (2017) who indicated that high-motivated EFL learners were more capable of making decisions than their low-motivated peers. What contributes to their interest in learning English is the progress they notice in their language competence. Reading these quotes regularly could expand vocabulary knowledge and enrich cultural awareness. All participants showed highly positive attitudes towards the digital motivational quotes that they

received throughout the experiment. They stated that such quotes contributed to raising their motivation towards themselves as learners and towards the learning process. Such quotes worked as an alarm that kept them alert all the time about their major goal of learning which pushed them to show better and greater performances.

As an academic platform, Blackboard is usually associated with assignments and course requirements. Nevertheless, receiving some motivational quotes through it could create a more communicative course environment and powerfully change the mood, especially during exam weeks. Such quotes matched the participants' needs. These findings corroborated those of Vakili-fard et al. (2020) who stated that considering factors such as language learners' needs could play a major role in making them more motivated and energetic to learn effectively. The participants believe that the quotes were more effective because they were sent by their teachers who usually send serious academic messages. Without a doubt, such an optimistic teaching approach could shape student's emotions and behaviors. This is in line with the results found by Wallace and Leong (2020) which suggested that positive relationships with the teacher and the learning environment (Vakili-fard et al., 2020) can largely influence learner motivation. Based on the findings of their study, Amoah and Yeboah (2021) highly recommend that teachers create a conducive environment to raise levels of motivation among EFL learners. Similarly, results provided by Pishghadam et al. (2021) showed that teachers' positive communication behaviors increased EFL students' active motivation. Additionally, reaching the students via Blackboard made it more accessible and much easier for teachers to motivate their students through these quotes. It has been strongly argued that easy access to online materials can be a helpful agent in creating a favorable attitude toward learning (Hashemifardnia et al., 2020; Azizi, 2022; Tzankova et al., 2023). Sending these motivational quotes was a fascinating image of the role of technology in learning and teaching that can never be neglected. This supports Ilter (2009) who indicated that technology was a dynamic motivating aspect in EFL classrooms. Consequently, it can be theorized that adopting digital quotes as an encouraging technique promotes the students' motivation and positive attitudes towards themselves, their teachers, and the learning process in general.

VI. CONCLUSIONS AND IMPLICATIONS OF THE STUDY

Motivation plays a key role in EFL students' academic accomplishment and engagement in learning. With a growing interest in exploring various tactics to foster student motivation, the present study pays extensive attention to teachers' use of electronic motivational quotes. Based on the obtained results, this tactic has a significant role in student motivation, mainly in fostering a positive outlook and a determined mindset and enhancing integrative and instrumental motives to learn English. By presenting EFL students with aspirational notes, they are more encouraged to maintain an optimistic attitude, set ambitious aims, and pursue proficiency. They can certainly overcome difficulties, strive for academic excellence, and actively pursue personal development. Also, frequently received inspirational quotes are more likely to lead to increased effort, commitment, and achievement. Nevertheless, it is crucial to note that the efficiency of digital motivational quotes may vary according to learners' differences, contextual factors, and the presentation format. Finally, the careful choice of learners-relevant quotes is a critical consideration to maximize the effect of this practice on students' learning outcomes, engagement, and overall motivation.

VII. LIMITATIONS OF THE STUDY

This study has some limitations; it studied the motivational impact from undergraduate students' perspective only, as the sample was selected only from college students. Thus, teachers' perceptions and attitudes toward this practice can be addressed in future research. Also, further studies would detect the impact of digital motivational quotes on student motivation across diverse settings, including primary and secondary schools, as well as higher education. With various electronic platforms being increasingly employed as means of communication between teachers and students, future research may also study the potential long-term influence on students' motivation, learning outcomes, personal growth, and overall well-being in different educational contexts.

APPENDIX A

Open-ended questions:

Why do you want to learn English? What motivates you as an EFL learner?

Do you like the motivational quotes that were sent to you throughout this semester? Why?

Do you think that the use of digital motivational quotes in EFL education is a good method?

Can you explain your reasons?

What is your opinion on the use of digital motivational quotes in EFL education?

APPENDIX B

TABLE 6
MEANS, STANDARD DEVIATIONS, AND ESTIMATED MARGINAL MEANS

	Method	Mean	Std. Deviation	Estimated Marginal Means	Standard Error	N
Integrative Orientation post	experimental	6.32	1.039	6.054	6.544	50
	control	5.30	.814	5.076	5.566	50
	Total	5.81	1.061	5.810	.087	100
Attitudes toward English-Speaking People post	experimental	6.14	1.088	5.835	6.427	50
	control	5.16	1.057	4.873	5.465	50
	Total	5.65	1.175	5.650	.105	100
Interest in Foreign Languages post	experimental	6.46	.930	6.100	6.742	50
	control	5.32	1.406	5.038	5.680	50
	Total	5.89	1.317	5.890	.114	100
Desire to Learn English post	experimental	6.72	.671	6.494	6.937	50
	control	5.86	.926	5.643	6.086	50
	Total	6.29	.913	6.290	.078	100
Attitudes toward Learning English post	experimental	6.30	1.093	6.044	6.582	50
	control	5.18	.850	4.898	5.436	50
	Total	5.74	1.125	5.740	.095	100
English Teacher Evaluation post	experimental	6.48	.789	6.220	6.695	50
	control	5.76	.938	5.545	6.020	50
	Total	6.12	.935	6.120	.084	100
Instrumental Orientation post	experimental	6.40	1.030	6.067	6.695	50
	control	5.60	1.212	5.305	5.933	50
	Total	6.00	1.189	6.000	.111	100
English Use Anxiety post	experimental	5.78	1.314	5.407	6.161	50
	control	4.74	1.468	4.359	5.113	50
	Total	5.26	1.481	5.260	.133	100
English Course Evaluation post	experimental	5.86	1.246	5.526	6.191	50
	control	5.16	1.057	4.829	5.494	50
	Total	5.51	1.202	5.510	.118	100
English Class Anxiety post	experimental	5.86	1.370	5.412	6.328	50
	control	5.10	1.799	4.632	5.548	50
	Total	5.48	1.636	5.480	.162	100
Motivational Intensity post	experimental	6.34	1.171	6.059	6.617	50
	control	5.60	.948	5.323	5.881	50
	Total	5.97	1.123	5.970	.099	100
Parental Encouragement post	experimental	6.18	1.494	5.756	6.566	50
	control	5.32	1.392	4.934	5.744	50
	Total	5.75	1.500	5.750	.143	100
Total score	experimental	6.24	.468	6.231	.065	50
	control	5.34	.446	5.347	.065	50
	Total	5.79	.640			100

FUNDING

This work was supported and funded by the Deanship of Scientific Research at Imam Mohammad Ibn Saud Islamic University (IMSIU) (grant number IMSIU-DDRSP2502).

REFERENCES

- [1] Amoah, S., & Yeboah, J. (2021). The speaking difficulties of Chinese EFL learners and their motivation towards speaking the English language. *Journal of Language and Linguistic Studies*, 17(1), 56-69. <https://doi.org/10.52462/jlls.4>
- [2] Azizi, Z., Rezai, A., Namaziandost, E., & Tilwani, S. A. (2022). The role of computer self-efficacy in high school students' e-learning anxiety: A mixed-methods study. *Contemporary Educational Technology*, 14(2), 1-14. <https://doi.org/10.30935/cedtech/11570>
- [3] Brown, H. D. (2000). *Principles of language learning and teaching* (4th ed.). New York: Longman.
- [4] Brown, H. D. (2004). *Language assessment: Principles and classroom practices*. Longman.
- [5] Brown, H. D. (1994). *Teaching by principles: an interactive approach to language pedagogy*. Englewood Cliffs, NJ: Prentice Hall Regents.
- [6] Chapple, L., & Curtis, A. (2000). Content-based instruction in Hong Kong, Student responses to film. *System*, 28, 419-433. [https://doi.org/10.1016/S0346-251X\(00\)00021-X](https://doi.org/10.1016/S0346-251X(00)00021-X)
- [7] Chen, C. H. (2020). AR videos as scaffolding to foster students' learning achievements and motivation in EFL learning. *British Journal of Educational Technology*, 51(3), 657-672. <https://doi.org/10.1111/bjet.12902>

- [8] Chen, M. R. A., & Hwang, G. J. (2022). Effects of experiencing authentic contexts on English speaking performances, anxiety and motivation of EFL students with different cognitive styles. *Interactive Learning Environments*, 30(9), 1619-1639. <https://doi.org/10.1080/10494820.2020.1734626>
- [9] Danesh, J., & Shahnazari, M. (2020). A structural relationship model for resilience, L2 learning motivation, and L2 proficiency at different proficiency levels. *Learning and Motivation*, 72, 101636. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.lmot.2020.101636>
- [10] Deci, E. (1975). *Intrinsic motivation*. New York: Plenum Press.
- [11] Deldeniya, M., Khatibi, A., & Azam, S. F. (2018). An analysis of students' motivation and attitudes toward learning Japanese language as a foreign language in secondary school in Sri Lanka. *European Journal of Foreign Language Teaching*, 3(4), 11-24 <http://dx.doi.org/10.5281/zenodo.1409062>
- [12] Derakhshan, A., Kruk, M., Mehdizadeh, M., & Pawlak, M. (2021). Boredom in online classes in the Iranian EFL context: Sources and solutions. *System*, 101, 102556. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.system.2021.102556>
- [13] Dörnyei, Z. (2007). *Research methods in applied linguistics: Quantitative, qualitative and mixed methodologies*. Oxford University Press.
- [14] Gamlo, N. (2019). The Impact of Mobile Game-Based Language Learning Apps on EFL Learners' Motivation. *English Language Teaching*, 12(4), 49-56. <https://doi.org/10.5539/elt.v12n4p49>
- [15] Gardner, R. C. (1985). *Social psychology and second language learning: The role of attitudes and Motivation*. London: Edward Arnold Publishers.
- [16] Gardner, R. C. (2010). *Motivation and Second Language Acquisition: The Socio-Educational Model*. New York, NY: Peter Lang.
- [17] Gardner, R. C., & Lambert, W. E. (1972). *Attitudes and Motivation in Second Language Learning*. Rowley, MA: Newbury House.
- [18] Gardner, R. C., & MacIntyre, P. D. (1993). On the measurement of affective variables in second language learning. *Language learning*, 43(2), 157-194. <https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1467-1770.1992.tb00714.x>
- [19] Guilford, J. P. (1954). *Psychometric methods*. New York: McGraw Hill.
- [20] Harmer, J. (2007). *The practice of English language teaching*. Longman Pearson Education Limited.
- [21] Hashemifardnia, A., Shafee, S., Rahimi Esfahani, F., & Sepehri, M. (2020). Effects of massive open online course (MOOC) on Iranian EFL learners' speaking complexity, accuracy, and fluency. *Computer-Assisted Language Learning Electronic Journal*, 22(1), 56-79.
- [22] Hashemifardnia, A., Shafee, S., Rahimi Esfahani, F., & Sepehri, M. (2021). Effects of flipped instruction on Iranian intermediate EFL learners' speaking complexity, accuracy, and fluency. *Cogent Education*, 8(1), 1-19. <https://doi.org/10.1080/2331186x.2021.1987375>
- [23] Ilter, B. G. (2009). Effect of technology on motivation in EFL classrooms. *Turkish online journal of distance education*, 10(4), 136-158. Retrieved January 28, 2023, from <https://dergipark.org.tr/en/pub/tojde/issue/16914/176463>
- [24] Jiang, P., Namaziandost, E., Azizi, Z., & Razmi, M. H. (2023). Exploring the effects of online learning on EFL learners' motivation, anxiety, and attitudes during the COVID-19 pandemic: a focus on Iran. *Current Psychology*, 42(3), 2310-2324. <https://doi.org/10.1007/s12144-022-04013-x>
- [25] Kalanzadeh, G. A., Soleimani, H., & Bakhtiarvand, M. (2014). Exploring the influence of using technology on Iranian EFL students' motivation. *Procedia-Social and Behavioral Sciences*, 98, 814-823. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.sbspro.2014.03.486>
- [26] Kim, TY., Kim, Y. (2021). Structural Relationship Between L2 Learning Motivation and Resilience and Their Impact on Motivated Behavior and L2 Proficiency. *J Psycholinguist Res*, 50, 417-436. <https://doi.org/10.1007/s10936-020-09721-8>
- [27] Okay, A., & Balçikanlı, C. (2017). The role of motivation in EFL students' perceptions of teacher/learner responsibilities and learner abilities. *Asian-Pacific Journal of Second and Foreign Language Education*, 2(8), 1-12. <http://doi10.1186/s40862-017-0032-0>
- [28] Pawlak, M., Derakhshan, A., Mehdizadeh, M., & Kruk, M. (2021). The effects of class mode, course type, and focus on coping strategies in the experience of boredom in online English language classes. *Language Teaching Research*. <https://doi.org/10.1177/13621688211064944>
- [29] Pishghadam, R., Derakhshan, A., Jajarmi, H., Tabatabaee Farani, S., & Shayesteh, S. (2021). Examining the role of teachers' stroking behaviors in EFL learners' active/passive motivation and teacher success. *Frontiers in Psychology*, 12: 707314. <https://doi.org/10.3389/fpsyg.2021.707314>
- [30] Rahimi, M., & Fathi, J. (2021). Exploring the impact of wiki-mediated collaborative writing on EFL students' writing performance, writing self-regulation, and writing self-efficacy: A mixed methods study. *Computer Assisted Language Learning*, 3, 1-48. <https://doi.org/10.1080/09588221.2021.1888753>
- [31] Sara, G., Shah, I., Burgoyne, J., Nazri, M., & Salleh, J. R. (2017). The influence of motivation on job performance: A case study at Universiti Teknologi Malaysia. *Australian Journal of Basic and Applied Sciences*, 11(4), 92-99.
- [32] Schmidt, R., & Watanabe, Y. (2001). Motivation, strategy use, and pedagogical preferences in foreign language learning. *Motivation and second language acquisition*, 23(1), 313-359.
- [33] Stepp-Greany, J. (2002). Student perceptions on language learning in a technological environment: Implications for the new millennium. *Language Learning and Technology*, 12, 165-180. Retrieved January 25, 2023, from <https://www.lltjournal.org/item/232/>
- [34] Tzankova, I., Compare, C., Marzana, D. et al. (2023). Emergency online school learning during COVID-19 lockdown: A qualitative study of adolescents' experiences in Italy. *Current Psychology*, 42, 12743-12755. <https://doi.org/10.1007/s12144-021-02674-8>
- [35] Vakilifard, A., Ebadi, S., Zamani, M., & Sadeghi, B. (2020). Investigating demotivating factors in foreign language learners: The case of non-Iranian Persian language learners. *Cogent Education*, 7(1). <https://doi.org/10.1080/2331186X.2019.1690232>
- [36] Vonkova, H., Jones, J., Moore, A., Altinkalp, I., & Selcuk, H. (2021). A review of recent research in EFL motivation: Research trends, emerging methodologies, and diversity of researched populations. *System*, 103, 102622. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.system.2021.102622>
- [37] Wallace, M. P., & Leong, E. I. L. (2020). Exploring language learning motivation among primary EFL learners. *Journal of Language Teaching and Research*, 11(2), 221-230. DOI: <http://dx.doi.org/10.17507/jltr.1102.10>

- [38] Wang, Y. (2010). A Survey of the Foreign Language Learning Motivation among Polytechnic Students in China. *Journal of Language Teaching & Research*, 1(5). 605-613 <http://doi:10.4304/jltr.1.5.605-613>
- [39] Williams, M., & Burden, R. (1997). *Psychology for language teachers: A social constructivist approach*. Cambridge, UK: Cambridge University Press.

Amal A. Alwasidi is an assistant professor of applied linguistics in the College of Languages and Translation at IMSIU, Riyadh, KSA. She delivers lectures on diverse topics related to applied linguistics and helps students explore concepts through stimulating class discussions. She is currently working closely with professors to support collaborative research in the areas of second/foreign language teaching and learning, curriculum development, and language teacher professional development. ORCID: <http://orcid.org/0000-0003-1013-2448>

Lubna A. Alnaeem is an assistant professor of applied linguistics in the College of Languages and Translation at IMSIU, Riyadh, KSA. She has been lecturing in different linguistics and language skills courses. She collaborates with researchers and educators as she is interested in language teaching and learning, individual differences, curriculum development, and teacher cognition. ORCID: <http://orcid.org/0000-0002-1714-7768>

Psychological Suggestive Connotations in Fahd Al-Askar's Poetry: "Woman and Wine" Poem as a Model

Ismeel M. M. Al-Gayam

Arabic Language and Literature Department, Ajloun College, Al-Balqa Applied University, Jordan

Basma A. S. Al-Rawashdeh

Arabic Language and Literature Department, Ajloun College, Al-Balqa Applied University, Jordan

Ahmad H. M. Bany Essa

Arabic Language and Literature Department, Ajloun College, Al-Balqa Applied University, Jordan

Mahmoud A. Rababah

Jadara Research Center, Jadara University, Irbid 21110, Jordan

Abstract—This study explores the existentialist ideas and perspectives of the poet Fahd Al-Askar played a prominent role in challenging societal values and traditions, which he viewed as obstructing freedom and social justice. The study employed a descriptive analytical approach to analyse Al-Askar's poetry. The results revealed that Al-Askar, as a poet with a mission, undertook the defense of his society's people, striving to spread intellectual and religious freedom. He used the themes of "woman" and "wine" as effective tools to convey his intended message. The "woman" was both a means and an end: a means to provoke societal taboos through sensual poetic descriptions, and an end to advocate women's recognition of their existence, identity, and right to participate equally in social roles alongside men. Sensual depictions served more as a pressing tool rather than an intrinsic purpose. As for "wine," it represented another tool that Al-Askar utilized to challenge traditional societal norms. Being religiously forbidden, it served to create tension and provoke the customs of a conservative and committed society. By focusing on the central connotations of both "woman" and "wine," Al-Askar infused them with suggestive and psychological peripheral meanings to produce the desired implications.

Index Terms—Arabic poetry, Fahd Al-Askar's poetry, psychologically suggestive connotations, women and wine in poetry

I. INTRODUCTION

This study examines the poetry of the Kuwaiti poet Fahd Al-Askar, particularly focusing on two recurring themes in his work: "woman" and "wine". The study aims to uncover the suggestive and psychological connotations of these themes using available and feasible analytical methods. The motivation behind this research stems from the observation that "woman" and "wine" occupy a significant portion of Al-Askar's poetic corpus. The poet's attention to these themes in a conservative environment such as Kuwait's draws noteworthy attention. Another point of interest is Al-Askar's controversial personality. Researchers have noted a significant transformation in his life after his exposure to diverse cultural, literary, social, and political ideas. This shift influenced his worldview regarding the nature of existence, inherited traditions, and societal norms. Consequently, his poetry became imbued with a spirit of freedom, aiming to articulate an existentialist vision (Alghazo et al., 2023; Almsbhiheen et al., 2023; Malkawi et al., 2023; Rababah et al., 2024; Sakarneh et al., 2022).

Readers of Fahd Al-Askar's poetry observe a liberating tendency that verges on rebellion, aimed at emancipating societal thought. The poet acknowledged the challenges of confronting ignorance and backwardness, yet he was determined to take on the role of a sacrificial figure for the benefit of his society. His daily-lived experiences inspired poetry that sought to restore free and unrestrained imagination by engaging with its intense and enigmatic reserves in contexts that resonate with the struggle for freedom (Aldowkat et al., 2024; Alatoom et al., 2022; Essa et al., 2023; Al-Jezawi et al., 2023; Al-Rawashdeh et al., 2024; Bani-Khair et al., 2023).

Based on the above, this study explores how Al-Askar addressed "woman" and "wine" in his poetry, especially within a conservative Islamic society. Such themes required caution due to the strict religious and cultural norms governing that society. The study's methodology involves selecting specific poetic excerpts from his works, focusing not on comprehensive literary analysis but rather on tracing mentions of "woman" and "wine" as thematic subjects. The study aims to unveil the intended connotations of these themes.

The primary reference for selecting poetic texts is Al-Askar's *Collected Poems*, as compiled in *Fahd Al-Askar: His Life and Poetry* by Abdullah Zakaria Al-Ansari. It is worth noting that the study refrains from categorizing the tools of suggestion or psychological connotation into separate subheadings to maintain focus, even though these tools are embedded within the analysis and support the exploration of connotations.

Thus, the study is structured into four main sections: the suggestive connotations of "wine" and "woman," followed by their psychological connotations. The following sections provide clarification and discussion.

II. ANALYSIS

A. The Suggestive Connotations of Wine

Suggestive connotations complement the core meaning of a word or text, standing alongside other layers of meaning, such as psychological connotations and stylistic implications. Together, these layers work harmoniously to produce the intended meaning conveyed by the writer or poet. Suggestive connotations, in particular, manifest through phonetic and morphological structures, in addition to the semantic impact of metaphorical or figurative expressions. They significantly influence the literary and imaginative elements of language (Melhim et al., 2023; Al-Habibies et al., 2024; Wolor et al., 2023, 2024; Bani Yassien et al., 2023; Al-Saidat et al., 2023).

Wine holds a significant place in Fahd Al-Askar's poetic experience. Al-Roumi (1978) considered it a means of salvation for the poet from societal constraints, paralleling death as the ultimate escape. Below are some verses by Al-Askar on wine, from which this study seeks to explore its suggestive connotations:

أسفر الصّبح قم نحّي الصّباح يا منى القلب واترع الأقداحا
واصح وافتح طرفا مريضاً صحيحاً إن قلبي يهوى المراض الصّباحا
وأعر طلعة الصّباح ضياء من محبّاك كم أعرّت الصّباحا
يا حبيبي: كفى مناماً فهياً نتساقى على الرمال الرّاحا

Dawn has broken, rise and greet the morning,
O heart's desire, and fill the goblets.
Awaken, and open a weary yet healthy eye,
For my heart loves the ill who are true.
Bestow upon the morning's face the light,
From your visage, as you've graced mornings before.
O my beloved, enough of sleep, let us rise
And sip the wine on the sands together. (Al-Ansari, 1997)

In the opening line, "*Dawn has broken*" (*Asfara al-Subh*), the poet employs the past tense, symbolizing affirmation and realization. On the surface, this indicates the poet and his companion's anticipation of drinking wine. However, delving deeper, the phrase reveals broader existential themes. The three actions in the opening verse— "*Dawn broke, let us greet, and fill the goblets*"—reflect the poet's euphoric state induced by wine and existential awareness. Through the morphological structure of "*Asfara*" (dawn broke), the poet affirms the arrival of clarity and enlightenment, which symbolically alludes to self-realization and existential discovery (Harara et al., 2024; Al-Jezawi et al., 2023). This connotation highlights the poet's liberation and enjoyment of freedom while challenging false societal conventions, as expressed in the lines: "*Rise and greet the morning, / And fill the goblets*".

A notable phonetic feature in these verses is the repeated use of the letter *h* (*ha*), which conveys sharpness, intensity, and encompassing motion (Abbas, 1998). These qualities are evident in words such as "*greet*" (*naḥay*), "*goblets*" (*aqdāḥa*), "*awaken*" (*iṣḥa*), and "*open*" (*iftaḥ*). These words resonate with vigor and fervor, symbolizing a rebellion against constraints that stifle self-awareness. The phoneme *h* also evokes a sense of enclosure, suggesting that wine and its associated states become a powerful force in alleviating the suffocation imposed by societal norms.

This connotation is further reinforced by the imperative forms in the lines "*awaken*" and "*open*", which signify ascendancy, defiance, and the pursuit of a beneficial transformation. Awakening follows stagnation, and enlightenment follows closure. The poet, in his state of euphoria and social freedom, reflects this journey from restriction to liberation.

The metaphorical construction "*Greet the morning*" further reinforces the intended meaning. In this phrase, a process of substitution and implication takes place, where the morning serves as the *tenor* (the subject of the metaphor), while the vehicle (the implied metaphorical comparison) — the human being — is omitted. By aligning the morning with the semantic field of humanity, the poet imbues it with life and spirit, attributes unique to humans. When this analysis is connected to the overall meaning intended by the poet, it becomes evident that his sense of freedom and hope transcends the abstract concept of time (*morning*) into the realm of humanity. Thus, the morning becomes a vivid, living entity worthy of being greeted and celebrated. In fact, it deserves to be surrounded by salutations from all sides, as it represents the fruit of the poet's sacrifice and devotion.

Another linguistic feature is the morphological form of the verb "*fill*" (*itir*'), which, due to its association with wine, serves as the focal point of meaning in the opening line. The central meaning of the word "*fill*"—indicating the act of filling goblets—takes on an additional suggestive connotation, symbolizing the fullness of the soul and the sense of euphoria and joy. This state of exhilaration is echoed in other metaphorical constructions in the same excerpt:

خمرة تملأ النفوس سرورا واغتيابا وتطرد الأتراحا

Wine that fills souls with joy,
Delightfully dispelling sorrows.

Here, the word “souls” is metaphorically used to signify a container, supported by the contextual clue “fill.” Similarly, the term “joy” is metaphorically likened to a tangible substance, such as water, through implied metaphors in both cases. The focal point of meaning lies in the word “fill.”

Undoubtedly, there is a movement and transition occurring between *souls* and *joy*, as both acquire material characteristics through the clue provided by the word “fill.” This facilitates the emergence of the suggestive meaning, transitioning from a deep structure to the surface structure.

Through this expression, the poet aims to affirm his intended meaning—that he experiences immense joy through the effects of wine. This intended meaning is not conveyed solely through the central meanings of the words. Thus, the poet resorts to metaphorical expressions, culminating in the explicit surface structure phrase, “fills souls with joy”. The metaphorical process here involves the absence of the *vehicle* (the container and water) and the presence of the *tenor* (souls and joy). The implicit claim is that the *souls* take on the properties of a container that can be filled, while *joy* assumes the attributes of water or another fillable substance.

In the following verses, the study attempts to further uncover the suggestive meanings of wine, exploring the extent to which the poet employed it as an effective means to achieve his desired goals. Al-Askar writes (Al-Ansari, 1997):

قم يا حبيب اليوم واسكبها وخلّ ابن الغيوم
وانضح بها كبدي فدينك فهي دامية الكلوم
من سخريات الوضع والأقدار والدهر
إني أعوذ بكأسها من كلّ شيطان رجيم

Rise, my beloved, today, and pour it out, abandoning the son of the clouds.
Drench my heart with it, for I sacrifice myself for you, as it bleeds with wounds—
Wounds inflicted by the ironies of circumstances, fate, and time.
I seek refuge in its cup from every accursed devil,

It is evident that *Fahd* turns to wine to soothe his heart and escape the ironies of circumstances and the sorrows of time (Al-Roumi, 1978). This poetic excerpt is structured and unified in its internal and external rhythm to achieve his goal. It is composed in the *kamil* meter, described as “the most comprehensive of meters in its movements, consisting of thirty beats, unmatched in this regard by any other meter in poetry” (Obada, 2011).

It is known that poetic meters are subject to alterations, such as elisions and inflections, reflecting the poet's desire to adapt words and rhythms to his needs. By choosing this meter, the poet demonstrates an awareness of its prosodic value in poetic music, yet he also departs from its rigid framework. This deviation reflects his belief that these alterations and deviations from the fundamental metrical patterns mirror the rebellion and defiance within him. Thus, turning to the *kamil* meter allowed him to encompass all his meanings, particularly those tied to defiance. However, the tone of defiance did not abandon him entirely, manifesting in his rebellion against the very rules of prosody. This breaking of metrical conventions serves as a metaphor for breaking the societal norms that *Fahd*, as both poet and human, rejects.

As for the rhyme, it is noticeable that it carries the poet's sighs across two extensions: a natural extension in the sounds of the *ya* or *waw*, and another resulting from elongation (-ji/-mi, -ei/-mi, etc.). Through this rhyming pattern, the verses conveyed the poet's grief and pain. “It gave the lines an aspect of harmony and symmetry, lending them a psychological, musical, and temporal order” (Adonis, 1985).

It is worth noting the variation in rhyme between the *waw* followed by *mim*, such as (*al-ghuyum*, *al-klum*, *al-ghashum*), and the *ya*, such as (*rajeem*, *la'eem*, *saqem*). This variation highlights two intended elements:

A personal feeling that a single rhyme could not encompass his sorrow, grief, and anguish.

Based on the first point, a genuine sense of rebellion and intellectual defiance reflected in the artistic construction.

The role of wine and its implications in creating relief and forgetting troubles is evident when the poet appeals to his companion, saying: “Drench my bleeding heart with it.” The poet portrays his heart as wounded, yet the blood does not flow. It resembles a state of suffocation, congestion, and distress that only wine, according to him, can alleviate.

B. The Suggestive Significance of Women

Women are the counterpart to wine in the poet's intellectual and liberating perspective. Unsurprisingly, wine descriptions often intertwine with women in many of his poems. However, for methodological and academic purposes, this study separates the two. Among his notable romantic poems, laden with suggestive connotations, is “Weep”, which he dedicated to “the one whom the cruel hand of fate snatched from her lover's embrace and cast into the dreadful prison of annihilation by the hand of a vile bigot” (Al-Ansari, 1997):

نوحى بعقر السجن نوحى، فصداه في أعماق روحي
نوحى فقد سالت جروحك مثلما سالت جروحي
نوحى فما أغنى غبوقك، لا، ولا أجدى صبوحى

Weep in the depths of the prison; its echo resounds in the depths of my soul.

Weep, for your wounds have bled just as my wounds have bled.

Weep, for neither your evening solace nor my morning solace has availed us.

The poet appears to follow the rhythm of the *kamil* meter in this poem, utilizing its characteristics to support the intended connotative meanings. At the same time, he seeks to break free from prosodic constraints as an explicit desire to challenge anything suggestive of restriction or rigidity. While the *kamil* meter offers expansiveness and adaptability for conveying intended themes, the poet introduces irregularities, such as omitting the last foot from each line and altering the basic *mutafa'ilun* pattern to *mutafa'ilatun*. This tampering reflects a form of rebellion that underlies the external musicality of the poetic lines.

The use of repetition stands out as a stylistic and suggestive feature that the poet employs to express his emotions. He repeats the word *nūhī* (weep) fifteen times across fourteen lines. This repetition profoundly impacts the unveiling of meanings, serving both the poet's and the audience's emotional needs. Fadl (1977) states that repetitive structures are among the strongest guarantees of poetry's success because they respond to an essential rhetorical quality in Arab oral culture, grounded in an aesthetic principle of fulfilling expectations.

The repetition of the sound /h/ further enhances the poem's coherence with its overarching theme and aligns with the poet's intellectual orientation. This intellectual inclination is symbolized by the figure of the woman (beloved) as a cornerstone of the poet's aspirations. The repeated /h/, a guttural sound, expresses psychological turmoil and agitation (Abbas, 1998). The poet's deliberate use and repetition of this sound reveal two key connotative meanings:

Alignment with the poet's message and thoughts on revolution and rebellion: The harsh, high-pitched quality of the /h/ sound reflects sharpness and intensity.

Resonance with the addressee (the woman) and its associated tenderness and delicacy: The whispery nature of /h/ as it emerges from deep within the throat lends the Arabic language one of its most melodious and evocative sounds, rich in expressions of love and longing (Abbas, 1998).

The interplay of these dual connotations aligns with the poet's thematic intentions, as seen in the lines (Al-Ansari, 1997):

يا بنت من وأد الفضيلة بين أحضان الرذيلة
وطغى فراح يبلّ من دم كلّ منكوب غليلة
لهفي على تلك المشاعر والأحاسيس النبيلة
وعلى جمالك والشباب الغضّ لهفي يا خميلة

A daughter of one who buried virtue amidst the embrace of vice,
And overwhelmed, he quenched his thirst with the blood of every oppressed.
Oh, how I mourn for those noble sentiments and feelings,
And for your beauty and tender youth—oh, my Camellia.

These verses are composed in the truncated *kamil* meter; whose rhythmic value derives from the abundance of movements. It is well-known that an increase in rhythmic movements elevates the intensity of rhythm. The poet exploits the *kamil* meter's rhythmic potential by varying its feet—alternating between patterns such as *mutafa'ilun* – – b –, *mutafa'ilun* b b – b –, and *mutafa'ilatun* – – b – –. This variation reflects the close connection between rhythm and meaning, with the undulations of rhythm paralleling psychological fluctuations.

Another noteworthy feature is the stillness of the rhyme, despite these verses belonging to the same *yā'iyya* poem (*Nūhī*). The poet seems to respond to psychological disturbances by disrupting rhyme unity and using a still cadence. Stillness, in contrast to movement, suggests closure and suppression, symbolizing the poet's state of constriction and distress. The still cadence also reflects rebellion, agitation, and defiance within the poet's consciousness, leading him to deviate from the poem's formal structure and enforce stillness in the rhyme.

Furthermore, another aspect of psychological rebellion is evident in the alteration of the *tā'* sound to *hā'*. This manipulation suggests an overwhelming desire within the poet to tamper with the world around him, including his poem, which embodies his concerns and emotions. This change from *tā'* to *hā'* also carries symbolic significance. As Abbas notes, "The *tā'* sound signifies weakness, delicacy, and triviality, while the *hā'* sound, being guttural, suggests psychological unrest" (Abbas, 1998).

Through this adjustment, the poet achieves both his inner rebellion and the connotative meaning associated with the *hā'* sound, which more effectively conveys despair, sorrow, loss, or misery in comparison to the *tā'* sound. The *hā'* becomes the more suitable sound for expressing the poet's emotions in addressing the woman.

Finally, the rhetorical features in the poem reveal its suggestive meanings, aligned with the poet's intellectual themes. For instance: *يا بنت من وأد الفضيلة / بين أحضان الرذيلة* (O daughter of one who buried virtue/Within the embrace of vice).

This metaphorical structure contains several elements that enrich the reader with various connotations. The poet implements a procedural transformation by stripping the words virtue and vice of their lexical meanings and infusing them with alternative connotations. Procedural transformation, as defined by rhetoricians, involves "emptying expressions of their dictionary meanings to fill them with new meanings" (Abdel-Muttalib, 1997).

The poet begins the metaphorical construct (*from burying virtue / in the embrace of vice*) with a dual-layered meaning:

The surface level: A deviation from attributing an action to its usual subject.

The deeper movement: A conceptual balance restoration achieved through transference and metaphor.

Humans, through their perceptive faculties, reject the notion of *burying virtue*, yet the phrase aligns with the linguistic structure. This demands a level of cognitive awareness, blending intuition and sensory perception, to reinterpret the statement as a creative image unveiling the intended meaning in the poet's mind.

The surface structure (*burying virtue*) undoubtedly derives from the deep structure via transformative processes, reaching its verbalized form. In the deep structure, virtue is associated with the deceased human. However, the human element as the implied comparator is absent, leaving virtue (the compared element) present. Some attributes of the comparator—expressed through the term *burying*—are retained, forming a metaphor that produces the intended connotation. When this analysis is connected to the intellectual framework of the poem and the poet, it reveals harmony and alignment. Fahd Al-Askar equates virtue with the woman, portraying her as suppressed under the weight of traditions. This drives his poetic advocacy for individuality and human existence, employing rhetorical constructs to convey the suffocating constraints facing virtue (woman) in her imprisonment by rigid customs and outdated norms.

C. Analysis of the Phrase in the Embrace of Vice

The intended meaning emerges through the following:

Surface structure: *In the embrace of vice.*

Deep structure: *In the embrace of debauchers* (for example).

The deep structure reveals the poet's intended sarcasm and sharp criticism of those who oppose him. He labels them as embodiments of vice for rejecting and metaphorically burying virtue. Through transformations, the deep structure evolves into the metaphorical and allegorical surface structure. This progression implies the poet's and audience's tacit acknowledgment that literal language fails to convey the meanings arising from the interplay of human consciousness with the mysteries of existence.

In the metaphorical process above, the term *vice* (compared element) replaces the omitted term *debauchers* (comparator), with *embrace* serving as contextual evidence. The term *vice* carries a deeply repulsive emotional effect, further intensified by the omission of the comparator. Another observation is that *vice*, through this shift, enters the realm of human experience associated with procreation. This interpretation is supported by the plural morphological structure of *embrace*, suggesting that adherents of vice are numerous.

The poet skillfully alternates between sarcasm, lamentation, criticism, defiance, and rebellion to achieve his expressive goals. An example is:

They sold you for a meager price. Where is justice, Layla?

Here, the poet employs an implicit metaphor to liken the woman to a commodity bought and sold. The comparator (commodity) is omitted, while the compared element (woman) is explicitly mentioned. The context of *selling* serves as a clue for the omitted term. This creates two structures:

Surface structure: Verbalized and explicit.

Deep structure: Transformed to its explicit surface form to convey the desired meaning, as the literal linguistic structure fails to suffice.

In the deep structure, the meaning originates from the comparator *commodity*. The human concept of *woman* shifts to a material object, to which the act of *selling* is attributed. The resulting evocative connotation is that the woman is a commodity, sold for a meager price—a profoundly painful implication.

D. The Symbolism of the Woman

The woman carries dual connotations, depending on perspective:

From the poet's viewpoint: She symbolizes freedom—freedom of thought and belief.

From his opponents' viewpoint: She is a material commodity, valued at a low price.

These contrasting perceptions are a central preoccupation for Al-Askar. His poetry strives to affirm the former and reject the latter through its vivid presentation. The poet seeks to create tension leading to resolution, involving the audience emotionally and ideologically. He portrays the woman trapped in the confines of traditions, insisting on her lamentation (*nūḥ*). Here, *lamentation* serves as a compelling means of liberation—a symbolic expression of freedom, even in its simplest form, through weeping.

(a). Psychological Connotation

The poem reflects the poet's emotional turmoil and his yearning for liberation from societal constraints. The repeated lamentation signifies resistance, a refusal to remain silent, and a call for freedom.

It can be said that psychological semantics today is a branch of the field of semantics. Language—its words and structures—essentially expresses the human self, revealing its needs and inner secrets. Language resides within humans and humans within language by nature. Thus, it is natural for language to reflect human desires and needs, and also natural for its words to mirror the psychological impact of the creator or the speaker in general.

Language is a psychological phenomenon or necessity, manifested as an expression of language that acquires a spiritual and aesthetic dimension, adopting the form of stimulus and response. The psychological impact remains intrinsic to the linguistic expression until it becomes a meaning within the perception and analysis of the listener, thereby imposing itself during the semantic analysis of the linguistic event.

In exploring psychological semantics, the focus often centers on creative texts produced by individuals with diverse experiences—whether political, social, or ideological. Poet Fahd Al-Askar is one such individual, whose experiences resonate deeply in his poetry. This study seeks to uncover these meanings, specifically along the thematic lines of *woman* and *wine*. It is essential to note that the research considers psychological semantics within the socio-cultural framework of Fahd Al-Askar, outlined in the introduction, as well as the artistic structure accompanying it.

(b). *The Psychological Connotation of Woman*

Women occupy a vast and central space in Fahd Al-Askar's poetry, forming perhaps the focal point of his works. Naturally, they carry varied connotations, which this study seeks to examine through selected passages. In one of his poems, he writes (Al-Ansari, 1997):

قبل فديتك مبسمي دع جيدي وإلى اللقاء صباح يوم العيد
لم لا وأهلي ويح أهلي بالغوا باللوم والتعنيف والتهديد
لا تقترب من دارنا هم أقسموا أن يقطعوا إن جئت حبل وريدي
ي

Before kissing me, leave my neck,
Until we meet on the morning of Eid.
Why not? Alas, my family—alas, my family!
They went too far with their blame, reproach, and threats.
Do not approach our house; they have sworn
To cut my jugular vein if you come.

The poet is dominated and consumed by two ideas: challenging outdated customs and regressive traditions and granting members of society their existential and individual rights. Standing against the rigidity of traditions and criticizing them is not sufficient for a poet with a message. Solutions must be proposed, and targeted values must be established through the linguistic vessel and poetic framework.

In the opening lines, the poet paints a scene that provokes the reader's sense of urgency and, more so, the sanctity of traditions and their upholders. He asks his beloved for a kiss, forsaking embrace—a request that reveals a past period where the poet and his beloved were in an embrace. The call to abandon this embrace is an act of defiance, challenging the sanctity of traditions. The context expands this psychological delight across three temporal dimensions:

The past: When they were in an embrace.

The present: "Kiss my lips."

The future: "Until we meet on the morning of Eid."

In the second and subsequent verses, he outlines the framework enveloping him and his beloved: the traditions and customs symbolized initially by the family. He does not shy away from reproaching them for their blame, reproach, and threats.

The woman is depicted as weak and fearful, dominated by traditions. Through this depiction, the poet seeks to vindicate her, portraying her as subdued by the authority of customs, unable to express her existence or live her freedom. He writes:

لا تقترب من دارنا هم أقسموا أن يقطعوا إن جئت حبل وريدي

Do not approach our house; they have sworn to cut my jugular vein if you come.

The beloved asks him to stay away and not approach her—not out of a dislike for meeting but as a reflection of the state she continues to endure: (*I am not free, I cannot express my desires, I cannot live as I wish*). However, the poet initiates his campaign to challenge traditions in order to achieve his existence and freedom as a human, not just for himself, but also for the existence and freedom of women. He depicts a scene where he remains steadfast during the night, hoping to meet his beloved:

هل أثار شكوكهم حولي قيامي بالدجى وقعودي
وتأففي وتلهفي وتبرمي بهم..

Did they grow suspicious of me
For my nightly vigils and lamentations?
My sighs, my yearnings, my frustrations with them...

The poet appears unwavering, committed to his cause, convinced that this steadfastness is the only path to achieving his goals. He could have described himself and his beloved defying surveillance and meeting in defiance to achieve material or lustful desires. Yet, his state wavers between lingering near his beloved's dwelling and expressing his frustration and discontent with the obstacles that separate them. He is undoubtedly determined to reach his goal, as he cannot psychologically live without his other half—the woman. As he says:

يا للتعاسة من يسليني ويسليني بأيام لفراق السود

“O misery! Who can console me
Through these dark days of separation?”

This narrative reflects the poet's psychological state in two interconnected dimensions:
His suffocation under traditions and the strict surveillance of family members.

His refusal to accept these constraints and his attempt to subjugate them to his own aspirations for existence and freedom. He conveys this tension in another poem (Al-Ansari, 1997):

أكثر الشكوى حنانك أهدي وترقي بالشاعر المنكود
الصبح لم يسفر وأهلك نوم قومي معي نحسو المدام وعودي
فترددت وتململت وتنهدت وبكت وطوق ساعداها جيدي

Are you full of complaints? Have mercy, calm down,
Be gentle with the ill-fated poet.
The morning has not dawned, and your people are asleep;
Come with me, let us sip the wine, then return.
She hesitated, stirred, sighed,
Wept, and her arms encircled my neck.

Here, the poet illustrates an encounter between himself and his beloved woman. She appears to waver between a desire to remain and a visible inclination to withdraw from his presence, aware of the surveillance and societal judgment that surrounds her. This psychological state seems to be a projection of the poet's own feelings—he speaks as if he were the woman. In truth, he seeks to remove the barriers of fear and surveillance, encapsulating this dynamic in the word “wretched”.

Had the poet sought material or physical satisfaction, he could have achieved it easily, as his beloved is seemingly by his side. However, his “wretchedness” persists as long as she remains shackled by fear and societal scrutiny. He desires her companionship in a state of reassurance and autonomy, reflecting this aspiration through a bold challenge when he says, “Come with me, let's sip the wine, then return”.

The inclusion of wine in this context, alongside the woman, symbolizes the existential and philosophical ideas the poet holds dear. He longs for the woman to shed her fear, doubts, and hesitations and reach a state of conviction. Freedom and self-awareness, according to him, cannot emerge from transient acts but must be deeply rooted to withstand the rigidity of traditions.

The woman's state here follows two trajectories:

The lingering concern about societal judgment.

A sense of existential joy and liberation, which leads to tears of happiness and an embrace, as seen in: “She wrapped her arms around my neck”.

This embrace signifies triumph over fear, hesitation, and complaint. The poet joins her in shedding tears, overwhelmed by joy. Her newfound sense of existence mirrors his own, as he expresses his reverence and devotion to her. Nothing illustrates this better than portraying the woman as the one initiating the desire to sustain their relationship—a fruit of freedom and existential fulfillment—when she says: “Come, let us head to the shores.” In another love poem, he writes (Diwan, p. 169):

ولهان يفرش الرمال أصيلا فيخاله الزاني هناك عليا
طورا ينن وتارة يبكي وأونة تراه صامتا مذهولا
كالطفل أشجاء الفطام فطرفه أبدا تراه بالدموع بليلا

Love-struck, he reclines on the sands at sunset,
And to the observer, he appears ill.
At times he groans, at times he weeps,
And other times, he sits silent, stunned.
Like a child tormented by weaning,
His tear-filled eyes perpetually glisten.

The poet describes a psychological state filled with deep sorrow and confusion, such that any observer would mistake him for an ill man. The symbolic progression in the lines draws attention to words such as *love-struck*, *ill*, *groaning*, *weeping*, *bewildered*, *tear-soaked*, *orphaned*, all of which indicate that grief has overtaken him, leading him to seek compassion and solace. The poem addresses the poet's longing by recalling a romantic relationship with a woman he loved and who loved him, during a particular night (Al-Ansari, 1997):

أواه من ذكراري ليلة أقبلت سكرى تجرّ على الرمال ذيولا
فالقلب صفق هاتفا ومرتلا للقائها نغم الهوى ترتيلا
رددت تقديسا وتعظيما لها يسجودي التكبير والتهليلا
وظفقت أقطف من شقائق خدّها ولكم رشفت رضابها المعسولا

Ah, how I recall that night when she came,
 Drunken, trailing her gown across the sands.
 My heart leapt, chanting and reciting
 Love's melodies in anticipation of her.
 I praised her with reverence and devotion,
 Bowing in glorification and prayer.
 I began plucking blossoms from her rosy cheeks,
 And oh, how I sipped her sweet nectar.

It is clear that the poet sought to dispel the sorrow and pain lodged within his soul and heart by recalling memories of his beloved. Through this remembrance, the beloved woman represented two states for him:

Psychological relief from “gloomy solitude”—particularly since the poet was never married, achieving in his poetry what he could not in real life. A triumph over the constraints of his time and the traditions of his family and society.

This feeling prompted him to delve into the details of that remembered night. His attention to these details stems from the value he assigns to the beloved, culminating in the line: “*And oh, how I sipped her sweet nectar*”.

The poet combines emotional and sensory imagery to fulfill his inner needs and reach his purpose. By elaborating on the physical descriptions of his beloved, he seeks to challenge societal norms, mock its sanctities, and revel in achieving his desires. This sense of overwhelming ecstasy is evident when he writes (Al-Ansari, 1997):

فتقول لي والكأس خضت كفه
 إني لأهوى الضم والتقبيل
 فأجبت أختشى البدر يفشي سرنا
 فاضفي علينا شعرك المسدول
 ما إن أداعب نهدها بأناملتي
 حتى أطوق خصرها المهزولا
 ”فتخالنا فوق الرمال ونحن في سكر الغرام“ بثينة و”جميلا

She said to me, her cup staining her hand,
 'I long for embraces and kisses.'
 I replied, 'I fear the moon will reveal our secret,
 So let your flowing hair veil us.'
 As I caressed her bosom with my fingertips,
 I encircled her slender waist,
 And on the sands, lost in the intoxication of love,
 We became another 'Layla and Majnun.'

This image emerges from the depths of the poet's psyche, surpassing even the boldness of erotic poetry from the pre-Islamic or Umayyad periods. It becomes evident throughout this study that Fahad did not intend to depict genuine romantic or physical experiences. Instead, he sought to express other aspects of his life and the life of his nation, representing a sharp contradiction between the new circumstances of life in his homeland and Kuwait's strict social and religious traditions (Al-Roumi, 1978).

The four verses above reveal a tone of blatant defiance and an overwhelming desire to break the constraints upheld by his environment. His method is to shock this oppressive environment with brazen imagery. It is important to note that this defiance stems from deep-seated personal anguish, which transforms into poetic inspiration. Through this inspiration, the poet experiences an ecstasy that becomes both his affliction and remedy.

The poet's torment births his inspiration, and through inspiration comes ecstasy. Thus, the poet's suffering becomes the path to his creativity, and his creativity becomes the means to conquer and savor this suffering. The poetic imagery in the lines intertwines, enhancing its impact on the reader. For instance, the image of “*her cup staining her hand*” is visual. Despite being blind, the poet vividly imagines the cup in his beloved's hand, coloring it and bestowing it with its charm. This visual image stirs the senses of touch and movement: “*I long for embraces and kisses.*” Combined with the cup, this evokes the sense of taste. Altogether, the woman savors the situation depicted by the poet, who successfully conveys his feelings, for:

Imagery was not created to depict shapes and colors. All people can perceive these as they are. Instead, imagery was created to convey the emotional experience of these shapes and colors from one soul to another. (Al-Aqqad et al., n.d.)

To affirm his desire and alignment with the beloved's vision, the poet responds to her in dialogue form: “*I fear the moon will reveal our secret.*” This dialogue carries two overlapping interpretations:

Agreement with the beloved, aligning his desire with hers.

A response to an implicit question within her words: “*Will you embrace and kiss me?*” The poet answers: “*I fear the moon will reveal our secret.*”

The poet's psychological state lends greater value to this poetic act and its expression. With his keen insight, he savored the meeting under the moonlight and sought to share this sentiment with the reader. He did not choose a hidden place to meet and caress his beloved but rather desired to do so beneath the light of the moon. Thus, “*I fear*” does not indicate genuine fear of a watcher but rather the heightened psychological pleasure that drove his creativity, inspiring this imagery. The following two verses further illustrate this ecstasy:

ما إن أداعب نهدها بأناملتي حتى أطوق خصرها المهزولا

فتخالنا فوق الرمال ونحن في سكر الغرام بثينة وجميلا

As I caressed her bosom with my fingertips,
I encircled her slender waist.
And on the sands, lost in the intoxication of love,
We became another 'Layla and Majnun.'

We must recognize that any poet makes the best use of language's potential, imbuing it with meanings and ideas, and expressing his sentiments and concerns through diverse poetic imagery. For the poet, imagery represents:

A linguistic structure crafted by his imagination from various elements, with the tangible world at the forefront. Most imagery is derived from the senses, alongside psychological and intellectual images that cannot be overlooked. (Al-Batal, 1980)

D. The Psychological Significance of the Image in Fahd Al-Askar's Poetry

Al-Askar's work incorporates multiple elements in shaping the image, such as social and cultural factors, as well as diverse sensory inputs. His work emphasizes the idea that a poet's conviction regarding what his soul reveals is crucial in interpreting the sensory images. There is a distinct interaction between his sufferings and emotions, leading to the following imagery: (أداعب / حتى أطوق خصرها / المزهولا / فوق الرمال) (I caress / until I encircle her waist / the flaccid one / on the sand). These words carry psychological connotations that challenge societal norms and create tension, while also effectively expressing the poet's desires. The woman is described as both the sacrifice and the active force in the poet's struggle against those who oppose his ideology. If the woman feels freedom and social justice, she will have realized her existence, and this is what the poet wishes for.

One can say that the woman takes both a horizontal and vertical line in forming the poetic meaning, depending on the poet's emotional states. She is the muse, the voice of suffering, pain, and pleasure. She becomes the entire poem. It is because of her that the poet created, produced, fought, and sacrificed. She was also the tool used to provoke the anger of society, which is the poet's goal, and the study aims to prove this.

III. CONCLUSION

In conclusion, the poet is a messenger, an intellectual revolutionary, and he seeks to reach his goal after dedicating himself—to use the poetic language as a tool to serve his society. Poetry transcends linguistic ability to creative energy, which can shake the fixed meanings and transform them into forms not allowed by the dictionary. If wine, in its conventional meaning, refers to “the intoxicating drink, the poet indeed shakes this conventional meaning, infusing the word “wine” with the clear psychological connotations it carries.

The poet also practices a kind of insistence, which arises from the external pressures of reality. “He creates and tries to find in art a means of fulfilling his fantasies. The true cause of excellent artistic creation is the turmoil of the collective unconscious during periods of crisis, which disrupts the poet's psychological balance and drives him to seek a new equilibrium. This insistence is “the behavior of a genius pursuing his goal. The intensity in the pursuit of a goal is rarely seen in normal individuals, and on the other hand, the genius rarely abandons his goal despite the obstacles.

In times of genius and persistence, alongside the shifting of central meanings, the poet has escaped into a world of imagination, far from reality. But this is a positive escape, aimed at achieving pleasure, purpose, and impact together. In such a case, the poet tries to escape from his sharp sense of reality, his psychological state filled with conflict, to free himself through escape. The creative drive is then fueled by the desire to free himself from this reality, not to leave it behind for an entirely different, fantastical world.

It is true to say that the poet, just as he subjects language to his creativity, also subjects society to his authority through the creativity born of tension between the two. His tool for doing so is by stirring societal taboos and playing with them through language and the imagination that produced these verses we have in hand.

REFERENCES

- [1] Abbas, H. (1998). *Characteristics and meanings of Arabic letters*. Publications of the Arab Writers Union.
- [2] Abdul Muttalib, M. (1997). *The Arabic rhetoric: Another reading*. The Egyptian International Publishing Company: Longman.
- [3] Abdullah, M., & Ali, A. (1975). Fayed Al-Askar, a Kuwaiti poet. *Al-Bayan Journal, Kuwait Association*, 109(1), 209–233.
- [4] Abdul-Raof, H. (2006). *Arabic rhetoric: A pragmatic analysis*. Routledge.
- [5] Abu Al-Adous, Y. (2007). *Osmology, vision, and application*. Jordan: Dar Al Masirah and Distribution.
- [6] Abumelhim, M. H., Abu-Melhim, A. R., Rababah, M. A., & Rababah, K. A. (2023). Linguistic analysis of ISIS' miscontextualisation of the Qur'anic verses: Propaganda strategy. *Journal of Language and Communication (JLC)*, 10(2), 167–181. <https://journalfbmk.upm.edu.my/ojs3/index.php/jlc/article/view/648>
- [7] Adonis, A. A. (1985). *Arabic poetry*. Lebanon: Dar Al-Adab.
- [8] Ala'aridi, M. (2002). *The psychological connotation of the articulations in the Holy Qur'an*. Jordan: Jordan Press.
- [9] Al-Ansari, A. Z. (1997). *Fahd Al-Askar's life and his poetry*. Kuwait: Al-Rabian Publishing and Distribution Company.
- [10] Alaaqaad, A. M. (n.d.). *The diwan in literature and criticism*. Egypt: Hindawi House.

- [11] Alatoom, N. A., Al-Afef, A. K., Aljedayh, K. S., Al Azzam, T. M., Abumelhim, M. H., & Rababah, M. A. (2022). The future of refuge in the Middle East: Social and political impacts. *Res Militaris*, 12(2), 3410–3418. <https://resmilitaris.net/index.php/resmilitaris/article/view/458>
- [12] Albatal, A. (1981). *The image in Arabic poetry until the end of the 2nd Hijri century: A study in its origins and development*. Egypt: Dar Al-Andalus.
- [13] Aldowkat, I. M., Abu-Snoubar, T. K., Olimat, S. N., Mahadin, D. K., & Rababah, M. A. (2024). Frankenstein: A literary perspective on the coronavirus pandemic. *Jordan Journal of Modern Languages & Literatures*, 16(2), 505–522. <https://doi.org/10.47012/jjml.16.2.13>
- [14] 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>
- [15] Al-Habies, F. A., Rababa'h, S. Y., & Rababah, M. A. (2024). Obstacles to marriage for Jordanian persons with visual or hearing disabilities from their perspectives. *FWU Journal of Social Sciences*, 18(2), 91–104. <http://121.52.146.40/fwu-journal/index.php/ojs/article/view/3032>
- [16] Aljedayh, K., Alatoom, N., Abu Jraiban, M., Abumelhim, M., Abumelhim, A., Rababah, M. (2022). Hashemites' custodianship of Jerusalem Islamic holy sites. *Qudus International Journal of Islamic Studies (QIJIS)*, 10(1), 253–284. <https://journal.iainkudus.ac.id/index.php/QIJIS/index>. Retrieved on August 10 2023
- [17] Al-Jezawi, H. K., Al-Abdulrazzaq, M. A., Rababah, M. A., & Aldoory, A. H. (2023). Art voicing peaceful protest: Hip-hop and rap in the American and Arabic cultures. *International Journal of Arabic-English Studies*, 24(1), 1–16. <https://doi.org/10.33806/ijaes.v24i1.555>. Retrieved on August 10, 2023.
- [18] Alkhaldi, A. A., Rababah, M. A., Al-Saidat, E. M., Rakhieh, B. M., & Rababah, K. A. (2023). A lexical study of coffee shop signs in Jordan. *International Journal of English Language and Literature Studies*, 12(1), 33–44. DOI: 10.55493/5019.v12i1.4703. Retrieved on August 10, 2023.
- [19] 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. <https://ideas.repec.org/a/asi/ijells/v12y2023i4p384-400id4923.html>
- [20] 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>
- [21] Alroumi, N. S. (1978). *The poetry of Fahd Al-Askar: A critical and analytical study*. Egypt: Dar Al-Ain.
- [22] Al-Sadd, N. (2010). *Symmetry and discourse loading*. Algeria: Dar Homo.
- [23] 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 August 10, 2023.
- [24] Al-Sharifi, I. (1998). *The golden encyclopedia in the genealogy of the tribes and families of the Arabian Peninsula*. Kuwait: Kuwait Press.
- [25] *Alwaseet dictionary*. (2004). Al-Shorouk International Library.
- [26] Assaiqeli, A. (2021). Palestine in visual representation: A visual semiotic analysis of the Nakba. *International Journal of Arabic-English Studies (IJAES)*, 21(1), 99–126. <https://doi.org/10.33806/ijaes2000.21.1.6>. Retrieved on August 12, 2023.
- [27] Bani Yassien, B., Melhem, M., Albadameh, M., & Rababah, M. (2023). Coping strategies with anger as a state and an emotional trait in female students. *Education and Science*, 25(8), 162–185. <https://doi.org/10.17853/1994-5639-2023-8-162-185>
- [28] Bani-Khair, B., Alkhalifah, Z. K., Al Ahmad, M. H., Karim, M. A., & Rababah, M. A. (2024). The correlation between art and death in Willa Cather's *Lucy Gayheart*: Fatality of art or artistic failure. *Journal of Language Teaching and Research*, 15(1), 318–323. <https://doi.org/10.17507/jltr.1501.35>
- [29] Dawood, S. A., Ercan, S. T., & AVolkan, A. (2016). Evaluating the communication competency of tour guides using a modified importance-performance analysis (MIPA). *International Journal of Contemporary Hospitality Management*, 28(1), 195–218. <http://dx.doi.org/10.1108/IJCHM-02-2014-0064>. Retrieved on June 20, 2023
- [30] Eidan, A. Y. (2013). *The sin of Fahd Al-Askar "existentialism in Kuwaiti poetry*. Egypt: Dar Al-Ain.
- [31] 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 June 10, 2023.
- [32] Fadl, S. (1977). *Literary connotation production*. Egypt: Mokhtar Publishing Corporation.
- [33] 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>
- [34] Harara, N. M., Amarnah, E. F., Al Hammouri, R. N., Rababah, M. A., Rababah, L., & El-Omari, A. H. (2024). The effect of Osborn's model on developing students' rhetoric concepts. *Journal of Language Teaching and Research*, 15(4), 1072–1082. <https://doi.org/10.17507/jltr.1504.05>
- [35] Ismaeil, I. D. (1977). *Psychological interpretation of literature*. Egypt: Gharib Library.
- [36] 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 September 12, 2023.
- [37] Malkawi, N., Al-Slaihat, M. M., Al Basal, N. M. A., Sakarnah, 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. Retrieved on September 12, 2023. <https://doi.org/10.17507/jltr.1405.11>. Retrieved on September 12, 2023.
- [38] Malkawi, N., Rababah, M. A., Al Dalacen, 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(5), pp. 95–113. <https://doi.org/10.3991/ijet.v18i05.36727>. Retrieved on June 10, 2023.

- [39] Melhim, M. A., Rababah, M. A., Rabab'a, Y. A., Zainelabdin, F. A., Al Dalaeen, I., Zaytoon, N. A., Alqiam, H. 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 & Practice*, 23(14), 55–77. <https://doi.org/10.33423/jhetp.v23i14.6389>
- [40] Obadah, M. I. (2011). *A dictionary of syntax, prosody and rhyme terms*. Egypt: Library of Arts.
- [41] Omar, A. M. (1985). *Semantics*. Egypt: World of Books.
- [42] Qutous, B. (2004). *An introduction to contemporary criticism methods*. Egypt: Dar Al-Wafaa for Printing and Publishing.
- [43] Rabab'a, Y., Al-Nuaimat, A., Alrababah, O. F., & Rababah, M. (2023). Believers without borders: Origin and impact in the light of the Noble Qur'an and the Sunnah. *Islamic Quarterly*, 66(3), 317–342. Link.
- [44] 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-2023-2304-01>
- [45] 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: A Parent's Perspective. *Education and Science*, 25(5), 176–194. <https://doi.org/10.17853/1994-5639-2023-5-176-194>. Retrieved on June 10, 2023.
- [46] Wolor, C. H., Eranza, D. R., Rababah, M. A., & Nurkhin, A. (2023). Relationship of work-family conflict, work-life imbalance, and work-related stress with employee performance of married women in Indonesia: A cross-sectional study (Persian). *Iranian Journal of Psychiatry and Clinical Psychology*, 29(3), 350–369. <https://doi.org/10.32598/ijpcp.29.3.4713.1>
- [47] Wolor, C. W., Eranza, D. R. D., Rababah, M. A., Nurkhin, A., & Wibawa, E. A. (2024). Sexual harassment and its impact on employees. *Universal Journal of Public Health*, 12(1), 91–100. <https://doi.org/10.13189/ujph.2024.120109>



Ismeel Mahd Mnazel Al-Gayam is an Associate Professor at Al-Balqa Applied University, Ajloun University College, Department of Basic Sciences/Arabic Language, Language, and Grammar. His areas of interest are linguistics, discourse analysis, and pragmatics. i_alqayam@bau.edu.jo



Basma Awdeh Salman Al-Rawashdeh is an Arabic language and literature associate professor at Al-Balqa Applied University, Princess Rahmah University College, Jordan. She is interested in studying philology, lexical analysis, and Arabic language literature. She obtained her master's degree and a PhD from the University of Jordan. basma_rawashdeh@bau.edu.jo



Ahmad Helal Mohammad Bany Essa is an assistant professor at Al-Balqa Applied University, Ajloun University College, Department of Basic Sciences, Arabic Language, Literature, and Modern Criticism. He is interested in modern criticism, ancient literature, poetry, and prose. ahmed-hillal@bau.edu.jo



Mahmoud Ali Rababah has a PhD in Applied Linguistics from UUM Malaysia. His areas of interest are applied linguistics, socio-pragmatics, sociolinguistics and translation. Jadara Research Center, Jadara University, Irbid 21110, Jordan, <https://orcid.org/0000-0002-0930-4030>

Naming and Describing as a Textual-Conceptual Tool in Woolf's *Mrs. Dalloway*

Azhar H. Sallomi

English Department, Babylon University, Babylon, Iraq

Iman M. Obied

English Department, Babylon University, Babylon, Iraq

Abstract—The matter of the writer's choice between two or more ways of referring to the same thing or person in texts is closely linked with his/her ideological intention. The present paper detects the ideological interpretation of *Naming and Describing* as a textual-conceptual tool in Virginia Woolf's novel *Mrs. Dalloway* that tackles woman's trauma after the First World War. It aims to show how *Naming and Describing* tool is employed by Woolf to reveal woman's distress because of war. Additionally, it aims to indicate the ideology(ies) that lie behind the novelist's choice of a specific noun and ignoring others. Based on Jeffries' (2010) framework that presents three ways of naming, the extracts that expose woman's trauma are examined. The researchers conclude that the novelist dedicates the three ways of naming which are entitled: choice of noun, modification and nominalization for representing woman's trauma. Further, *Naming and Describing* tool assists in delivering negative ideologies such as hegemony, bullying, discrimination, and non-existence. This in turn indicates not only Woolf's denial to war which is the source of women's pain but also her plea to British women to constantly fight in order to gain their peace and delight.

Index Terms—naming and describing, trauma, ideology, critical stylistics, *Mrs. Dalloway*

I. INTRODUCTION

Critical stylistics (henceforth CS) is an approach of language analysis that provides the missing links between critical discourse analysis which comprises ideology and stylistics that covers the textual choices (Coffey, 2013). This approach is related to the British researcher Jeffries (2007) who first studied the impact of feminist's ideology in society. Asensio (2016) states that the main concern in critical stylistics is ideology which is embedded in the discursive practices. For him, the task of the researcher is to describe the methods where ideology and language join.

Later on and more precisely in 2010, Jeffries presents a framework that contains a set of comprehensive toolkits including *Naming and Describing*. These toolkits help in uncovering the ideologies that lie behind the writer's language. According to Jeffries (2010, p. 5), the term 'ideology' denotes "those ideas that are shared by a community or society [...] are a very important aspect of the world that we live in, and they are, of course, communicated, reproduced, constructed and negotiated through language".

The present paper investigates how the writer's choice of a specific noun rather than others has a significant ideological intention. The British feminine novel *Mrs. Dalloway* is chosen as a sample for analysis in this study. In this novel, Virginia Woolf offers a portrayal of women as troubled and upset ones because of the First World War even though they are not directly involved in this event.

Accordingly, the researchers attempt to find answers to the questions that are listed next:

- 1- How does *Naming and Describing*, as a textual- conceptual tool, represent woman's trauma in *Mrs. Dalloway*?
- 2- What is the most/ least way of naming that indicates woman's trauma?
- 3- What is the ideological implication of *Naming and Describing* in the selected novel?

A. Significance of Study

The significance of the study lies in employing the tool of *Naming and Describing* that is covered in Jeffries' (2010) framework of *Critical Stylistics* on Woolf's novel to bring into surface the hidden ideology of woman's trauma. Several studies have tackled this issue. The next paragraphs list some of these studies:

1- Srinivas's paper "**Physical and Psychological Victimization of Woman: Reading Alice Walker's *The Color Purple***" (2016) examines the concept of men's supremacy over women in Walker's novel *The Color Purple*. It aims to show how men's domination in society is usually accompanied by enhancement of women's misery. The study confirms the immoral effect of men's domination and its further physical and psychological consequences on women in any society.

2- Aksehir (2017) investigates the impact of the First World War on women in his study which is entitled "*The First World War and Women as the Victims of War Trauma in Virginia Woolf's Novels*". The researcher presents a portrayal of women as disappointed victims of First World War. Virginia Woolf's three novels: *To the Light House*, *Jacob's Room*,

Mrs. Dalloway are the data selected for the purpose of analysis. The study concludes that women have experienced the miseries of the war through enduring this sense of loss, anger, fear, lack, and the compulsory penalty of faithfulness.

3- In her dissertation that is named “**Bystander Intervention, Victimization, and Routine Activities Theory: An Examination of Feminist Routine Activities Theory in Cyber Space**” (2019), Leili employs Routine Activities Theory to scrutinize three classes of victimization. These types are: sexual violence, dating violence and stalking. A web centered analysis is utilized in this study to evaluate bystander interference in cyber violence and develop feminist routine activities theory. The researcher finds out that students favor to interpose in a direct manner. Further, bystander involvement programs will develop the feminist Routine Activities Theory literature.

The current study is apart from other similar studies in investigating the linguistic realizations that shape the tool of *Naming and Describing*. These linguistic triggers, that are mentioned in Jeffries’ (2010) framework of *Critical Stylistics*, comprise in their strata the novelist’s ideologies towards the concept of woman’s trauma. Other studies, unlike the present study, examine the same concept from psychological or literary perspectives by relying on theories of victimization.

B. Hypothesis

It is hypothesized that *Naming and Describing* helps in uncovering the unseen ideologies that accompany woman’s trauma in Woolf’s *Mrs. Dalloway*.

C. Aims of the Research

In line with the research questions that are stated above, the study aims to:

- 1- Detect the methods of naming which are employed by Woolf to expose woman’s trauma in the scrutinized novel.
- 2- Figure out the most/least way of naming that echoes the issue under study.
- 3- Uncover the hidden ideology(ies) which lie behind Woolf’s choice of particular nouns and neglecting others.

II. CRITICAL STYLISTICS (CS)

CS is typical text-based stylistics with a definite critical goal (Jeffries, 2010). Norgaard et al. (2010) explain CS meaning by describing the term as being beneficial in scrutinizing the ways whereby the social meanings are clarified via language. Concerning the history of this term, it is first introduced at the University of Huddersfield, precisely with the publication of Jeffries’ (2010) book “*Critical Stylistics: The Power of English*”. Burke (2014) confirms the idea that stylistic tools reflect the literary impacts whereas critical discourse analysis tools display the contextual traits of powerful language. Jeffries thinks that connecting together these two categories of tools will be more fruitful and effective. She believes that such tools can be applied to power related issues and ideology in language. Accordingly, CS “bridges the gap noticed between stylistics and critical discourse analysis through evolving critical linguistics field to text analysis realm” (Jeffries, 2010, p. 14).

It is obvious then that the impression of CS lies in two things: Firstly, the supplement of the most comprehensive set of analytical toolkits. Secondly, linking the merits of critical discourse analysis and stylistics for the purpose of revealing the linguistic choices that embed the producer’s ideology in addition to any other social notions. In this sense, CS can be listed under the umbrella of critical linguistics as it is activated to uncover ideologies and power related issues in discourse.

Olaluwoye (2015) adds that CS is involved in uniting both the key text functions, which denote the real world, and text structures themselves. In Jeffries’ (2010) view, there could not be an identical bond between form and function. This would be a vital question to some positive - life aspects in language like poetry writing and metaphor which are used in everyday life, or to the negative aspects like manipulation and lying.

In brief, CS is an approach for describing texts due to textual – conceptual tools that signify the world which is created via the text itself. These tools are represented in the text through linguistic triggers that help to uncover the ideologies lying behind the text. This is the operational definition which is adopted in the present study.

III. NAMING AND DESCRIBING

Different ways are used in texts to name the world. Jeffries (2010, p. 17) states that “in naming, there may be a certain choice between two or more ways of referring to the same thing.” That is, the name for a person may be changed with another one which refers for the same person. For instance, one can say *Mr. Brown* or *the Professor in the Canadian University*; each one of these two has an ideological intention. Linguists like de Saussure (1974), Saeed (2016) and Kroeger (2018), among many others, have discussed the idea of reference. For them, reference refers to the way people use language to describe things around them through using different expressions. Quirk et al. (1985, p. 343) mention that the choice of a noun sometimes “displays gender bias, and in turn ideology” as in using “*sales man*” instead of the neutral term “*sales person*”. Jeffries (2010) assumes that there are three essential ways where naming can evoke ideological meanings in texts. These ways are: choosing a name out of some available alternatives, adding information to the noun, and describing activities by verbs when they are changed into nouns by the process of nominalization.

IV. THE IDEOLOGICAL EFFECTS OF NAMING AND DESCRIBING

The major formal counterpart to naming is the noun. The selection of nouns, in representing something, explains one side of the ideological possibility of naming. Moreover, a great deal of information can be implicated within the domain of noun phrase via the use of modifiers (Jeffries, 2010). Accordingly, the prototypical trend of naming things and people in English is achieved by nominal units that are attached to the head. Additionally, the ideological information can be affixed by modification to the inner structure of those nominal units. Naming can also be of ideological weight in nominalization which challenges the form- function simplicity of the prototypical order. In this order, nouns are words that name entities whereas verbs are words that name processes. Fowler (1991, p. 80) explains that naming may influence the ideological content of a text via “packaging up notions to be named or modified in different ways or even changing an action into something fixed through nominalization”.

V. METHODOLOGY

A. Data Description and Selection

Woolf's *Mrs. Dalloway*, which is published in 1925, is nominated as a sample for the present paper as it is one of her best eminent novels. Whitworth (2000, p. 48) states that “it has been mentioned in ‘Time’s list’ in 2005 as one of the best 100 English novels since the coming out of ‘Time’ in 1923”. Hence, the novel has its own noteworthy significance and an actual impact in British fictions.

B. Method of Analysis

The study follows a mixed method of qualitative and quantitative approaches in the analysis. Fuentes (2008, p. 1592) mentions that these approaches complement each other in many ways and give “richer detail than either method can generate alone”. Regarding the current study, the qualitative approach is used by adopting a critical stylistic approach. This approach investigates various linguistic triggers that show social problems like women's victimization in a specific text. The quantitative approach is done through the use of content analysis. For Krippendorff (1980, p. 21), content analysis is “a research technique for making replicable and valid inferences from data to their context”.

C. Procedures

For the analysis of data under study, the researchers have followed the steps that are listed next:

1. Examining carefully *Mrs. Dalloway*, detecting the concept of woman's victimization, and finally identifying all the extracts that convey victimization.
2. Identifying the extracts that are speculations of female characters in the selected novel including Clarissa (the heroine in the novel), Lucrezia, Miss Kilman.
3. Illuminating the ideological ends of the text by unveiling the linguistic choices that each extract exploits to deliver a particular ideology about victimization.
4. Applying a quantitative analysis through the use of content analysis to quantitatively support the findings of the analysis.
5. For further clarification, a table is stated beneath each analyzed extract to display the ways of naming that occur in each sentence.

VI. DATA ANALYSIS

A. Qualitative Analysis of *Mrs. Dalloway*

Extract (1)

Clarissa speaks with herself while she is walking in Bond Street:

(1) “this body, with all its capacities, seemed nothing—nothing at all.” (2) “She had the oddest sense of being herself invisible, unseen, unknown”. (3) “there being no more marrying, no more having of children now, but only this astonishing and rather solemn progress with the rest of them” (4) “up Bond Street, this being Mrs. Dalloway” (p. 9).

This extract describes how Clarissa is ignored, disregarded and finally turned to a hidden thing as a result of this extensive indulge in the world of technology. Clarissa calls herself a “body” to denote how she considers herself as a thing with no soul, emotions and humanity although she has achieved a lot in her life. In using such noun “body” to refer to Clarissa, Woolf shows how women in British society, generally, are totally interwoven with this modern life of technology; they are as lifeless as machines that work continuously with no end. Woolf describes this growth as a ‘astonishing’ and ‘rather solemn’ for showing indirectly how Clarissa is shocked and traumatized by First World War which closely connected with these developments. The nominalization process that is represented in the words ‘marrying’ and ‘having’ denotes the lack significance of this act of marriage and bringing children. This justifies why Clarissa hates such progress which is linked with human's trauma and likes to return back to the normal world where she can find her humanity.

In sentence (4), Clarissa asserts her real presence in Bond Street as a married woman. She is no more that lifeless ‘body’ whose name is ‘Clarissa’. Through her marriage from Mr. Richard Dalloway, Clarissa loses entirely her own identification and becomes recognized as a thing that relates to her husband. Hence, Woolf here confirms this concept of slavery and

disrespect in the British society. That is, woman in Woolf's society is no more regarded as a human. Rather, she is an object that is created for the sake of man's momentary ecstasy and delight. In this sense, she dislikes this technological progress as it leads to the harm of her humanity and distress. This, of course, indicates how Woolf criticizes the world of technology where humans have become machines without soul.

TABLE 1
SYNTACTIC TRIGGERS IN THE FIRST EXTRACT

The Tool	The Syntactic Trigger
Naming	Choice of noun, the noun (body).
Describing	Modification, the modified noun (sense) and the modifier (oddest).
Describing	Modification, the modified noun (progress) and the modifiers (astonishing) and (rather solemn).
Naming	Nominalization, the nouns "marrying" and "having".
Naming	Choice of noun, the word (Bond)

Extract Two

Clarissa talks with herself about Miss Kilman while she is walking in the Bond Street:

(1) "all her soul rusted with that grievance sticking in it." (2) "her dismissal from school during the war –poor embittered unfortunate creature!" (p. 10).

Miss Kilman is the history teacher of Clarissa's daughter, Elizabeth. Miss Kilman has exposed to discrimination in the British society for her Germanic origin. In the first sentence Clarissa introduces a gloomy sketch of Kilman which reflects the immense extent of pain that is resulted from poverty, insufficiency, and abuse. Such suffering seems to be infinite as appeared in this image of a "soul" that is marked with that stabbing pain. The occurrence of the noun "soul" before the modifier "rusted" confirms the scope of Kilman's spiritual pain that has no expiration. Thus, such intense description of Kilman's deep sorrow reveals not only Woolf's sympathy towards the poor but also her appreciation to their life that has a goal. Clarissa illuminates further in sentence (2) how Kilman's suffering increases during the war. As a result of society's hostile - German bias, Kilman is fired from her teaching job. This explains why Clarissa describes Kilman as unlucky and offended person. Instead of naming Kilman a "woman", Woolf categorizes her as a "creature" to highlight the humanity of women. Thus, women, similar to men, are persons who have the right of gaining individuality and dependence no matter what their ancestry or level of living is.

TABLE 2
SYNTACTIC TRIGGERS IN THE SECOND EXTRACT

The Tool	The Syntactic Trigger
Describing	Modification, the noun (soul), the post modifier (rusted).
Describing	Modification, the noun (creature), the modifiers "poor, embittered, unfortunate".
Naming	The choice of the noun, the noun (creature).

Extract Three

Virginia Woolf describes Laucrezia's state while she is sitting in Regent's park:

(1) "To be rocked by this malignant torture was her lot. (2) "But why? She was like a bird hiding under the thin hollow of a leaf, who blinks at the sun when the leaf moves". (3) "she was surrounded by the enormous trees, vast clouds of an indifferent world, exposed, tortured" (p. 54).

Woolf presents Laucrezia as an upset woman who has experienced this act of psychological trauma as a result of her husband's mental illness after the First World War. Laucrezia's suffering is described as a "malignant torture" because it is produced by Septimus who is her intimate husband and lover. Through the word "like", Woolf obviously parallels Laucrezia with a bird that hides under a leaf whose hollow is thin. Sentences (2) and (3) show this correspondence. That is, Laucrezia, similar to the bird, searches for protection and safety through nature that is represented in her marriage from a heroic soldier. Likewise, the bird hides under a leaf in order to find a shelter and a cover. However, both Laucrezia and the bird, unfortunately, have exposed to threat and danger as their source of protection (the soldier and the leaf) grows pitiful. This explains why the noun "hollow" is described as "thin" that refers to Septimus's flaw. The image of the bird which flashes at the sun symbolizes the existence of hope in Laucrezia's soul to defeat that pain. Woolf, in sentence (3), states how Laucrezia has exceedingly experienced various wicked acts that lead to her being totally depressed. Laucrezia is bounded by this unsympathetic and heartless husband with whom miseries are interminable. Her world is designated as "indifferent" to reflect the coldness of Septimus's emotions towards her.

TABLE 3
SYNTACTIC TRIGGERS IN THE THIRD EXTRACT

The Tool	The Syntactic Trigger
Describing	Modification, the noun (torture), the modifier (malignant).
Describing	Modification, the noun (hollow), the modifier (thin).
Describing	Modification, the noun (world), the modifier (indifferent).

Extract Four

Laucrezia talks with herself while she is sitting in Regent's park:

(1) “One cannot bring children into a world like this.” (2) “One cannot perpetuate suffering, or increase the breed of these lustful animals, who have no lasting emotions” (p. 73).

Laucrezia criticizes openly the male group and the hazardous world she lives in since both epitomize the foundation for her unsaved and gloomy life. Woolf in this extract presents Laucrezia as a disappointed woman who suffers deeply from her husband’s selfishness and indifference. In Laucrezia’s view, bringing children to this world offers an opportunity for those children to experience the same torture that their mothers have practiced. In doing so, no end exists for this sense of pain. Woolf’s choice for the word “one” rather than “I”, for instance, in sentence (1) indicates that the act of bringing children is a shared issue between man and woman which has to be seriously considered. Laucrezia dislikes males with whom she finds merely momentary desires and passions. She calls them “animals” to denote their special trait of being emotionless. According to Laucrezia, males are “lustful animals” who are bounded by their instincts and temporary desires. She names them “lustful animals” to indicate indirectly two issues. First, males have emotions and reactions only in experiencing this act through which they can accomplish their plea. In other words, the emergence of passion is closely connected with lust which is definitely impermanent. Second, males sometimes resort to brutality and cruelty with women; it is the way through which their lust can be achieved. In this sense, they turn to animals who are directed by their instincts rather than their minds or passions. Thus, Woolf here indirectly refers to man’s tyranny which is determined by his lust and shows how these concepts of woman’s trauma and lust are entirely interrelated.

TABLE 4
SYNTACTIC TRIGGERS IN THE FOURTH EXTRACT

The Tool	The Syntactic Trigger
Naming	Choice of the noun, the noun (one)
Naming	Choice of the noun, the noun (one)
Naming	The choice of noun, the noun (animals).
Describing	Modification, the noun (animals), the modifier (lustful)
Describing	Modification, the noun (emotions), the modifier (lasting).

B. Quantitative Analysis of Mrs. Dalloway

Regarding the circulation of *Naming and Describing* in *Mrs. Dalloway*, all syntactic triggers that belong to this tool are utilized for revealing woman’s trauma as shown in Table 5. Nevertheless, they are scattered as follows:

1. Modification is the most common type 15 (71.43%).
2. Choice of noun is the next in its distribution 5 (23.81%).
3. Nominalization is the last in its regularity 1 (4.76%).

TABLE 5
DISTRIBUTION OF NAMING AND DESCRIBING IN *MRS. DALLOWAY*

No.	Syntactic Trigger	Frequency	Percentage
1	Modification	15	71.43 %
2	Choice of Noun	5	23.81 %
3	Nominalization	1	4.76 %
Total		21	100 %

VII. DISCUSSION OF RESULTS

Through three women characters in *Mrs. Dalloway*, Woolf delivers several themes that all reflect woman’s inner suffering and pain because of The First World War. Clarissa, Laucrezia and Kilman share the same struggle with solitude that is basically caused by the horrible event of war. Further, they all have attempts to put an end to that struggle and gain real communion, peace and delight.

Starting with the heroine of *Mrs. Dalloway*, Clarissa, she experiences this sense of fear from death which is closely connected with the event of war. In presenting such character, Woolf wants to show the psychological impact the war has on women who are not directly involved in the battle area. Similar to Clarissa, Laucrezia deeply suffers from rather extreme state of emotionlessness and carelessness that is performed by her lover and husband, Septimus. Being a veteran in the army and witnessing the death of other soldiers including his friend, Septimus is affected mentally. This justifies his unresponsiveness and negligence to Laucrezia. Again, the war is the basic reason behind Laucrezia’s despair and loneliness. The third woman character in *Mrs. Dalloway* is the poor Kilman who suffers a lot for being dismissed from her job during the war for her Germanic origin. The other part of her suffering is related to the lack of males in her life because of her ugliness and unattractiveness. Thus, Kilman’s pain is partly caused by the war. The similarity in the source of struggle that the three women experience explains why themes like suffering, sadness, depriving, loss, absence, ... etc. are revealed through *Naming and Describing* tool. Such correspondence in those themes reveals the extent of likeness in the spiritual misery of women who witness the First world war. Table 6 below shows these themes as well as ideologies.

TABLE 6
SUMMARY OF THE THEMES AND IDEOLOGIES WITH WOMAN'S TRAUMA

The Character	The Theme	The Ideology
Clarissa	Absence of love and intimacy	Non-Existence
	Indifference	
	Carelessness	
	Loss of humanity	
Laucrezia	Lust	Hegemony
	Brutality	
	Spiritual Pain	
	Indifference	
	un safety	
Kilman	Spiritual pain	Non-Existence Discrimination Bullying
	Abuse	
	Poverty	
	Depriving	

As far as ideologies are concerned, Woolf devotes *Naming and Describing* tool to uncover some negative ideologies such as hegemony, bullying, non-existence, etc. that go along with woman's trauma. Such kind of ideologies reflects Woolf's extreme denial to woman's distress in her society. Woolf who represents the voice of the voiceless women motivates the British women to constantly fight in order to gain their contentment and peace.

Naming and Describing has total spread 21 (12.88%) in *Mrs. Dalloway* as it, similar to any fiction, includes a full description to characters as well as places. Novelists commonly nominate their characters in specific nouns such as, for instance, "body" rather than "woman" in order to denote a particular idea. This justifies why the two linguistic realizations of this tool namely: modification and choice of noun are more frequent than nominalization with scattering 15 (71.43%) and 5 (23.81%) individually. The little circulation of nominalization 1 (4.76%), of course, relates to the fact that Woolf deliberately wants to show the performers of the violent acts that are achieved against women and lead to their misery. Revolving these acts in to entities and covering their actors through nominalization process will certainly fail to convey the novelist's rejection to woman's trauma.

VIII. CONCLUSION

In the light of the qualitative and quantitative analysis of the selected data, the study concludes the following:

1- *Naming and Describing* is closely linked with the writer's intention. That is, Woolf's choice of a specific way of naming is determined by what she wants her readers grasp.

2- The first two ways of selecting a name that are entitled: modification and choice of noun are more frequent than nominalization with circulation 15 (71.43%) and 5 (23.81%) separately. The little scattering of nominalization 1 (4.76%) is traced back to Woolf's intention to show openly the actors of the cruel acts against woman rather than covering them. Adding to that, Woolf has no tendency to turn such acts to tangible entities and give them names through nominalization process as she strongly believes in woman's independence.

3- Virginia Woolf devotes *Naming and Describing* tool to show various themes like unsafety, humiliation, indifference, brutality ...etc. These themes either refer to the shortage in woman's life or to woman's exposure to wicked acts.

4- Four negative ideologies are uncovered and brought to the surface through *Naming and Describing* tool. These ideologies are: hegemony, discrimination, bullying, and non-existence.

5- The negative themes and ideologies that are revealed through Woolf's selection of particular nouns prove the novelist's rejection to war which is the basic source of woman's trauma in her society.

6- As she is a social activist who represents the voice of the voiceless in the British society, Woolf employs *Naming and Describing* in order to introduce an appeal for women to struggle for attaining their amity.

REFERENCES

- [1] Aksehir, M. (2017). The first world war and women as the victims of war trauma in Virginia Woolf's novels. *Journal of Arts & Humanities*, 4(3), 3-11. <https://doi.org/10.22492/ijah.4.si.01>
- [2] Asensio, J.L. (2016). Ideology, identity and power: The linguistic construction of the voice of the other in two immigration short stories. *Journal of Odisea*, 17, ISSN 1578 3820, 119–138. <https://doi.org/10.25115/odisea.v.0i17.356>
- [3] Burke, M. (2014). *The Routledge handbook of stylistics*. Routledge.
- [4] Coffey, L. (2013). Innocent until proven filthy: A corpus-based critical stylistic analysis of representations of men in women's magazines [Unpublished PhD thesis, University of Huddersfield]. <http://eprints.hud.ac.uk/19274/>. Retrieved in 2nd of March, 2021.
- [5] De Saussure, F. (1974). *Course in general linguistics*. Fontana Press.
- [6] Fowler, R. (1991). *Language in the news: Discourse and ideology in the press*. Routledge.
- [7] Fuentes, C.M. (2008). *Pathways from interpersonal violence of sexuality transmitted infections: A mixed method study of diverse women*. *Journal of Women's Health*, 17(6), 1591-1608.

- [8] Jeffries, L. (2007). *Textual construction of the female body. A critical discourse approach*. Palgrave Macmillan.
- [9] Jeffries, L. (2010). *Critical stylistics: The power of English*. Basingstoke.
- [10] Krippendorff, K. (1980). *Content analysis: An introduction to its methodology*. Sage Publication.
- [11] Kroeger, P.R. (2018). *Analyzing meaning: An introduction to semantics and pragmatics*. Language Science Press.
- [12] Leili, J. (2019). *Bystander intervention, victimization, and routine activities theory: An examination of feminist routine activities theory in cyber space* [Published doctoral dissertation, University of South Florid].
- [13] Nørgaard, N., Busse, B. & Montoro, R. (2010). *Key terms in stylistics*. Continuum International Publishing Group.
- [14] Olaluwoye, L. (2015). A critical stylistic analysis of the identity of minority groups in the Nigerian print media. *Journal of Literature, languages and linguistics*, 16(2), 154-166.
- [15] Quirk, R., Greenbaum, S., Leech, G. & Svartvik, J. (1985). *A comprehensive grammar of the English language*. Longman.
- [16] Saeed, J.I. (2016). *Semantics*. Blackwell Publishers.
- [17] Srinivas, P. (2016). Physical and psychological victimization of women: Reading Alice Walker's *The Color Purple*. *Journal of Management Sociology & Humanity*, 7(6), 23- 45.
- [18] Whitworth, M. (2000). Virginia Woolf and modernism. In S. Roe, & S. Sellars (Eds.), *The Cambridge companion to Virginia Woolf*, (pp. 14- 163). Cambridge University Press.
- [19] Woolf, V. (2005). *Mrs. Dalloway*. In V. Woolf, *selected works of Virginia Woolf*, (pp. 125- 252). Wordsworth.



Azhar H. Sallomi was born in Baghdad/ Iraq (1971); married and has one child; currently lives in Kerbala in Milad Quarter. She got her Bachelor Degree in English language and linguistics from Al-Mustansiria university/ Iraq (1989-1994). She got her Master Degree in English language and Linguistics from Al-Mustansiria university/ Iraq (2003-2005). Currently, she is a PhD. candidate at Babylon University/ Iraq in English language and Linguistics. She currently works at Kerbala university/ college of education for human sciences/ Iraq. She teaches both B.A. and M. A. students. Her research interest is in applied linguistics, critical analysis, and pragmatic analysis.

Prof. Azhar H. Sallomi participated in over eleven international as well as local conferences; participated in and presented more than eleven workshops and seminars. She published over twenty-four academic papers in local and international journals.



Iman M. Obied was born in Baghdad/ Iraq (1971); married; currently lives in Hilla, she got her Bachelor Degree in English language and linguistics from Babylon university/ Iraq (1999). She got her Master Degree in English language and Linguistics from Al-Qadisiyah university/ Iraq (2004). She got her PhD. Degree in English language and Linguistics from Babylon university/ Iraq (2020).

She currently works at Babylon university/ college of education for human sciences/ Iraq. She teaches both B.A. and M. A. students. Her research interest is in General linguistics, Critical Stylistic Analysis, Pragmatics and Stylistics.

Prof. Iman M. Obied participated in over ten international as well as local conferences; participated in and presented more than eight workshops and seminars. She published over 21 academic papers in local and international journals.

Translator's Style in Fiction Translation: A Ten-Year Systematic Literature Review

Yao Jinfang*

School of Languages, Literacies and Translation, Universiti Sains Malaysia, Penang, Malaysia

Shaidatul A. A. Kasuma

School of Languages, Literacies and Translation, Universiti Sains Malaysia, Penang, Malaysia

Mohamed A. Moindjie

School of Languages, Literacies and Translation, Universiti Sains Malaysia, Penang, Malaysia

Abstract—This research aims to comprehensively analyze the Translator's Style in fiction translation to enhance the understanding of its influence on the quality and effectiveness of translated fiction. The systematic literature review was conducted by extracting relevant content from four databases: Scopus, Web of Science, EBSCO, and Google Scholar. The removed material was then analyzed and synthesized based on a predefined set of rules and criteria. The selected articles underwent a rigorous screening process that met specific inclusion and exclusion criteria. The examination of the chosen studies revealed significant findings regarding the Translator's Style in the translation of fiction over the past decade. The study identified emerging trends, novel research methodologies, and theoretical frameworks within this field and acknowledged their significance. This study suggests that further research should be conducted on the Translator's Style in fiction translation within translation studies. One can improve their understanding of the Translator's Style by employing interdisciplinary methods, including incorporating literary theory, stylometry, and sociocultural perspectives. This study provides essential information for translators and scholars in the field of translation studies, highlighting the significance of the Translator's Style and promoting comparative studies of multiple translations to gain a comprehensive understanding of the various choices and approaches translators employ.

Index Terms—translator's style, fiction translation, systematic literature review

I. INTRODUCTION

Accurately conveying the essence, style, and voice of the original author is a sensitive task, and it must be taken into account in the process of Translation (Al-Khalafat & Haider, 2022). Without altering the source text's intended meaning, translators should be able to convey it in the target language (Napu, 2019). To determine how it influences the readability and accuracy of translated texts, researchers in Translation have spent much time and effort researching the Translator's Style (Gafurovna, 2021; Laviosa, 2021). Researchers have examined the extent to which the style of the source text is transmitted to the target text and how translators leave their thumbprints in the Translation (Baker, 2000; Meng & Pan, 2022). Existing research indicates that stylistic variations in translations can substantially affect the quality and precision of the result (Lee, 2020), especially in literary Translation, where artistic expression and cultural nuances are crucial, understanding and evaluating the Translator's Style become essential (Eshkuvatovna & Ilhomovna, 2022). Previous studies have looked at linguistic components, including lexical items, syntax, coherence, and punctuation, to determine various literary translators' styles (Baker, 2019). However, literary translation is still one of the most challenging. Therefore, a thorough literature analysis is still required, focusing on the Translator's Style in fiction translation (Holmes, 2021). Scholars in this field have investigated the factors that affect the translator's manner, with Huang (2015b) and Lee (2018) providing particularly insightful works.

In addition, the influence of the source text on the Translator's Style is an important research topic. The stylistic characteristics of the source text can substantially influence the choices made by the translator. For instance, when translating a literary text, the translator may retain the original author's style to effectively convey the intended meaning (Huang, 2021; Laviosa, 2021). The study of the translator's style considerably impacts both translation theory and practice. Understanding the translator's style can aid in creating translation theories and procedures, thus raising the standard of translations (Cipriani, 2022). O'Hagan (2019) and Richardson et al. (2021) have also highlighted the Translator's Style's importance in translation education and professional growth.

However, despite the growing interest in the research of the Translator's Style, no systematic literature review focuses on the theory of the Translator's Style in fiction translation, although the study of the Translator's Style is becoming increasingly popular. A complete understanding of the present application of the Translator's Style theory in the setting of literary novels may be obtained via a systematic review of the relevant body of literature. Previous literature reviews,

* Corresponding Author. Email: jinfang@student.usm.my

such as the one by Li et al. (2022), had a wider reach but fewer sample sources, demonstrating the requirement for a more focused and in-depth examination.

This systematic review aims to analyze the literature on novel Translation published in the last decade to address the existing research gap. This study aims to identify research models, analyze translators' techniques in shaping stylistic choices, explore stylistic cues, and examine theoretical frameworks for analyzing translators' styles in novel Translation.

These objectives will be accomplished through the analysis of pertinent stylistic indicators. This study investigates the trends, research methods, and theoretical frameworks employed in analysing translator style in the context of novel Translation. The study examines 32 samples selected from four extensive databases: Scopus, Web of Science, EBSCO, and Google Scholar. The samples were meticulously chosen to guarantee the study's accuracy. The findings significantly contribute to enhancing our understanding of the current research landscape in the field of translated books.

II. METHODOLOGY

The present study employs a systematic review method, which involves determining the eligibility of articles for inclusion in the review based on research questions. In addition, there is a distinction to be made between a review of the literature and a systematic review. A systematic review is methodically well organized, and the studies included in the review are chosen methodically from the research available in particular databases (Hiebl, 2023). In the systematic review, precise research questions must be proposed, a thorough review methodology must be developed, the study must be conducted with a slight bias, and the outcomes must be discussed (Alexander, 2020). The PRISMA 2020 statement (Page et al., 2021) was followed to perform the review.

The articles used for the study sample and which served as the foundation for the analysis originated from various bibliographical databases, which were queried to obtain the necessary information. The method is comprised of the following distinct stages:

1. Choose from among the available bibliographical databases
2. Carry out bibliographical searches to establish the definitive sample
 - a. Identification of search keywords—terms, synonyms, variants.
 - b. Creation of the search string—Boolean operators.
 - c. Filtering of results—document type, publication date, amongst others.
3. Compare the screened articles and write a review of the chosen documents.

A. Research Questions

The conducted study addresses the following research questions:

- 1) What trends have emerged in studying the Translator's Style in fiction translation?
- 2) What are the Translator's Style research methodologies for fiction translation?
- 3) What are the stylistic indicators in studying the Translator's Style in fiction translation?
- 4) What research theories have been applied to study Translator's Style in fiction translation?

B. Database Selection

Scopus, Web of Science (WOS), EBSCO, and Google Scholar were selected as the databases to provide exhaustive coverage of the scholarly literature. Scopus was chosen as the database because it allows access to a broader range of journals and provides enhanced keyword search and citation analysis features. The WOS was selected since all the papers included here constitute significant contributions to the subject. EBSCO was chosen because of its extensive coverage of multidisciplinary academic literature, access to full-text articles, advanced search capabilities, inclusion of peer-reviewed content, comprehensive indexing and citation tracking, user-friendly interface, and widespread institutional subscriptions. Google Scholar was selected because it is a search engine that can be used by many people and indexes a significant amount of academic literature. Discovering publications from various sources, such as articles, theses, conference papers, and repositories, can be advantageous with this method. Because none of the databases are comprehensive, they mutually support one another (Cheng & Zhang, 2020).

C. Bibliographical Searches

The terms, synonyms, and variants of the Translator's Style shall be selected to complete the search results. Thus, the Boolean Logic (Scells et al., 2020) will be used, and the OR operator will show: "Translator's Style" OR "style of translator" OR "translator's voice" OR "voice of translator" OR "translator's fingerprint" OR "fingerprint of translator" OR "translator's thumbprint" OR "thumbprint of translator" OR "translator's tone" OR "tone of translator" in subject terms, titles, abstracts. The search results show on 18th June 2023. Table 1 shows the inclusion and exclusion criteria. Based on the requirements, the exact samples were selected accurately.

TABLE 1
THE INCLUSION AND EXCLUSION CRITERIA

Inclusion criteria	Exclusion criteria
Full text available online	Full text not available online
Topic-related fiction translation	Topic not related to fiction translation
Published Time in 2013-2023	Published Time set not in 2013-2023
Research Focus on Translator Style	Research Focus not on Translator Style
Peer-reviewed	No Peer-reviewed
Written in English	Written in non-English

When the inclusion and exclusion criteria were conducted, the sample selection process is shown in Table 2, which displays the number of documents retrieved from the various databases that were searched.

TABLE 2
THE NUMBER OF THE DOCUMENTS

Database	Initial Number	2013-2023	English Text	Remove Duplicates and Incomplete items	Remove Unrelated Items
Scopus	116	76	65		
Web of Science (WOS)	56	49	34		
EBSCO	55	28	8		
Google Scholar	102	29	12		
In total	329	182	119	92	32

The search query yielded 329 in total outcomes and enabled the identification of Scopus as the database with the highest level of comprehensiveness regarding the topic under investigation. When the time gap was established, the total dropped to 182. When the text language was changed to English, the count dropped to 119. By importing all the results from the four databases above into Endnote, the researcher found some duplicate and incomplete items; after removing 25 duplicates and two incomplete items, the total number decreased to 92. The research went through the title and abstract one by one and deleted 60 articles whose research focuses not on translator style in fiction translation. A total of 32 results were screened. Below is a diagram of the PRISMA Workflow.

D. Prisma Workflow

The review included only papers and book sections published in the last ten years that focused on the translator's style and fiction Translation. The selection process is depicted in Figure 1.

PRISMA 2020 flow diagram for new systematic reviews which included searches of databases and registers only

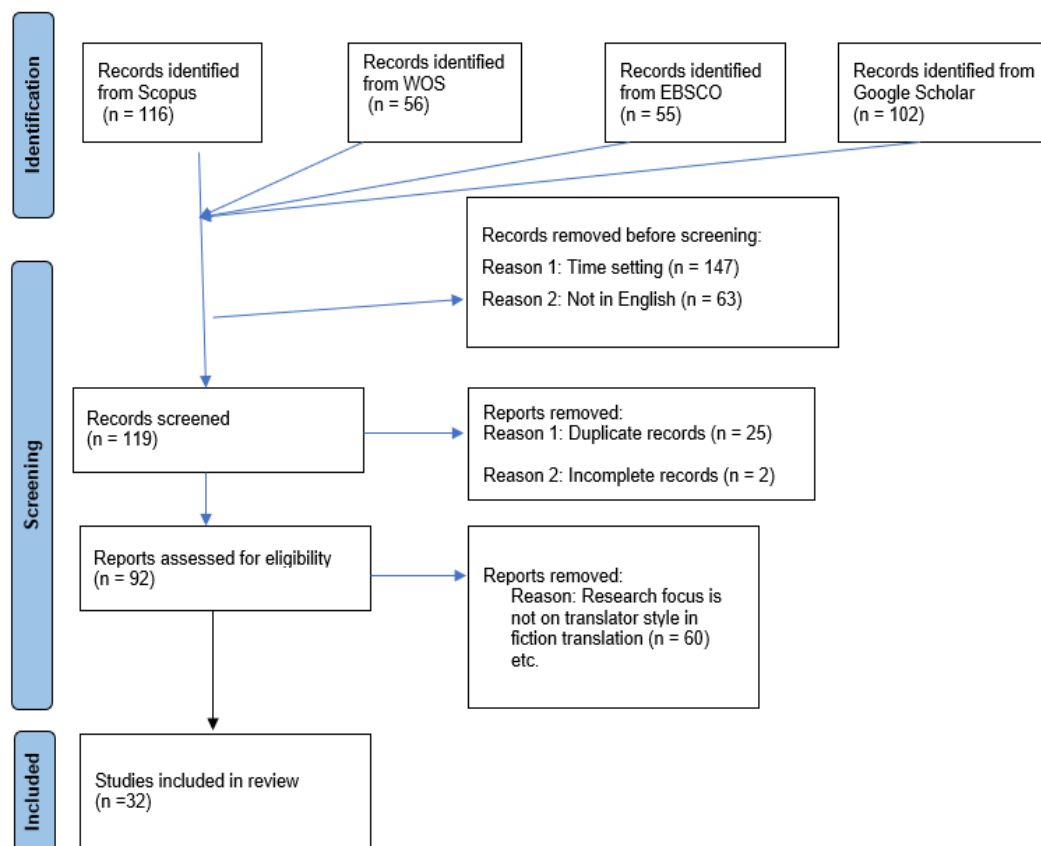


Figure 1. PRISMA Flow Chart for Systematic Literature Review (Page et al., 2021)

During the identification phase, 182 samples were obtained from four sources: Scopus, WOS, EBSCO, and Google Scholar, out of 329 potential pieces. After excluding text that is not in the English language, the final count was 119. After eliminating duplicate entries and incomplete items, the last count decreased to 92. The researcher excludes conference proceedings lacking online full texts and samples that do not specifically address the topic of the Translator's Style in fiction translation, done by examining the title, abstract, and keywords. During the eligibility assessment phase, 297 out of the initial 329 samples were excluded based on the full-text evaluation. A total of 32 samples were included in the literature review.

III. FINDINGS AND DISCUSSION

The final Systematic Literature Review phase is to compile and summarize the findings from the literature reviews (Tóth et al., 2023). They are shown and analyzed as follows.

A. Trend of the Translator's Style in Fiction Translation

The number of each reference type is detailed in Table 3. The total number of qualified samples is 32. Compared to book sections and conference proceedings, more journal articles have been produced on Translator's Style in fiction over the past ten years.

TABLE 3
THE NUMBER OF EACH REFERENCE TYPE

Reference Type	No.
Journal Articles	19
Book Sections	9
Conference Proceedings	4
In Total	32

The table indicates that journal articles are the predominant publication type for the current topic. Based on these, the trend of the number of published samples from the year 2013 to 2023 is shown in Figure 2.

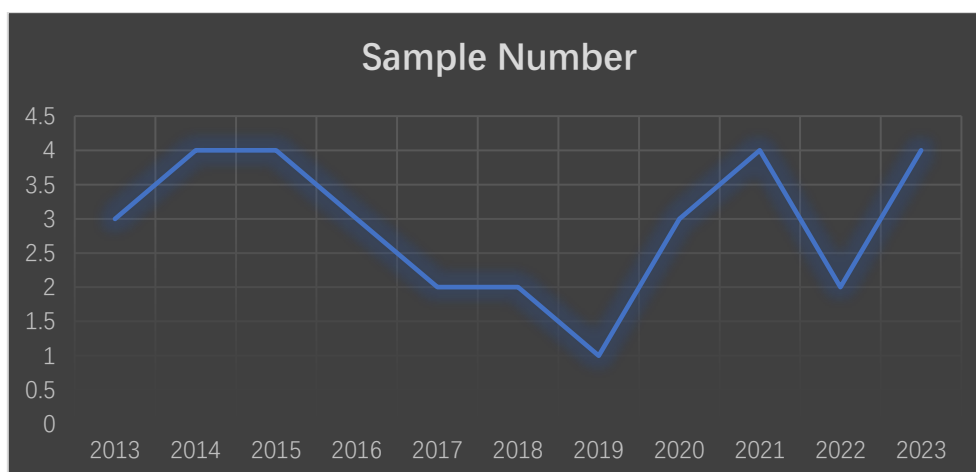


Figure 2. The Number of Samples Published Each Year

As the figure shows above, the number of samples published each year follows a quite erratic trend. There is no discernible pattern of growth or decline over the years regarding the total number of samples, ranging from one to four. It reached its lowest point in 2019 before rising quickly in 2020 and reaching 4 in 2021. However, it is essential to point out that there has been an overall increase in the number of samples taken in recent years, particularly in the years 2021 and 2023, when the number of samples taken consistently reaches 4. There is potential for 2023 to see even more development in the number of articles produced on this topic. Furthermore, many language pairs were selected to work as corpus or study objectives in the sample literature. They are shown in Table 4 below. Since the researcher only selected English samples, English is the predominant language.

TABLE 4
THE LANGUAGES ASSOCIATED WITH THE TRANSLATOR'S STYLE IN FICTION STUDY

Languages (Translate from A to B)	Numbers
Chinese-English	18
Arabic-English	1
Spanish-English	1
French- English	2
Korean- English	1
Russian-English	1
German-English	1
English-Chinese	2
English -Nguni languages	1
English-Arabic	1
English-Italian	1
English-German	2
English-Dutch	1

The data in Table 4 indicates a notable disparity between the number of articles focused on Chinese-English Translation (18 pieces) and those focused on English-Chinese Translation (only two). This discrepancy suggests that the export of Chinese literature surpasses the import of Western literature. In contrast to other areas of language studies, the quantity of scholarly articles about Chinese-English Translation is notably greater, suggesting a heightened interest in translation studies as it pertains to Chinese fiction.

In conclusion, the prevailing direction of scholarly inquiry regarding the Translator's Style in fiction translation predominantly focuses on academic journal publications and the context of Chinese-English Translation. The quantity of published samples has grown in recent years, with the possibility of this pattern persisting in 2023.

B. Research Methods of the Translator's Style in Fiction Translation

Examining the research methods employed for analyzing the translator's stylistic choices in fiction translation holds significant academic value because it allows researchers to evaluate existing knowledge and recognize the strengths and weaknesses of prior research. Moreover, it will enable researchers to identify gaps in the current study and propose directions for future research.

Following Figure 3 is a pie chart depicting the methodology utilized by researchers over the past decade to investigate translator style in fiction.

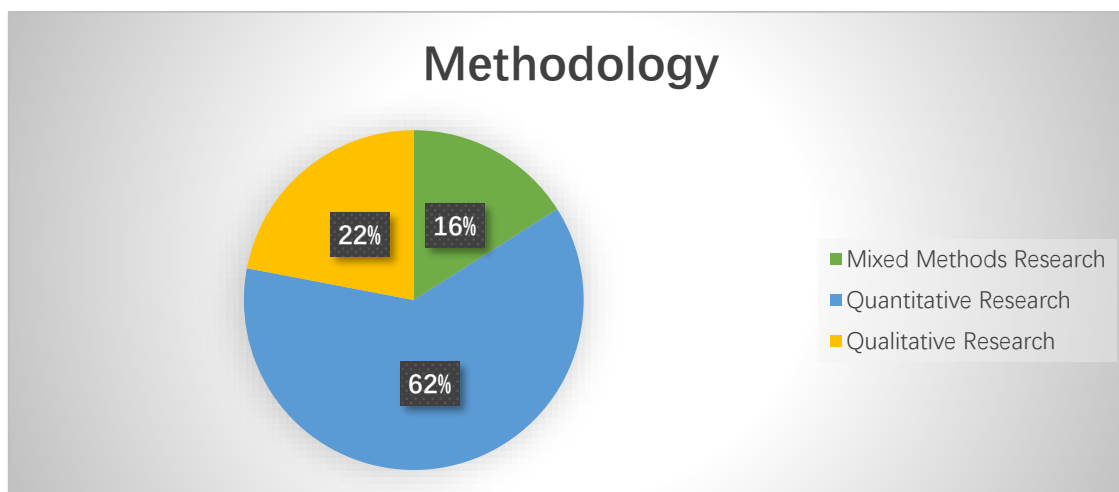


Figure 3. The Methodologies Utilized by Researchers in the Literature Samples

In all qualified samples, five instances of mixed methods research account for approximately 16%. Seven qualitative research studies account for about 22% of the total. Twenty quantitative research studies account for approximately 62% of the total. Quantitative research studies are more prevalent in studying the Translator's Style. In 80% (16 out of 20) of quantitative research investigations, corpus-based, corpus-assisted, or corpus-driven research was the most common method, indicating that most researchers studied the translator's approach using corpus-based techniques. Corpus-based research analyses extensive textual data collections (corpora) to identify linguistic patterns and stylistic indicators.

Additionally, the researcher can find the delicate stylistic indicators for the study using their linguistic expertise and corpus familiarity (Li et al., 2022). The results show that the proper stylistic signals can be found with the help of corpus-based, corpus-driven, and corpus-assisted methodologies, which could be an advantage in discovering the sensitive stylistic indicators that are important to the study if the researcher is fluent in numerous languages and is familiar with the corpus.

This study of the translator's style in fiction translation uses mixed-methods, qualitative, and quantitative research. Corpus-assisted, corpus-based, and corpus-driven research has become more popular in the past decade than any other

quantitative approach. The strategy allows researchers to utilize their linguistic expertise and knowledge of corpora to identify pertinent stylistic cues.

C. Stylistic Indicators for Analyzing the Translator's Style in Fiction

Stylistic indicators are employed to analyse and assess the stylistic decisions made by translators in their works of fiction. Table 5 presents the stylistic variables, associated vital elements, and indicators of importance or relevance in papers published in the past decade.

TABLE 5
NUMBER OF DIFFERENT TYPES OF STYLISTIC INDICATORS USED IN THE STUDIES

Indicator Types	Key items	Amount
Linguistic Indicators	Type/token ratio	5
	Word Frequency	3
	Lexical density	3
	Average word length	2
	Mean sentence length	2
	Number of sentences	2
	Average sentence length	2
	Key clusters	1
	Contracted negative verb forms and expressions	1
	Chinese tokenization	1
	Bilingual alignment	2
	Lexical divergences	1
	Keyword list	2
	Contractions	1
	Reporting verbs	1
	Neutral item	1
	Morphologically segmented function words	1
	Distinctive POS (part of speech) unigrams and bigrams	1
Statistic Indicators	Readability	3
	Complex network analysis	1
	Network motifs mining	1
	Document-level metrics	1
	N-gram features	1
Pragmatic Indicators	Character's name	1
	Paratexts	4
	Code switch	1
	Discourse presentation	2
	Nominalization	1
	Frequencies of reporting verb	2
	Distinctive strategies (S-Type)	2
	Habitual linguistic behavior (T-Type)	4
	subconscious features	1
	Situational factors	1
	Contextual factors	1
	Language combinations	1
Specific Language Items	BEI construction in Chinese	1
	Modal particles in German	1
	Loan words and expansions	1
	Emphatic Italics	1
	Lexical bundles	2

Note: Adapted from A Systemic Literature Review of Translator's Style in Translation Studies (Li et al., 2022)

Table 5 presents the primary linguistic and pragmatic indicators the researcher examined in investigating translators' style. The linguistic indicators analyzed encompass significant variables, such as type/token ratio, word frequency, lexical density, average word length, average sentence length, number of sentences, and average sentence length. These factors offer valuable insights into the translator's lexical and syntactic decisions and the text's overall structure and complexity. The analysis of the translator's style explores discourse indicators that reveal the translator's decision-making process in conveying meaning, structuring chapters, and adapting the text to the target language and culture. The factors considered in this study are paratext, discourse presentation, code-switching, frequency of reported verbs, and contextual elements. This study examines the decision-making process of translators and how contextual and situational factors, habitual linguistic behavior, subconscious traits, situational considerations, and language combinations influence their style.

Assessing stylistic elements in the source text is crucial for determining the Translator's Style. Publications on the Translator's Style in fiction take a comprehensive approach, examining various stylistic characteristics outlined in the table. These articles thoroughly examine the stylistic choices made by translators in fictional works, thus establishing the focus of the research. The linguistic, statistical, and pragmatic characteristics of the elements contribute to the overall

tone of the translated fiction.

The integration of technological tools in Translation has brought about new academic viewpoints. As employed in literature, traditional vocabulary richness has been found to be inadequate in identifying translator stylometry (El-Fiqi et al., 2019). Researchers have utilized network motifs and complex network analysis to achieve an average three-way classification accuracy of 83% in Translator's Style detection. These methods have facilitated the advancement of feature design for analysing translator stylometry (El-Fiqi et al., 2019). In addition, according to Huang (2015a, 2015c), the statistics offered by corpus tools, such as the standard type-token ratio, mean sentence length, frequency of reporting verbs, and optional usage of reporting, are not very useful for differentiating between the styles of various translators. Lee (2018) proved that bootstrap consensus tree analysis and consensus network analysis have shown that the degree of structural dissimilarity between two languages positively correlates with the visibility of the Translator's Style. In future research, scholars may investigate using support vector machines and other specialized indicators to analyze the Translator's Style effectively.

In brief, analysing the Translator's Style in fiction translation encompasses linguistic, statistical, and pragmatic cues and specific language elements. Technology and computer tools have greatly aided the analysis of the Translator's Style, especially in network motifs and complex network analysis. Advancements in technology, such as support vector machines, can enhance future research on understanding and analyzing the Translator's Style.

D. Research Theories Used in the Study of Translator's Style in Fiction

Eight theories have been employed to extract, describe, or analyze the Translator's Style. They are shown in Table 6 below.

TABLE 6
NUMBER OF DIFFERENT THEORIES USED IN THE STUDIES

Theory	Number
Baker's Framework of the Translator's Style (2000)	23
Translator stylometry (2019)	1
Newmark's model of translation techniques (2001)	1
Millán-Varela's model of translator's voice (2004)	1
Relevance theory (2013)	1
Mathesius' complex condensation (2013)	1
stylometry or computational stylistics (1996)	3
Machine learning (2021)	2

Note: Adapted from A Systemic Literature Review of Translator's Style in Translation Studies (Li et al., 2022)

The theories applied in investigating the translator's style in fiction can be used to derive the following facts and conclusions. Baker's (2000) Translator's Style Framework is highly regarded and widely recognized as the leading theory in the field, with support from 23 references. This approach offers a comprehensive framework for comprehending and analyzing the stylistic choices of translators in literary works. In their study, Li et al. (2022) showcased the application of Baker's (2019) framework in examining a translator's style. They employed a corpus-based approach to identify recurring linguistic characteristics among translators and investigate the sociological factors that shape their stylistic development. Li et al. (2022) contend that Baker's (2019) analysis of the factors influencing translators' style lacks a cohesive theoretical framework.

Translation stylometry is a relatively recent development, as evidenced by the work of El-Fiqi et al. (2019). Translator stylometry is the term used to describe a translator's style assessment through quantitative analysis and the application of diverse computer-based methodologies. The field of stylometry, alternatively referred to as computational stylistics, is mentioned three times, while machine learning is alluded to twice, underscoring the significance of computer-based methodologies and quantitative analysis in investigating translator's styles (Binongo, 1996; Zhou, 2021).

Examining translation style in novels encompasses a range of theoretical frameworks and methodological approaches. Baker's (2019) framework is widely recognized as the predominant model for facilitating a comprehensive comprehension of the subject matter. Quantitative analysis and computer technology play a significant role in the fields of stylometric and computational stylistics, which hold paramount importance in the present study. Moreover, several additional theories, such as the Newmark model (Simanjuntak et al., 2021), Milan Varela model (Guo et al., 2020), Arlott's (2013) correlation theory, and Mathieuth's (2014) complex condensation theory, make significant contributions to the understanding of different dimensions of translator's style. Using computer tools facilitates the progression of research on the translator's style.

IV. DISCUSSION

The results of this extensive analysis, conducted over ten years, contribute substantially to investigating the translator's style within fictional Translation. The utilization of corpus-based or corpus-driven approaches in quantitative research is widely acknowledged and accepted, as demonstrated by the outcomes of numerous research endeavors. This discovery underscores the significance of employing computer technology and linguistic proficiency in identifying stylistic cues. Incorporating linguistic and pragmatic lines holds significant relevance in enabling a thorough examination of decision-making procedures, lexical and syntactic inclinations, and the impact of the surrounding milieu and cultural factors on

translators' style. Baker's (2019) framework is regarded as the most encompassing and all-encompassing approach within the fundamental theory, specifically in comprehending the Translator's Style. However, additional theoretical research is necessary to provide a more comprehensive framework that examines stylistic characteristics. The achievement of this objective necessitates the execution of a thorough and all-encompassing inquiry.

Based on the findings acquired, it is advisable for forthcoming studies in the domain of Translation to comprehensively investigate the stylistic choices of translators in connection with the Translation of literary texts. To optimize the implementation of this concept, it is imperative to undertake the following measures. A more profound comprehension of the Translator's Style can be achieved by embracing an interdisciplinary framework and integrating literary theory, stylometry, and social perspectives. A comparative analysis of multiple translations of a particular book could provide valuable insights into various translators' decision-making processes and methodologies.

V. CONCLUSION

In conclusion, the systematic literature review has demonstrated the importance of examining the Translator's Style in fictional Translation, creating opportunities for further research in this field. The utilization of computerized tools can be further enhanced by reviewing the Translator's Style. Future research should address the identified gaps, such as theoretical development, methodological advancements, exploration of multimodal analysis, and extensive comparative studies. These initiatives aim to enhance understanding of the Translator's Style, enhance translation quality, and foster cultural and literary appreciation in fiction translation.

REFERENCES

- [1] Al-Khalafat, L., & Haider, A. S. (2022). A corpus-assisted translation study of strategies used in rendering culture-bound expressions in the speeches of King Abdullah II. *Theory and Practice in Language Studies*, 12(1), 130-142. <https://doi.org/10.17507/tpls.1201.16>
- [2] Alexander, P. A. (2020). Methodological guidance paper: The art and science of quality systematic reviews. *Review of Educational Research*, 90(1), 6-23.
- [3] Baker, M. (2000). Towards a methodology for investigating the style of a literary translator. *Target. International Journal of Translation Studies*, 12(2), 241-266.
- [4] Baker, M. (2019). Towards a methodology for investigating the style of a literary translator. In *Researching Translation in the Age of Technology and Global Conflict* (pp. 55-76). Routledge.
- [5] Binongo, J. N. G. (1996). Stylometry. *Notes and Queries*, 43(4), 448-453.
- [6] Cheng, S.-T., & Zhang, F. (2020). A comprehensive meta-review of systematic reviews and meta-analyses on nonpharmacological interventions for informal dementia caregivers. *BMC geriatrics*, 20(1), 1-24. <https://doi.org/10.1186/s12877-020-01547-2>
- [7] Cipriani, A. M. (2022). The translator's presence in (re) translations of To the Lighthouse into Italian: a corpus-driven study. *Corpora*, 17(3), 423-448.
- [8] El-Fiqi, H., Petraki, E., & Abbass, H. A. (2019). Network motifs for translator stylometry identification [Article]. *PLoS ONE*, 14(2), 1-33. <https://doi.org/https://doi.org/10.1371/journal.pone.0211809>
- [9] Eshkuvatovna, K. L., & Ilhomovna, K. M. (2022). Linguistic Problems of Literary Translation. *Galaxy International Interdisciplinary Research Journal*, 10(1), 864-867.
- [10] Gafurovna, R. Z. (2021). Translation theory: Object of research and methods of analysis. *International Journal of Progressive Sciences and Technologies*, 24(2), 35-40.
- [11] Guo, X., Ang, L. H., Rashid, S. M., & Ser, W. H. (2020). The translator's voice through the translation of characters' names in bian cheng [Article]. *3L: Language, Linguistics, Literature*, 26(3), 81-95. <https://doi.org/http://doi.org/10.17576/3L-2020-2603-07>
- [12] Hiebl, M. R. (2023). Sample selection in systematic literature reviews of management research. *Organizational Research Methods*, 26(2), 229-261.
- [13] Holmes, J. S. (2021). *Translated!: Papers on Literary Translation and Translation Studies. With an introduction by Raymond van den Broeck*. Brill.
- [14] Huang, L. (2015a). Discourse presentation translation as an indicator of translator's style: A case study of Lao She's Luotuo Xiangzi and its three English translations. In *New Frontiers in Translation Studies* (pp. 57-77). https://doi.org/https://doi.org/10.1007/978-3-662-45566-1_5
- [15] Huang, L. (2015b). Style in Translation. *Style in Translation: A Corpus-Based Perspective*, 17-30.
- [16] Huang, L. (2015c). Translator's style revisited: A case study of Howard Goldblatt's style in translating Chinese novels. In *New Frontiers in Translation Studies* (pp. 43-56). https://doi.org/https://doi.org/10.1007/978-3-662-45566-1_4
- [17] Huang, L. (2021). New Trends in Corpus-Based Translator's Style Studies. In *New Perspectives on Corpus Translation Studies* (pp. 59-73). Springer.
- [18] Laviosa, S. (2021). *Corpus-based translation studies: theory, findings, applications*. Brill.
- [19] Lee, C. (2018). Do language combinations affect translators' stylistic visibility in translated texts? [Article]. *Digital Scholarship in the Humanities*, 33(3), 592-603. <https://doi.org/https://doi.org/10.1093/lhc/fqx056>
- [20] Lee, S.-M. (2020). The impact of using machine translation on EFL students' writing. *Computer Assisted Language Learning*, 33(3), 157-175.
- [21] Li, Y., bin Abdullah, M. A. R., & Wong, L. Y. (2022). *A Systemic Literature Review of Translator's Style in Translation Studies*. International Conference on Language, Education, and Social Science (ICLESS 2022), 80-91.
- [22] Mathesius, V. (2014). The English sentence as a whole: Complex condensation and word order. *Chapters from the history of Czech functional linguistics*, 95-113.

- [23] Meng, L., & Pan, F. (2022). Using corpora to reveal style in translation: The case of The Song of Everlasting Sorrow. *Frontiers in Psychology*, 13, 1034912. <https://doi.org/https://doi.org/10.3389/fpsyg.2022.1034912>
- [24] Napu, N. (2019). Translation problems analysis of students' academic essay. *International Journal of Linguistics, Literature and Translation*, 2(5), 01-11. <https://doi.org/https://doi.org/10.32996/ijllt.2019.2.5.1>
- [25] O'Hagan, M. (2019). *The Routledge handbook of translation and technology*. Routledge.
- [26] Page, M. J., McKenzie, J. E., Bossuyt, P. M., Boutron, I., Hoffmann, T. C., Mulrow, C. D., . . . Brennan, S. E. (2021). The PRISMA 2020 statement: an updated guideline for reporting systematic reviews. *International journal of surgery*, 88, 1-9. <https://doi.org/https://doi.org/10.1016/j.ijsu.2021.105906>
- [27] Richardson, E., Alaluf, Y., Patashnik, O., Nitzan, Y., Azar, Y., Shapiro, S., & Cohen-Or, D. (2021). Encoding in style: a styleGAN encoder for image-to-image translation. *Proceedings of the IEEE/CVF conference on computer vision and pattern recognition*, 2287-2296.
- [28] Scells, H., Zuccon, G., Koopman, B., & Clark, J. (2020). Automatic boolean query formulation for systematic review literature search. *Proceedings of the web conference 2020*, 1071-1081.
- [29] Simanjuntak, M. B., Luminkewas, M. S., & Sutrisno, S. (2021). Analysis of tangiang ale amanami (our father) using the techniques of translation. *Journal of Advanced English Studies*, 4(2), 70-75.
- [30] Tóth, A., Suta, A., Pimentel, J., & Argoti, A. (2023). A comprehensive, semi-automated systematic literature review (SLR) design: Application to P-graph research with a focus on sustainability. *Journal of Cleaner Production*, 415(1), 1-10. <https://doi.org/https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jclepro.2023.137741>
- [31] Zhou, Z.-H. (2021). *Machine learning*. Springer Nature.



Yao Jinfang is a PhD student in the School of Languages, Literacies and Translation, Universiti Sains Malaysia and a college lecturer in China. Her research interests are English Translation and English for Specific Purposes (ESP).



Shaidatul Akma Adi Kasuma is a PhD supervisor who holds a PhD in Arts Education from the University of Warwick, United Kingdom. She teaches at the School of Languages, Literacies and Translation, Universiti Sains Malaysia. She is interested in social media and language learning, discourse analysis, and English language studies.



Mohamed Abdou Moindjie is a PhD supervisor who holds a PhD in Literary Translation from Universiti Sains Malaysia (USM), Malaysia. He is currently a Senior Lecturer of English Language and Translation Studies at the School of Languages, Literacies and Translation, Universiti Sains Malaysia. He was Maître de Conférences at the Department of Foreign Languages, Université des Comores, where he taught Translation (French- English) and English Writing Skills. He was also Chairperson of the Department of Foreign Languages, Université des Comores, from 2016 to 2018. He is fluent in English, French, Arabic, and Comoran. He has advanced Knowledge of Chinese, Malay, German, Russian, Spanish, and Swahili.

Ecolexicon of Flora and Fauna in Makassarese Proverbs: An Ecolinguistic Study

Mirsa Umiyati*

Linguistics Department, Universitas Warmadewa, Denpasar, Indonesia

Nur Afrita Asfar

Linguistics Department, Universitas Warmadewa, Denpasar, Indonesia

Rika Purnama Sari

Applied Linguistics Department, Universitas Negeri Jakarta, Jakarta Timur, Indonesia

Abstract—This study is aimed at examining the Flora and Fauna ecolexicon in the Makassarese language and understanding the metaphorical relationships within the analyzed ecolexicon using Haugen's (1972) theory. The study employs a qualitative approach. The research data is sourced from documents. The results reveal the existence of 20 flora ecolexicons and 20 fauna ecolexicons, comprising linguistic morphology and biotic semantic morphology categories. The metaphors used by the Makassarese community fall into the conventional classification of Makassarese discourse society's agreement. The interdependence between flora and fauna that inhabit the Makassar natural environment (ecoregion) serves as the realm of sources interacting with humans. This interaction is connected to their conditions and behaviors as the target domain through a correlated cross-mapping process within the mental and cognitive realms of the discourse community members. This is subsequently realized in Makassarese proverb and in verbal communication within the social life of the discourse community. The ecolexicons, based on the ecophilosophical perspective within eco-linguistics, hold philosophical values. The intended philosophical values encompass local wisdom, consumptive value, productive value, and environmental service value.

Index Terms—ecolexicon, ecophilosophy, flora and fauna, Makassarese proverbs, metaphor

I. INTRODUCTION

Initially, the existence of language is only understood as a means of communication, but gradually transformed into an object and material of research, and also became a subject of philosophy of language (Nuzwaty, 2014). The relationship between language and the universe, such as the naming of objects and animals according to the imitation of sounds produced by nature, such as thunder sounds, splashing waters, and animal sounds, began to be studied extensively (Kravchenko, 2016). The sounds produced by nature are captured by the human senses. They are then processed in the mind, resulting in various object names that have semantic meaning corresponding to the objects they refer to. Lucy (2015) points out that language tends to be influenced by the natural environment where the language is used and exists. It can be concluded that language emerges from nature; therefore, the implementation of language studies is connected to ecoregions and the natural environment in which the language is used, leading to the emergence of terminology such as onomatopoeia, metaphor, parts of speech, analogy versus anomaly, physis and nomos, and etcetera (Lyon, 1992; Stidd, 2004; Algeo, 2010; Sabet & Zhang, 2020). In other words, language, culture, and the natural environment are interconnected components (Fill & Steffensen, 2014).

Language and the environment have a linguistic subdiscipline that explains the relationship between the two, known as ecolinguistics. Ecolinguistics is referred to as the study of ecology (Fill & Miihlhausler, 2001). The goal of language ecology is to examine the linguistic ecology that surrounds it, preserve and develop the linguistic ecology, and find a close relationship between language ecology and human ecology (Yang, 2014). In other words, language ecology aims to find methods for its preservation and development by analyzing the relationship between language and nature (Skutnabb-Kangas & Phillipson, 2011).

Ecolinguistics is related to the study of language and ecology. Ecolinguistics has been applied to describe the language relationships, interactions, and diversity, text analyses concerning the environment studies, examine the words in a language relate to objects in the local environment, dialect studies in specific geographic locations, and various other areas (Stibbe, 2015). Simply put, ecolinguistics explores broader language patterns that influence how humans think about and interact with nature.

In relation to research on the relationship between language and the environment, there is a local language that holds uniqueness in its proverbs used by its native community, known as the Makassarese language. The Makassarese language

* Corresponding Author. Email: mirsa.umiya2@gmail.com

(Basa Mangkasara) is spoken by the Makassarese ethnic group in South Sulawesi, Indonesia. The Makassarese language belongs to the Malay-Polynesian branch of the Austronesian language family, with approximately 1.6 million speakers (Grimes, 1992, p. 625). This language is primarily used by communities in South Sulawesi, such as in the Jeneponto, Bantaeng, Gowa, and Takalar Regencies (Charmilasari, 2017; Jukes, 2006). The Makassarese has a unique script called Lontara, although nowadays it is more commonly written using the Latin alphabet (Arief, 1995; Basang & Arief, 1981; Jukes, 2006; Manyambeang et al., 1979).

In this case, the connection between the Makassarese community and their environment is evident in the naming (ecolexicon) of flora and fauna found within the Makassarese society's surroundings. Subsequently, these ecolexicons of flora and fauna are captured in Makassarese proverbs. It can be concluded that the presence of these ecolexicons forms the construction of proverbs (Downes, 1998; Gerrig & Banaji, 2021). Proverbs are a form of oral literature in Makassarese with a background in the Makassarese language and culture. The book of Makassarese proverbs written by Zainuddin Hakim (1995) represents an effort to preserve regional language and literature. It is a form of preservation, as well as an endeavor to nurture and develop cultural elements of the region, both directly and indirectly contributing to the preservation of national culture (Hakim, 1995).

From an ecolinguistic view, the ecolexicons used in proverbs aren't merely understood as names attached to those flora and fauna. The presence of flora and fauna is as important as the presence of humans within an ecosystem. The shared consideration of the interconnectedness between humans, other organisms, and the environment is known as ecophilosophy or ecological philosophy (Naess, 1989). Ecophilosophy is employed to describe a set of philosophical principles that encompass ecological considerations (Stibbe, 2015).

In light of the above, the study of Makassarese proverbs from an ecolinguistic perspective has not been extensively explored. Previous research on Makassarese proverbs has mainly focused on uncovering their values or meanings and comparing them with proverbs from other cultures (Akbar, 2020; Lubis, 2016; Mustafa, 2012; Sua et al., 2020). However, this current research examines the ecolexicon of flora and fauna that contain in Makassarese proverbs, identify the connection to the natural environment of the Makassar community through an ecophilosophical lens. As such, the sustainability of the ecological aspects of Makassarese proverbs can be preserved. Based on the description provided, this research aims to achieve three main objectives:

1. Identify the lexicons of flora and fauna within Makassarese proverbs.
2. Analyze the concept of metaphorical ecolexicons of flora and fauna within Makassarese proverbs.
3. Analyze the ecophilosophy of ecolexicons of flora and fauna within Makassarese proverbs.

In essence, the research seeks to uncover the ecolexicons related to flora and fauna in Makassarese proverbs, delve into the metaphorical connections these ecolexicons hold, and explore the ecophilosophical aspects that link these ecolexicons to the environment within the context of Makassarese proverbs.

II. CONCEPT AND THEORY

A. *Ecolexicon*

Language encapsulates wisdom, life values, and cultural values embedded within texts written in local languages. These texts are referred to as eco-texts. Eco-texts are manuscripts that are related to the environment. Beyond embodying wisdom for life, language also holds a treasury of knowledge about traditional techniques for utilizing local natural resources, recorded in the lexical treasury, which in turn gives rise to ecolexicons (Mbete, 2015). Ecolexicons are collections of lexicons that reflect both the natural environment and the social environment of the speakers (Ino et al., 2022). The reflection of the natural environment refers to the geographical and topographical conditions of a specific country or region, such as valleys, mountains, plains, coastlines, and economic conditions (fauna, flora, and water). The reflection of the social environment encompasses aspects like religion, ethical standards, political organization, and art (Sapir, 1912).

B. *Makassarese Proverbs*

Proverbs are a form of idiom characterized by fixed sentence structure and symbolic expressions of life. They encompass both sayings and similes (Mustafa, 2012; Rimma et al., 2014; Syzdykov, 2014). Proverbs typically convey specific meanings, such as advice, life principles, or behavioral guidelines (Sariah, 2018). Similarly, in the Makassar language, there are proverbs like "*Ejapi na Doang*," which translates to "if it turns red, then it's definitely a shrimp." This means that someone cannot be trusted based solely on their words; their actions must also align. This proverb is frequently used by the Makassarese people. Makassarese proverbs encompass aphorisms, similes, maxims, and expressions (Hakim, 1995).

C. *The Category of Environment*

Language and the environment interact with each other, ensuring that every word spoken is interconnected with the natural environment (Haugen, 1972). Furthermore, the environment can be classified into two categories: the category of noun meanings or biotic and abiotic (Verhaar, 2010).

III. RESEARCH METHOD

This research employs a qualitative descriptive approach. Qualitative research seeks to find solutions to problems based on data or facts (Babbie, 2016). In this case, qualitative descriptive approach is used to obtain information about the forms, categories, meanings, and describe the ecophilosophy within Makassarese proverbs comprehensively and deeply.

The data source for this research is the book of Makassar proverbs by Zainuddin Hakim. The Makassarese proverbs book consists of 180 pages and contains 1128 proverbs used by the Makassarese, which are closely related to the environmental aspects of flora and fauna, particularly in the Makassar region. Therefore, in alignment with the research's objective focused on analyzing the forms, categories, and metaphorical meanings of the ecolexicons related to flora and fauna in Makassarese proverbs.

After collecting data, then data is analyzed using the following steps 1) providing a detailed description of the data and specifying where the relevant information within the data can be located, 2) identifying the forms, categories, and metaphorical meanings, as well as describing the ecophilosophy of the ecolexicons related to flora and fauna in Makassarese proverbs, 3) drawing conclusions after completing the analysis process (see Miles et al., 2014).

IV. RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

Based on the data analysis, the ecolexicons related to flora and fauna in Makassar proverbs encompass: 1) ecolexicons of flora and fauna in Makassar proverbs based on their forms, categories, and lexical meanings, 2) conceptualization of the metaphorical ecolexicons of flora and fauna within Makassar proverbs, 3) description of the ecophilosophy of the ecolexicons related to flora and fauna in Makassar proverbs. These aspects are elaborated upon in the following analysis.

A. The Lexicons of Flora and Fauna in Makassarese Proverbs

In this section, the lexicons of flora and fauna found in the Makassarese proverbs book are divided into two parts, as described below:

TABLE 1
LEXICONS OF FLORA IN MAKASSARESE PROVERBS

No	Lexicons	English	Latin	Grammatical Forms		Grammatical Categories			
				Base	Derivative	N	NP	A	V
1	<i>Kopi</i>	Coffee	<i>Coffea L.</i>	+	-	+	-	-	-
2	<i>Kaluku</i>	Coconut	<i>Cocos nucifera L.</i>	+	-	+	-	-	-
3	<i>Tangke</i>	Branch	<i>mesopodium</i>	+	-	+	-	-	-
4	<i>Tiboang</i>	Peanut	<i>Arachis</i>	+	-	+	-	-	-
5	<i>Biralle</i>	Corn	<i>Zea Mays</i>	+	-	+	-	-	-
6	<i>Lekok unti</i>	Banana leaf	-	-	-	+	+	-	-
7	<i>Kapasak</i>	Cotton	<i>Gossypium hirsutum L.</i>	+	-	+	-	-	-
8	<i>Kadondong</i>	Ambarella fruit	<i>Spondias dulcis</i> <i>Parkinson</i>	+	-	+	-	-	-
9	<i>Kunyik</i>	Turmeric	<i>Curcuma longa linn</i>	+	-	+	-	-	-
10	<i>Dokek unti</i>	Banana heart	<i>Musa Paradisiaca</i>	-	+	+	+	-	-
11	<i>Lekok paccok</i>	Taro leaves	<i>Colocasia esculenta (L.) Schott</i>	-	+	-	+	-	-
12	<i>Paria</i>	Bitter melon	<i>Momordica Charantia</i>	+	-	+	-	-	-
13	<i>Camba</i>	Acid	<i>Tamarindus indica</i>	+	-	+	-	-	-
14	<i>Kayu kalotorok</i>	Dry wood	-	-	+	+	-	-	-
15	<i>Batu</i>	Seed	<i>Semen</i>	+	-	+	-	-	-
16	<i>Rappo</i>	betel nut	<i>Areca Catechu</i>	+	-	+	-	-	-
17	<i>Kayu busak</i>	Weathered wood	-	-	+	+	-	-	-
18	<i>Lamung-lamung</i>	vegetation	<i>Plantae</i>	-	-	+	-	-	-
19	<i>Lada</i>	Chilli	<i>Capsicum Annum L.</i>	+	-	+	-	-	-
20	<i>Bulo</i>	Bamboo	<i>Bambusa Vulgaris</i>	+	-	+	-	-	-

Note: N = noun; NP = Noun phrase; A = Adjective; V = Verb. Source: Researchers, 2023.

Table 1 above shows 20 flora lexicons categorized as nouns, such as *lada* 'chili' and *Biralle* 'corn' while *lekok paccok* 'taro leaves' is categorized as noun phrases. Meanwhile, other lexicons are noun categories. Hereby, it can be concluded that these lexicons are sources forming the lexical treasury of the environmental language, possessing meanings, and thus referred to as ecolexicons (Mbete, 2015; cf. Gaho, 2022). Therefore, these lexicons have a close connection to the environment of the speakers' community (see Umiyati, 2020).

TABLE 2
LEXICONS OF FAUNA IN MAKASSARESE PROVERBS

No	Lexicons	English	Latin	Grammatical Forms		Grammatical Categories		
				Base	Derivative	N	A	V
1	<i>Ularak lekleng</i>	Cobra	<i>Naja sputatrix</i>	-	+	+	-	-
2	<i>Sikuju</i>	Crab	<i>Scyda serrata</i>	+	-	+	-	-
3	<i>Caccak</i>	house gecko	<i>Filum Chordata</i>	+	-	+	-	-
4	<i>Paknyiki</i>	Bat	<i>Chiroptera</i>	+	-	+	-	-
5	<i>Lamuk</i>	Mosquito	<i>Aedes sp</i>	+	-	+	-	-
6	<i>Masapi</i>	Eel	<i>Monopterus albus</i>	+	-	+	-	-
7	<i>Tedong</i>	Buffalo	<i>Bubalus bubalis</i>	+	-	+	-	-
8	<i>Cumik-cumik</i>	Squid	<i>Loligo sp.</i>	+	-	+	-	-
9	<i>Miong</i>	Cat	<i>Felis Catus</i>	+	-	+	-	-
10	<i>Jangan lekleng</i>	Black Chicken	-	+	-	+	-	-
11	<i>Kalaka</i>	Crow	<i>Corvus</i>	-	+	+	-	-
12	<i>Bullung</i>	Jellyfish	<i>Rhizotomae</i>	+	-	+	-	-
13	<i>Darek</i>	Monkey	<i>Hominoidea</i>	+	-	+	-	-
14	<i>Balao</i>	Mouse	<i>Rattus argentiventer</i>	+	-	+	-	-
15	<i>Cui-cui</i>	Sparrows	<i>Estrildid finches</i>	-	+	+	-	-
16	<i>Dale-dale</i>	Grasshopper	<i>Caelifera</i>	+	-	+	-	-
17	<i>Siso</i>	Snail	<i>Pila ampullacea</i>	+	-	+	-	-
18	<i>Kongkong</i>	Dog	<i>Canis</i>	+	-	+	-	-
19	<i>Bembe</i>	Goat	<i>Capra aegagrus hircus</i>	+	-	+	-	-
20	<i>Gallang-gallang butta</i>	Earthworms	<i>Lumbricus rubellus</i>	-	+	+	-	-

Note: N = noun; A = Adverb; V = Verb. Source: Researchers, 2023

Table 2 above shows 20 fauna lexicons found in Makassarese proverbs book. Each of these lexicons is divided into various grammatical categories and grammatical forms. For instance, the lexicon *caccak* ‘gecko’ includes the noun category. Furthermore, the lexicon *Cui-cui* ‘sparrow’ is formed as a derivative and categorized as a noun. Most of the discovered lexicons are categorized as nouns, with some in derivative forms. These lexicons represent a list of words in the Makassarese language used in daily life. Umiyati (2023) mentions that the lexicons used by local communities serve as evidence of their close relationship with the environment, such as the lexicon “penaho”, a verb aimed at protecting trees from extinction. In other words, ecolexicons emerge as a form of preserving their natural surroundings.

B. The Concept of Metaphorical Ecolexicons of Flora and Fauna in Makassarese Proverbs

The closeness of the Makassarese to environment has contributed numerous vocabulary and lexicons that enrich the cultural treasury of the Makassar language. This aligns with Haugen’s (1972) view that language takes shape through its lexicons and grammar (see Aronoff & Anshen, 2007; Budasi & Satyawati, 2021; Duranti, 2001). Various types of lexicons emerge due to the harmonious interaction between speech communities and their natural environment. This interaction allows them to create metaphorical meanings that hold philosophical values, which can take the form of advice or admonishment, and even sarcasm. Several linguistic units associated with the ecolexicons of flora and fauna in Makassarese proverbs are considered as concrete or tangible sources, while the figurative meanings that stem from these sources represent intangible or abstract targets.

(a). Classifications of Metaphorical Ecolexicons Related to Flora in Makassarese Proverbs

The discussion in this section pertains to the plants present in the environment of the Makassarese. These various types of plants serve as data for the domain or source of metaphors found within Makassarese proverbs, as described below:

Metaphors related to flora:

- 1) Nu Assengji **lada-ya** passe na nu kanre-ja
You Know Chili-DET Spicy CONJ you eat
‘You know chili is spicy but you eat it’

The sentence (1) above carries a metaphorical meaning, indicating a proverb directed towards someone who regrets their actions after facing danger. The word “ladaya” serves as a symbol for the sensation of spiciness, which points to the consequences of their deeds.

- 2) *Erok tongak na-baddilik Bulu*
 Want Also-1S Pref- shot bamboo
 'I want to be shot with a bamboo gun too'

The sentence (2) above is conveyed as advice to someone not to force another person to share a problem they're experiencing. Instead, it's better to approach gently by inviting them to talk casually. Naturally, they will share their story calmly without feeling pressured.

- 3) *Kuntui rappo nipue rua*
 Like betel nut split two
 'Like a betel nut split in two'

Sentence (3) is a metaphorical expression often used to describe situations or things that are closely connected or inseparable, just like the two halves of a split betel nut. It implies that their physical appearance, behavior, and personality are almost identical.

- 4) *Sangkontu sanrapang tongi tau annakgalaka ri kayu busak*
 As also people holding Prep wood weathered
 'Like a person holding onto a rotten piece of wood'

Sentence (4) is a simile used to describe someone who is persistently holding onto something that is no longer useful or beneficial, similar to holding onto a piece of rotten wood that offers no support or stability. It conveys the idea of clinging to something that has lost its value (see Steen, 2008).

- 5) *Lamung-Iamungna taua na-jagai nalamung-Iamun-na niak tonja na tanajampang-ia*
 Plants people Pref-care whereas plant-Poss3S exist also CONJ abandoned-3S
 'The person is cared for, while the plant itself is neglected'

The sentence (5) above is spoken to someone who neglects their own family while paying attention to other people's families. This sentence illustrates a situation where someone is well taken care of, while the very thing they are responsible for, like a plant, is being neglected. It's a metaphorical expression that highlights the irony or contradiction between taking care of oneself but neglecting important responsibilities.

- 6) *Sangkontu sanrapang tongi cekla na camba, bungung na sekrok*
 Like also salt with vinegar well with bucket
 'Like salt and vinegar, well and bucket'

Sentence (6) is directed towards a couple or this phrase is used to depict a close and inseparable relationship between two things, just as salt and vinegar are often combined for flavor, and a well and bucket work together to obtain water. It emphasizes the idea of mutual dependence and complementarity.

- 7) *Kontui pepekr akrinra na nipantamai kayu kalotorok*
 Like fire light up and put wood dry
 'Like a burning fire, then filled again with dry wood'

Sentence (7) conveys the idea of continuously adding fuel to a fire that is already burning. It's often used metaphorically to describe situations where a problem or conflict is aggravated by adding more issues or tensions to it, making the situation worse. The fire represents a person's anger. Meanwhile, the dry wood acts as the third party worsening the situation or triggering more significant anger. Just as dry wood added to a fire produces a larger blaze, this phrase symbolizes how a third party's involvement can exacerbate tensions or conflicts.

- 8) *Tau takkulle nilamung batun-na*
 People NEG planted seed-3S
 'A person whose seed cannot be planted'

Sentence (8) is a proverb directed at someone who cannot be trusted or entrusted with responsibilities, just as a damaged plant seed is deemed incapable of growing properly due to its compromised state. In other words, someone with poor behavior is assuredly not capable of handling responsibilities and cannot be trusted.

- 9) *Kammai kapasak lekbak peppek rupan-na*
 Like cotton had hit face-Poss3S

‘His face is like cotton that has been beaten’

Sentence (9) is a sarcastic remark directed at someone whose face turns pale out of fear. It conveys that when a person appears nervous or frightened, their behavior may change, making them look as pale as cotton.

- 10) *Tau bajik kadondong lalona*
 People good Ambarella fruit like
 ‘A good person is like an ambarella fruit’

Sentence (10) is a conditional sentence. It implies that someone who pretends to be good but, in reality, harbors something bad in their heart. It’s likened to an ambarella fruit, which has a smooth outer skin but rough seeds. This suggests that we should be cautious of individuals with such characteristics.

(b). *Classifications of Metaphorical Ecolexicons Related to Fauna in Makassar Proverbs*

In addition to metaphors derived from flora, there are also Makassar proverbs that originate from fauna (animals), such as *ceccek* ‘gecko’, *bullung* ‘jellyfish’, *cumik-cumik* ‘squid’, and *tedong* ‘buffalo’. The following will be explained in more detail according to their usage in sentences.

- 11) *Kammai caccak naipika pallangga lombo*
 Like gecko stuck beam big
 ‘Like a gecko stuck under a heavy beam’

Sentence (11) has a metaphorical meaning directed at someone who becomes immobilized or unable to take any action, or remains silent, after their mistake is revealed. In other words, a person who has been proven guilty cannot say anything due to fear, especially when their wrongdoing has become known to the public.

- 12) *Tau assipak bullung*
 People act Jellyfish
 ‘A person who has characteristics like a jellyfish’

Sentence (12) is a sarcastic remark directed at someone who constantly causes trouble or chaos within the community. In this context, *bullung* ‘jellyfish’ is characterized by its stinging cells on its tentacles that can cause skin irritation when touched. In other words, the jellyfish is considered a source of problems or disturbances in community life.

- 13) *Tau assipak cumik-cumik*
 Like act squid
 ‘A person who has characteristics like a squid’

This phrase metaphorically describes someone who is secretive, evasive, or elusive in their actions or behavior. Just as a squid can quickly disappear by releasing ink and escaping from predators, this phrase implies that the person in question tends to hide their intentions or actions, making it difficult to understand their true motives.

- 14) *Kamma tongi nicinik miong na balao*
 Like also seen cat with mouse
 ‘Like a cat that sees a mouse’

Sentence (14) is a sarcastic remark typically addressed to two siblings who are not in harmony, always quarreling, or fighting. In this context, the behavior of cats and mice never involves harmony; they often hurt each other. Similarly, humans who lead a disharmonious life tend to create misunderstandings and issues among the people in their environment.

- 15) *Annganre tedong attattai cui-cui*
 Eat buffalo defecate sparrows
 ‘Eats like a buffalo, but defecates like a sparrow’

Sentence (15) is a comparative phrase. It is directed at someone who is skilled at managing their finances. In other words, they have a high income but low expenses. Just as a buffalo eats a lot, while a sparrow produces small droppings, this phrase illustrates the comparison between someone’s substantial income and their expenses are minimal.

- 16) *Sangkontu tongi ularak lekleng*
 Like also snake black
 ‘Like a black snake’

Sentence (16) is a sarcastic phrase directed at someone who doesn't accept advice and instead reacts aggressively, just like a snake suddenly attacking its prey. Similarly, someone who is stubborn and hard to control may react defensively even after being advised multiple times.

- 17) *Sangkontu akkarameng sikuju i lalang karanjenga*
 Like fingers crab PREP in basket
 'Like a crab in a basket'

Sentence (17) has a metaphorical meaning of causing a commotion. It's usually said to someone who argues with their friend over a trivial matter, but their voices cause a disturbance.

- 18) *Kamma tommami paknyiki bottok-na rasanna epana*
 Like also bat stench-Poss3S smells armpit-Poss3S
 'His armpits smell just like a bat's odor'

Sentence (18) is a sarcastic remark towards someone whose armpits smell foul. In this context, a person is considered by the community to be indifferent to their personal hygiene, resulting in a bad odor.

- 19) *Tau assipak lamuk*
 People act mosquito
 'A person who has the characteristics of a mosquito'

Sentence (19) is a satire directed at someone who always hurts others, whether through words or actions. In this case, it is likened to a mosquito that hurts its prey by sucking blood and causing pain to others.

- 20) *Masapi lalona*
 Eel like
 'Like eel'

Sentence (20) above is a satirical statement aimed at someone who is unreliable because their stance always changes or they frequently break promises. Like an eel with slippery skin, it can slip away at any time when held.

C. The Ecophilosophy Values in the Ecollexicon of Flora and Fauna in Makassar Proverbs

There are several ecophilosophy values found in the ecollexicon of flora and fauna in Makassarese proverbs, as described below:

1. Local wisdom values

Local wisdom values are those related to actions taken to preserve biodiversity, such as the tradition of *ma'burasa*. *A'burasa* is a tradition of the Bugis-Makassar ethnic group in South Sulawesi, Indonesia, carried out before the fasting month or Eid al-Fitr. *Ma'burasa* comes from the Bugis language and means making "burasa", which is a traditional dish commonly known as *ketupat*. *Burasa* holds significance as an identity of the Bugis-Makassar community.

The process of making *burasa* is a local wisdom that has become a tradition in the Bugis-Makassar community and is passed down through generations. *Burasa* is wrapped using *lekok unti* 'banana leaves' as the main material. In this context, the ecollexicon of *lekok unti* 'banana leaves' holds a philosophical value of local wisdom. The use of *lekok unti* in food processing represents a traditional culture of the Makassar community. Additionally, banana leaf ash can contribute to soil stabilization.

Furthermore, the lexicon of *tedong* 'buffalo' also holds a philosophical value of local wisdom. In Makassarese, particularly in Toraja City, the buffalo holds a special significance. It is used as a medium of exchange in marriage, inheritance, and funeral ceremonies. Owning buffalo is a symbol of social status. It's understandable that among the Toraja people, the buffalo holds great significance, with naming, grouping, and assigning value being complex tasks (Bo'Do, 2008). The buffalo has a very high cultural value. Typically, buffalo horns are mounted on the front of traditional Toraja houses known as *tongkonan*. The more horns displayed in front of a *tongkonan*, the higher the social status of the family that owns the house (Arifuddin, 2016).

Furthermore, the lexicon of *jangang* 'chicken' also holds a philosophical value of local wisdom, as seen in the tradition of *suru maca*. The "suru maca" tradition involves a collective prayer sent to the ancestors. This ritual takes place before the month of Ramadan. Apart from conveying prayers, the *suru maca* tradition is a form of respect to the deceased ancestors and a means of purifying the soul and spirit before observing the fasting rituals.

2. Consumptive Values

Consumptive value refers to the direct benefits derived from biodiversity. An example of this value is the utilization of biodiversity for fulfilling clothing, food, and shelter needs. Just like the ecollexicon of flora in Makassarese proverbs, reflected in their usage such as *lekok paccok* 'taro leaves,' *dokek unti* 'banana blossom, and *paria* 'bitter melon'. The

ecolexicon *lekak paccok* ‘taro leaves’ carries a significant nutritional value, particularly its high fiber content. The fiber in taro leaves aids in digestion and nutrient absorption, contributing to overall health.

Furthermore, the nutritional content of taro leaves can support the growth of beneficial microorganisms such as *Escherichia coli* and *Lactobacillus acidophilus*, aiding in maintaining a healthy digestive system (Anwar et al., 2022; Temesgen & Retta, 2015). Among the ecolexicons related to fauna that hold consumptive value are *masapi* ‘eel’, *cumik-cumik* ‘squid’, *sukuju* ‘crab’, *siso* ‘snail’, and *jangang* ‘chicken’. *Masapi* ‘eel’ is a type of fish rich in protein. While its natural habitat is in rice fields, due to high demand for consumption, eels are also cultivated by the Makassarese. The meat of rice field eels contains various nutrients such as protein, fats, saturated and unsaturated fatty acids, vitamin A, phosphorus, vitamin C, and calcium. In essence, rice field eel meat provides a well-rounded nutritional profile that is beneficial for health (see Chen et al., 2017).

Similarly, *cumik-cumik* ‘squid’ and *sukuju* ‘crab’, these seafood items are popular choices in seafood stalls and restaurants due to their rich nutritional content (see Lund, 2013; McManus et al., 2011; Nøstbakken et al., 2021). Moreover, *siso* ‘snail’ is also a creature with great potential for culinary development, particularly in the culinary industry, given its high nutritional value. Additionally, *jangang* ‘chicken’ holds numerous benefits; both chicken eggs and meat are valuable food sources. As an animal with high consumptive value, chickens are commonly raised by communities for their meat and eggs. Particularly, free-range or local chickens are known for their relatively high protein content. On the other hand, the availability of chicken meat and eggs is relatively easy, assisting communities in meeting their animal protein needs (see Meng et al., 2022; Yang et al., 2023).

3. Productive Values

Productive value refers to the market value derived from trading biodiversity in local, national, and international markets. As seen in the case of the ecolexicons *lada* ‘chili’, *kaluku* ‘coconut’, *tiboang* ‘peanut’, *kapasak* ‘cotton’, *bulo* ‘bamboo’, *camba* ‘coffee’, *kadondong* ‘ambarella fruit’, *kunyik* ‘turmeric’, *biralle* ‘corn’, and *paccok* ‘taro’ are closely related to the speech community of Makassarese. The closeness is evidenced through a sociological dimension, with these plants growing and being cultivated extensively due to their economic significance. For instance, the flora lexicon of *paccok* ‘taro’ (*Colocasia esculenta* (L.) Schott) is a versatile food commodity with numerous uses. Additionally, *paccok* ‘taro’ holds considerable economic value as a source of carbohydrates, fats, vitamins, and excellent fiber content. Taro is a low-calorie food that serves as an alternative to rice and can help normalize blood sugar levels for individuals with diabetes (Simamora et al., 2018). Similarly, ecolexicons of fauna, like *jangang* ‘chicken’ also possess productive value that is reflected in their usage within Makassar proverbs.

4. Environmental Services Values

Environmental services are products of biological natural resources and their ecosystems that provide direct (tangible) and indirect (intangible) benefits. The examples of environmental services include nature tourism, water resource protection (hydrology), soil fertility, erosion and flood control, natural beauty and uniqueness, carbon absorption and storage (carbon offset). Additionally, environmental services are generated from various land uses (forests or agriculture) as well as aquatic environments, including freshwater (rivers, lakes, swamps) and marine ecosystems (Soenarno, 2015). The lexicon of *ularak* ‘snake’ plays a significant role that holds environmental service value. *Ularak* is commonly found in human settlements where its prey, such as *balao* ‘rats’ or other animals, are abundant. The habitats of *ularak* are diverse, including *ri galunga* ‘rice fields’, *ri romanga* ‘forests’, *ri kokoa* ‘gardens’, and other bushy areas. As a fauna species with environmental service value, *ularak* plays a crucial role in the ecosystem as a predator (see Asri et al., 2015) and prey in the food chain (see Ferranti, 2023; Li et al., 2023; Pujaru et al., 2021). An ecosystem refers to the structured relationships among living organisms in a specific environment, involving the flow and utilization of energy (Adey & Loveland, 2007). In this context, *ularak* serves as a natural predator of *balao* ‘rats’ and insects, thus helping to control pest populations.

V. CONCLUSION

Based on the analysis results, 40 ecolexicons were identified, consisting of 20 ecolexicons related to flora and 20 ecolexicons related to fauna, categorized into linguistic morphology and semantic morphology within the biotic realm. Furthermore, the metaphors used by the Makassarese are classified based on the conventional agreement among the speakers of Makassarese language. The interdependence between the flora and fauna residing in the Makassarese natural environment (ecoregion) as the source domain, and humans, connected to their conditions and behaviors as the target domain, occurs through a cross-mapping process that correlates within the cognitive and mental aspects of the speech community. This interplay is then realized within the context of the Makassarese proverb book and the verbal communication of the Makassarese. The emergence of these lexicons is a result of the harmonious interaction between speech communities and their natural environment. Moreover, several metaphorical meanings carry philosophical values in the form of advice, guidance, and even sarcasm.

The presence of the ecolexicons also serves as an indicator that the names of flora and fauna used in Makassarese proverbs are present in the Makassarese’s environment and have a close relationship with the Makassarese community. These ecolexicons, when viewed through the lens of ecolinguistic understanding, hold philosophical values (see Dregson & Devall, 2008; Nurwahyuni et al., 2022). From an ecolinguistic perspective, these lexicons represent the names of plants and animals. However, based on ecophilosophical understanding, these ecolexicons carry philosophical values in their

existence within the Makassarese environment. These philosophical values include local wisdom, consumptive value, productive value, and ecosystem service value.

REFERENCES

- [1] Adey, W. H., & Loveland, K. (2007). Trophic Structure: Ecosystems and the Dynamics of Food Chains. *Dynamic Aquaria*, 191–202. doi:10.1016/b978-0-12-370641-6.50022-4
- [2] Akbar. (2020). Analisis Makna Peribahasa dalam Bahasa Konjho Kecamatan Sinjai Barat Kabupaten Sinjai. *Jurnal Bahasa Dan Sastra*, 5(1), 93–95.
- [3] Algeo, J. (2010). Is a Theory of Names Possible? *Names*, 58(2), 90–96. doi:10.1179/002777310X12682237915106
- [4] Anwar, M., Mros, S., McConnell, M., & Bekhit, A. E.-D. A. (2022). Effects of Taro (*Colocasia esculenta*) Water-Soluble Non-Starch Polysaccharide, *Lactobacillus acidophilus*, *Bifidobacterium breve*, *Bifidobacterium infantis*, and Their Synbiotic Mixtures on Pro-Inflammatory Cytokine Interleukin-8 Production. *Nutrients*, 14(2128), 1–20. doi:10.3390/nu14102128
- [5] Arief, A. (1995). *Kamus Makassar-Indonesia*. Makassar: Yayasan Perguruan Islam Kapita DDI.
- [6] Arifuddin. (2016). Cultural and Needs-based Housing Development Case Study: The Bugis Community in Makassar City. *Procedia - Social and Behavioral Sciences*, 227(November), 300–308. doi:10.1016/j.sbspro.2016.06.075
- [7] Aronoff, M., & Anshen, F. (2007). Morphology and the Lexicon: Lexicalization and Productivity. In A. Spencer & A. M. Zwicky (Eds.), *The Handbook of Morphology*. Stanford: Blackwell. doi:10.1111/b.9780631226949.2001.00003.x
- [8] Arumugam, S., Pugazhenth, G., & Selvaraj, S. (2023). Investigations on Mechanical Properties of Processed Banana Leaves for Sustainable Food Packaging Applications. *Materials Today: Proceedings*. doi:https://doi.org/10.1016/j.matpr.2023.02.256
- [9] Asri, A. S. K., Yanuwadi, & Bagyo. (2015). Persepsi Masyarakat terhadap Ular sebagai Upaya Konservasi Satwa Liar pada Masyarakat Dusun Kependukuh, Desa Grogol, Kecamatan Giri, Kabupaten Banyuwangi. *J-Pal*, 6(1), 42–47.
- [10] Babbie, E. (2016). The Practice of Social Research. *Teaching Sociology* (14th ed.). Boston: Cengage Learning. doi:10.2307/1318433
- [11] Basang, D., & Arief, A. (1981). *Struktur Bahasa Makassar* [Structure of Makassar Language]. Jakarta: Pusat Pembinaan dan Pengembangan Bahasa Departemen Pendidikan dan Kebudayaan.
- [12] Bo'Do., S. (2008). *Kerbau dalam Tradisi Orang Toraja The Importance of Water Buffalos in Torajanese Tradition*. Pusat Kajian Indonesia Timur, Universitas Hasanuddin.
- [13] Budasi, I. G., & Satyawati, M. S. (2021). An Ethnolinguistic Perspective on Lexicons of Traditional House in Menyali Village, North Bali. *Jurnal Kajian Bali*, 11(1), 115–130.
- [14] Charmilasari. (2017). Sistem Fonologis Bahasa Makassar Dialek Cikoang Kabupaten Takalar. *Jurnal Onoma: Pendidikan, Bahasa Dan Sastra*, 3(1), 157–172.
- [15] Chen, D., Ye, Y., Chen, J., Zhan, P., & Lou, Y. (2017). Molecular Nutritional Characteristics of Vinas Pike Eel (*Muraenesox cinereus*) During Pickling. *Food Chemistry*, 224(December), 359–364. doi:10.1016/j.foodchem.2016.12.089
- [16] Downes, W. (1998). Language and Society. *Language and Society*, (1949), 8315–8320. doi:10.1017/cbo9781139163781
- [17] Drengson, A., & Devall, B. (Eds.). (2008). *Ecology of Wisdom: Writings by Arne Naess*. Berkeley: Counterpoint.
- [18] Duranti, A. (2001). *Linguistic Anthropology*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.
- [19] Ferranti, P. (2023). 1.16 - Food Production and Ecosystem Protection. In P. B. T.-S. F. S.-A. C. A. Ferranti (Ed.), *Sustainable Food Science - A Comprehensive Approach* (pp. 169–172). Oxford: Elsevier. doi:https://doi.org/10.1016/B978-0-12-823960-5.00039-1
- [20] Fill, A., & Mihihausler, P. (2001). *The Ecolinguistics Reader: Language, Ecology and Environment*. London: Continuum.
- [21] Fill, A., & Steffensen, S. V. (2014). Editorial: The Ecology of Language and the Ecology of Science. *Language Sciences*, 41(February), 1–5. doi:10.1016/j.langsci.2013.08.002
- [22] Gaho, R. (2022). The Existence of Fauna Lexicons in the Elefu's Song Lyrics: Ecolinguistics Study. *Indonesian Ecolinguistics Journal*, 1(1), 38–43.
- [23] Gerrig, R. J., & Banaji, M. R. (2021). *Language and Thought. Argumentation Library* (Vol. 37). Academic Press. doi:10.1007/978-3-030-61694-6_1
- [24] Grimes, B. F. (1992). *Ethnologue: Languages of the World* (12th ed.). Dallas: The Summer Institute of Linguistics, Inc.
- [25] Hakim, Z. (1995). *Peribahasa Makassar* [Proverbs of Makassar]. Jakarta: Pusat Pembinaan dan Pengembangan Bahasa.
- [26] Haugen, E. (1972). *The Ecology of Language*. Stanford University Press.
- [27] Ino, L., Nirmalasari, N., Darlian, L., Damhuri, D., Suraya, R. S., & Alkausar, M. (2022). Flora Lexicon of Kaghati in Muna Speech Community. *Jurnal Arbitrer*, 9(1), 39–47. doi:10.25077/ar.9.1.39-47.2022
- [28] Jukes, A. (2006). *Makassar (Basa Mangkasara): A description of An Austronesian Language of South Sulawesi*. The University of Melbourne.
- [29] Kravchenko, A. V. (2016). Two Views on Language Ecology and Ecolinguistics. *Language Sciences*, 54, 102–113. doi:10.1016/j.langsci.2015.12.002
- [30] Li, Z., Yang, Y., Chen, X., He, Y., Bolan, N., Rinklebe, J., ... Sonne, C. (2023). A Discussion of Microplastics in Soil and Risks for Ecosystems and Food Chains. *Chemosphere*, 313(December), 137637. doi:10.1016/j.chemosphere.2022.137637
- [31] Lubis, T. (2016). *Metaphors in Acehese Literature Work*. In *Menggali Kekayaan Bahasa Nusantara (KIMLI) 2016* (pp. 861–864). Denpasar: Kongres Internasional Masyarakat Linguistik Indonesia 2016.
- [32] Lucy, J. A. (2015). Sapir-Whorf Hypothesis. *International Encyclopedia of the Social & Behavioral Sciences: Second Edition* (Second Edi, Vol. 20). Elsevier. doi:10.1016/B978-0-08-097086-8.52017-0
- [33] Lund, E. K. (2013). Health Benefits of Seafood; Is It Just the Fatty Acids? *Food Chemistry*, 140(3), 413–420. doi:10.1016/j.foodchem.2013.01.034
- [34] Lyon, J. (1992). *Language and Linguistics*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.
- [35] Manyambeang, A. K., Syarif, A. A., Hamid, A. R., Basang, D., & Arief, A. (1979). *Morfologi dan Sintaksis Bahasa Makassar*. Jakarta: Pusat Pembinaan dan Pengembangan Bahasa Departemen Pendidikan dan Kebudayaan.

- [36] Mbete, A. M. (2015). *Khazanah Leksikon Bahasa Sabu: Sumber Pengetahuan untuk Pengembangan Ekonomi Kreatif*. Denpasar: Universitas Udayana.
- [37] McManus, A., Fielder, L., Newton, W., & White, J. (2011). Health Benefits of Seafood for Men. *Journal of Men's Health*, 8(4), 252–257. doi:10.1016/j.jomh.2011.04.004
- [38] Meng, Y., Qiu, N., Guyonnet, V., & Mine, Y. (2022). Unveiling and Application of the Chicken Egg Proteome: An Overview on a Two-Decade Achievement. *Food Chemistry*, 393(November), 133403. doi:https://doi.org/10.1016/j.foodchem.2022.133403
- [39] Miles, M. B., Huberman, A. M., & Saldaña, J. (2014). *Qualitative Data Analysis: A Methods Sourcebook* (3rd ed.). United States of America: SAGE Publications, Inc.
- [40] Mustafa. (2012). Keteguhan dalam Sastra Makassar 'Paruntukkana' (Firmness Value in Literary Macassaranes 'Paruntukkana'). *Al-Qalam*, 18(2), 275–280. doi:10.31969/alq.v18i2.81
- [41] Naess, A. (1989). *Ecology, Community and Lifestyle: Outline of An Ecosophy*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press. doi:10.1017/cbo9780511525599
- [42] Nøstbakken, O. J., Rasinger, J. D., Hannisdal, R., Sanden, M., Frøyland, L., Duinker, A., ... Madsen, L. (2021). Levels of Omega 3 Fatty Acids, Vitamin D, Dioxins and Dioxin-Like PCBs in Oily Fish; a New Perspective on the Reporting of Nutrient and Contaminant Data for Risk–Benefit Assessments of Oily Seafood. *Environment International*, 147(December), 106322. doi:10.1016/j.envint.2020.106322
- [43] Nurwahyuni, K., Mbete, A. M., & Umiyati, M. (2022). Afroz Shah's Ecosophy on Youtube.Com: An Ecolinguistics Perspective. *KnE Social Sciences*, 2022(2013), 10–20. doi:10.18502/kss.v7i10.11270
- [44] Nuzwaty. (2014). *Keterkaitan Metafora dengan Lingkungan Alam pada Komunitas Bahasa Aceh di Desa Trumon Aceh Selatan: Kajian Ekolinguistik*. Universitas Sumatera Utara. Retrieved from <http://repositori.usu.ac.id/handle/123456789/33540>
- [45] Pujaru, K., Kar, T. K., & Paul, P. (2021). Relationship between Multiple Ecosystem Services and Sustainability in Three Species Food Chain. *Ecological Informatics*, 62(January), 101250. doi:10.1016/j.ecoinf.2021.101250
- [46] Rao, T. S., Lokesh, U., Suresh, K., Ranadeep, B., & Thangamani, K. (2023). Strength Properties of Soil Stabilization with Banana Leaves Ash. *Materials Today: Proceedings*. doi:https://doi.org/10.1016/j.matpr.2023.04.558
- [47] Rimma, T., Zhazira, I., Baltagul, O., Sholpan, K., Aisulu, E., & Adiyeva, P. (2014). Linguistic Analyze of Characters in the Proverbs and Sayings. *Procedia - Social and Behavioral Sciences*, 143, 634–637. doi:10.1016/j.sbspro.2014.07.451
- [48] Sabet, P. G. P., & Zhang, G. (2020). First Names in Social and Ethnic Contexts: A Socio-Onomastic Approach. *Language and Communication*, 70, 1–12. doi:10.1016/j.langcom.2019.09.004
- [49] Sapir, E. (1912). Language and Environment. *American Anthropologist*, 14(2), 226–242. doi:https://doi.org/10.1525/aa.1912.14.2.02a00020
- [50] Sariah. (2018). *Nilai-nilai Karakter Bangsa dalam Peribahasa Bahasa Indonesia: Kajian Antropolinguistik* [National Character Values in Indonesian Proverbs: Anthropological Studies]. Proc. Balai Bahasa Jawa Barat.
- [51] Simamora, R. M., Yulian, & Turmudi, E. (2018). Penampilan 10 Akses Talas (*Colocasia esculenta* (L.) Schott) di Lahan Pesisir Bengkulu. *Jurnal Ilmu-Ilmu Pertanian Indonesia*, 20(1), 19–25. doi:10.31186/jipi.20.1.19-25
- [52] Skutnabb-kangas, T., & Phillipson, R. (2011). *Language Ecology*. In *Pragmatics in Practice* (pp. 177–198). New York: John Benjamins Publishing Company.
- [53] Soenarno, S. M. (2015). Pembelajaran Materi Jasa Lingkungan. *Formatif: Jurnal Ilmiah Pendidikan MIPA*, 4(2), 150–156. doi:10.30998/formatif.v4i2.149
- [54] Steen, G. (2008). The Paradox of Metaphor: Why We Need a Three-Dimensional Model of Metaphor. *Metaphor and Symbol*, 23(4), 213–241. doi:10.1080/10926480802426753
- [55] Stibbe, A. (2015). *Ecolinguistics: Language, Ecology and the Stories We Live By*. London: Routledge.
- [56] Stidd, S. C. (2004). Proper Names, Predicative Uses: An essay on Logical form. *Language Sciences*, 26(2), 173–215. doi:10.1016/j.langsci.2003.09.003
- [57] Sua, A. T., Anshari, & Maman, M. (2020). Bentuk, Fungsi, dan Nilai Ungkapan Bugis Masyarakat Bone. *Edumaspul: Jurnal Pendidikan*, 4(1), 288–295. doi:10.33487/edumaspul.v4i1.368
- [58] Syzdykov, K. (2014). Contrastive Studies on Proverbs. *Procedia - Social and Behavioral Sciences*, 136, 318–321. doi:10.1016/j.sbspro.2014.05.336
- [59] Temesgen, M., & Retta, N. (2015). Nutritional Potential, Health and Food Security Benefits of Taro *Colocasia esculenta* (L.): A Review. *Food Science and Quality Management*, 36, 23–31.
- [60] Umiyati, M. (2020). The Existence of Natural Lexicons in 'Awig-Awig' Tenganan Pegringsingan Bali: An Ecolinguistic Approach. *Jurnal Kajian Bali*, 10(1), 191–216. doi:https://doi.org/10.24843/JKB.2020.v10.i01.p09
- [61] Umiyati, M. (2023). Lexicon Distinctiveness Used in 'Awig-Awig' Text in Tenganan Village Bali: An Ecolinguistics Study. *Theory and Practice in Language Studies*, 13(4), 1065–1075. doi:10.17507/tpls.1304.29
- [62] Verhaar, J. M. W. (2010). *Asas-Asas Linguistik Umum* [Principles of General Linguistics]. Yogyakarta: Gajah Mada University Press.
- [63] Yang, H., Li, Y., Yuan, J., Ni, A., Ma, H., Wang, Y., ... Chen, J. (2023). Research Note: Genetic Parameters for Egg Production and Clutch Related Traits in Indigenous Beijing-You Chickens. *Poultry Science*, 102(9), 102904. doi:10.1016/j.psj.2023.102904
- [64] Yang, J. (2014). Brief Introduction to Language Ecology and Language Instruction. *Open Journal of Social Sciences*, 2(December), 106–110. doi:10.4236/jss.2014.212015



Mirsa Umiyati is a lecturer and Head of the Linguistics Department, Warmadewa University, Denpasar. She is also active conducts some researches in the fields of Syntax, Morphology, Ecolinguistics, Computational Linguistics, Research Methodology, Corpus Linguistic Typology, Forensic Linguistics and others. Some of her published works include: *Excessive Lexical Borrowing: Restraining the Absorption of English Vocabulary into Indonesian Through Translation* (2018) published in *Proceeding Scitepress* indexed by Scopus. Email: mirsa.umiyati2@gmail.com



Nur Afnita Asfar was born in Bantaeng, 07 August 1999. She completed her Bachelor's degree in the Department of English Literature, Halu Oleo University. Then, she completed her Master's degree at the Linguistics Department, Warmadewa University, Denpasar, Indonesia. Some of her published works are: *Critical Discourse Analysis of Online News Texts: Expert Says Prabowo Voters Tend to Switch to Sandi Rather Than Anies*: *Austronesian: Journal of Language Science & Literature*, 1(1), 9-20; *Texts and Images in Aquaman Movie (A Multimodal Discourse Analysis)*: *International Journal of Systemic Functional Linguistics* 5 (1), 69-79; *Metaphors in Jason Mraz's Song Lyrics (An Ecolinguistic Perspective)*: *KnE Social Sciences*, 246-258. Then, books entitled: *Sajak Merah Jambu [Pink Poetry]*, 2020 and *Suara Jiwa [The Voice of the Soul]*, 2022. Email: nurafnitaasfar07@gmail.com



Rika Purnama Sari is a doctoral student at the Applied Linguistics Department, Universitas Negeri Jakarta, East Jakarta, Indonesia. Some of her published scientific works are: *Indonesian interference in the students' writing of recount text at SMA Negeri 1 Toma*. *Retorika: Jurnal Ilmu Bahasa*, 6(2), 98-104 in 2020; *Ekolinguistik: Analisis Kasus Dan Penerapan Prinsip Dasar*. *Jayapangus Press Books* in 2020; *Linguistic Landscape (LL): A Theoretical Review*. *KnE Social Sciences*, 215-221 in 2022; *The Use of Malay Modalities in Abstracts of Proceda Social and Behavioral Sciences Journals*. *Litera*, 19(3), 378-396 in 2020. Apart from that, she is also active in participating in national and international seminars, including the Eighteenth Atma Jaya Annual Linguistic Conference (KOLITA 18) in 2020, the International Seminar on Social Science, Humanities, and Education (ISSHE) in 2021, 1st International Students Conference on Linguistics (1st ISCL) in 2021 and (2nd ISCL) in 2022. She also received an award as best scientific article category (Best paper) at the 2nd ISCL panel speaker.

Email: rikapurnamamei@gmail.com

Empowering EFL Learners: A Multilayered Deep Learning Framework for EMI Universities

Aziz Thabit Saeed

Faculty of Language Studies (FLS), Arab Open University (AOU)-HQ, Kuwait

Hayat Al-Khatib

Faculty of Language Studies (FLS), Arab Open University (AOU), Lebanon

Kaldun Mohamednur Said

Faculty of Language Studies (FLS), Arab Open University (AOU), Kuwait

Ghada Abdel Hafeez*

Faculty of Language Studies (FLS), Arab Open University (AOU), Bahrain

Abstract—The globalization of English has significantly impacted its teaching and learning enterprise at universities in the non-native context in an unprecedented proportion. However, concerns have been voiced that school exit levels in English competency do not match higher education entry requirements (Coleman et al., 2018). This research, conducted by the Faculty of Language Studies (FLS) at the Arab Open University (AOU), investigates the needs of new EFL entrants in higher education institutions that use English as the medium of instruction (EMI). It aims to identify effective teaching-learning methods that create favorable conditions for students' success. It also aims to integrate theories that anticipate challenges and propose solutions. The study collected data from 11298 EFL learners and 105 tutors across the University's campuses in eight Arab countries. Both quantitative and qualitative analyses indicate a critical need for a tailored, multilayered EFL deep learning framework to tackle the intensity of the problem. To address this gap, the research team collaborated with the authors of the new C21 curriculum to incorporate the findings into the curriculum, thereby addressing the linguistic and extralinguistic challenges faced by students using the previous curriculum. The study concludes that implementing the proposed modifications can establish a progressive teaching and learning model tailored for EFL learners in higher education.

Index Terms—EFL learners, EMI institutions, eclectic multilayered, deep learning model

I. INTRODUCTION

Proficiency in English is a prerequisite for enrollment in higher education institutions that implement English as their language of instruction. At these English-medium instruction (EMI) universities, prospective students must demonstrate competency in a range of English language skills before gaining admission. Macaro et al. (2018) highlighted a growing interest in assessing incoming students' readiness to meet the demands of English in higher education. Understanding students' academic English needs and identifying their proficiency levels significantly impact the teaching and learning process. This issue has sparked considerable discussion regarding the effectiveness of educational support interventions (Mezek et al., 2021) and whether these measures lead to measurable improvements in students' performance (Coneyworth et al., 2020). Macaro et al. (2018) underscored "the necessity for further research aimed at evaluating the impact of English language support initiatives on enhancing students' proficiency" (p. 69). Pecorari (2020) also acknowledged the need for studies that examined specific methods capable of creating favorable conditions for success in an EMI context.

McGrath et al. (2019) and Wingate (2018) have outlined the challenges EFL students face when using English as the medium of instruction at the university level. These challenges are most prominent in the area of academic writing (Cheng, 2008; Wingate, 2018; Yung & Fong, 2019), with secondary concerns regarding deficiencies in reading comprehension skills necessary for EFL students to effectively extract required information (Wingate, 2015). Additionally, EFL learners often struggle with synthesizing and appropriately paraphrasing information, which is essential for producing academic texts (Bailey, 2018; Lasagabaster, 2018; Mouhanna, 2016).

Despite the identified challenges, there is a noticeable gap in the literature concerning the assessment of EFL students' progression from entry to exit through English language support courses. This includes identifying effective methodologies and theoretical frameworks that contribute to their development (Al-Hosni, 2014; Jafari & Ansari, 2012; IELTS, 2018). Rabab'ah (2005) remarked on the limited nature of existing research in this domain, which often consists of anecdotal evidence and superficial evaluations. Furthermore, Lasagabaster (2018) questioned the adequacy of current

* Corresponding Author. Email: ghada.abdelhafeez@aou.org.bh

theories in anticipating and addressing the ongoing challenges encountered by EFL learners as they advance from initial entry levels to more advanced stages of academic enrollment.

This research aims to fill these gaps by providing a comprehensive examination of EFL students' educational journeys. It incorporates rigorous methodological approaches and robust theoretical underpinnings to elucidate effective strategies for their academic development.

II. LITERATURE REVIEW

English language acquisition has attracted, throughout the years, a myriad of approaches and theoretical frames in order to account for the optimal situation of learning. According to behaviorists, frequent repetition of language drills leads to memorization, which is considered essential for learning. This approach posits that through consistent practice, learners can internalize and naturalize the target language, making it habitual and effortless. In his book *Language Teaching Research and Language Pedagogy* (2016), Ellis argues that repeated exposure and practice help learners automatize language skills, making them more proficient over time. In a similar vein, Gass and Mackey's *The Routledge Handbook of Second Language Acquisition* (2012) review empirical studies that support the role of repetition in language acquisition, highlighting how systematic practice can lead to improved fluency and accuracy.

Innatists, on the other hand, believe that learning is hardwired in a human. Second or foreign language learners acquire the additional language in much the same way that native language learners do. According to Innatist theorists, language acquisition happens subconsciously when comprehensible input is presented. Learners pick up the new language in a natural order similar to that of the first language, and the monitor edits their language performance. However, this natural order is strained when anxiety is present, according to Krashen's (1985) comprehensible input theory.

The cognitivists' perspectives on language learning emphasize active engagement and meaningful processing of language structures and vocabulary. According to cognitivists, learning involves learners noticing patterns and rules in the language and applying these effectively in communicative contexts. Making knowledge meaningful is crucial as it enhances retention and application of language skills. In *Second Language Task Complexity: Researching the Cognition Hypothesis of Language Learning and Performance*, Robinson (2011) argues that meaningful engagement with language tasks promotes deeper learning and retention of language structures.

Interactionists believe learning happens when learners interact with proficient language speakers. This perspective, rooted in theories like Vygotsky's Zone of Proximal Development and Swain's Output Hypothesis, asserts that learners benefit from interacting in the target language to internalize linguistic structures and improve communicative competence (Moll, 1990; Swain, 1985). Finally, the sociocultural model underlines that social and cultural interactions in EFL settings contribute to EFL acquisition and performance (Kong & Wei, 2019; López-Gopar et al., 2021).

The above theoretical frames have given rise to numerous approaches that described and prescribed the teaching and learning processes in non-native contexts, leading to numerous studies indicating that pre-tertiary English education often fails to achieve proficiency levels sufficient for university admission standards. In a study conducted in China, McKinley et al. (2021) report that transnational universities and EMI programmes in China aim to internationalize education, balancing English proficiency with academic goals through robust support and immersive environments. The findings indicated that transnational universities were more inclined to provide language support to their students and implement language policies regulating language use. Overall, the results highlight a variety of benefits and challenges linked to each institution's contextualized policy-making, resulting in both facilitation and conflict for EMI stakeholders. In another study that took place in Hong Kong on newly admitted EFL learners to an English medium of instruction university, Yung and Fong (2019), underline the presence of several challenges that face first year undergraduate students in learning English for Academic Purposes (EAP). They argue that the 9 participants they followed were high ESL secondary school examination scorers who should have had a smoother sailing at an English medium of instruction (EMI) university. Their study identified a gap in English language transition from high school to university.

Trenkic and Warmington (2019) investigated English language and literacy skills of 63 Chinese first language bilingual learners pursuing higher education in English and argue that the lower attainment of international students at EMI universities is still poorly understood. EFL students continue to experience a systematic disadvantage in English at university level despite the preparations they undergo throughout their years of secondary education. The aforementioned studies indicate that there is substantial evidence suggesting that high school graduates are inadequately prepared to cope with English as the medium of instruction in higher education. EFL students aspiring for international advanced education, better employability or immigration opportunities are channeled towards universities that offer education through the medium of English (Dearden, 2014). However, the growing diversity of student intake has placed a bigger burden on the academic institutions to apply the appropriate filtering.

Lasagabaster (2018) has noted that higher education institutions must assess incoming students' educational backgrounds rigorously to determine their academic needs and place them appropriately in suitable programmes. Hence, the use of English placement tests has become the main source in evaluating applicants' readiness for higher education. The importance of placement tests is that they reflect applicants' abilities to cope with the language demands that they will encounter in an English higher education medium of instruction and the typical reading, writing and analytic requirements they are likely to face. However, Mačiulskienė and Zutkienė (2024) question whether the English proficiency level is always reflected in the placement tests. They raise concerns related to test design, cultural bias, test

conditions, teaching to the test, and the dynamic nature of language abilities that affect the validity and reliability of these tests in truly capturing a student's language abilities. To improve accuracy, they suggest regularly updating test content and adopting a more holistic approach to language assessment, and taking into account the various factors that can influence test performance.

These recent studies collectively reinforce the argument that pre-tertiary English teaching often falls short in preparing students adequately for the linguistic demands of university admission requirements.

III. STUDY METHODOLOGY

This section of the paper addresses the study methodology, which covers the research questions, participants, instruments and data collection procedures.

A. Research Questions

The research study examines how the Faculty of Language Studies (FLS) at the Arab Open University (AOU) engaged in the debate from an exploratory approach that adopted the contemporary research concerns, which were framed into the following study questions:

What are the needs of EFL new entrants in a higher education institution using English as the medium of instruction, and do they change with different EFL proficiency levels?

Which teaching methods create preconditions for success for new entrants in a higher education institution using English as the medium of instruction?

Which theories can project the potential challenges and appraise solutions, along the protracted path of learning EFL in a higher education institution using English as the medium of instruction?

B. Participants

The participants in this study are 11298 EFL learners who were placed at one of the communication skills courses (EL097, EL098, EL099, EL111 and EL112) that are offered by the Faculty of Language Studies (FLS) at the Arab Open University (AOU) eight campuses. Also, the population of the study consists of 105 tutors across the University's campuses.

C. Instruments and Data Collection Procedures

The present study is both qualitative and quantitative in nature. The statistical data obtained from entry-level placement scores are triangulated with quantitative and qualitative data obtained from English teaching staff at AOU.

The FLS is entrusted with entry level assessment exams for all potential candidates wishing to join any of the British validated programmes offered by the Faculty of Computer Studies (FCS), the Faculty of Business Studies (FBS), and the Faculty of Language Studies (FLS) as part of a joint award with the Open University in the United Kingdom (OU-UK). Every semester, students take the Oxford Online Placement Test (OOPT) to determine their English competency level, and they are placed accordingly based on their entrance exam scores. They are allocated in the compatible level of English ranging from intensive communication skills courses EL097, EL098, EL099 to the intermediate EL111 and the more advanced EL112 communication skills courses. The OOPT exam is intended to provide an accurate measurement of a candidate's English language ability on the Common European Framework of Reference for Languages (CEFR) scale (2022).

The OOPT consists of two sections: Language Use and Listening. The 'Use of English section,' assesses students' competence through standard grammar, lexis and listening questions. The test focuses on meaning beyond the sentence, including implied meaning. The structure and focus are produced in Table 1 below:

TABLE 1
OOPT TEST STRUCTURE, SECTIONS & FOCUS

Section	Part	Test Focus
Use of English	1	Grammatical form and meaning
	2	Implied meaning
	3	Reading
Listening	1	Five short dialogues
	2	Five longer dialogues
	3	Five short monologues

Students' allocated grades are available immediately and are reported as CEFR band (Pre-A1 to C2) as well as in a standardized score format (0-120) on the OOPT scale. OOPT scores and their mapping into CEFR levels and scores are produced in Table 2 below.

TABLE 2
OOPT SCORES MAPPED AGAINST CEFR LEVELS

OOPT Score	CEFR Level
0	Less than A1
1-20	A1
20-40	A2
40-60	B1
60-80	B2
80-100	C1
100-120	C2

The CEFR levels delineate three primary categorizations of English proficiency. Progression through the level descriptors evolves from assessing candidates' capacity to comprehend familiar texts, to identifying main ideas alongside supporting details, and utilizing everyday expressions at a basic proficiency level. At the independent user level, candidates are expected to deal with texts that they are likely to encounter in higher education and demonstrate ability to understand words and discourse indications of different genres. At the more proficient level, candidates are expected to identify and track academic arguments, understand the information presented numerically and visually, engage in spontaneous interactions, extrapolate and draw inferences and conclusions.

At AOU, the OOPT attained scores correspond to exemption criteria that parallel a progressive set of offered communication skills courses. The exemption criteria are shown in Table 3 below.

TABLE 3
OOPT ATTAINED SCORES AND PARALLEL EXEMPTION CRITERIA AT THE AOU ENGLISH LANGUAGE UNIT

OOPT Score	Exemption Criteria
0-20	EL097
21-40	EL098
41-58	EL099
59-79	EL111
80-120	EL112

IV. RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

In Fall 2022-2023, 15,840 new applicants sat for the OOPT entrance exam across the eight (8) branches of Saudi Arabia, Egypt, Kuwait, Lebanon, Bahrain, Jordan, Oman and Sudan. Figure 1 below provides admission proportions.

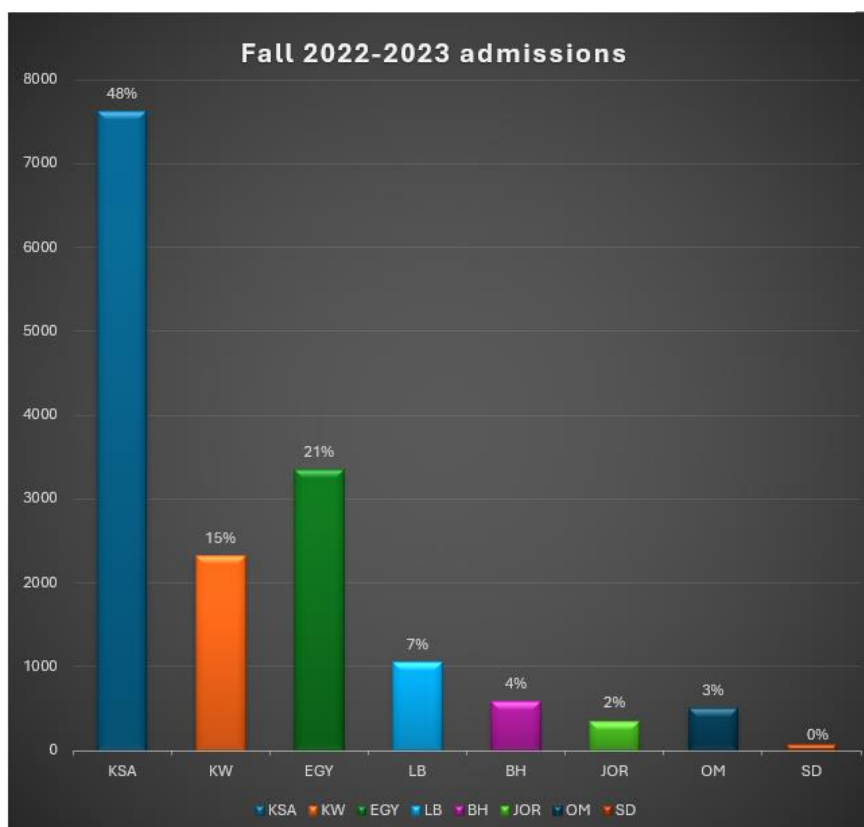


Figure 1. Fall 2022-2023 Admission Proportions Across AOU 8 Branches

New entrants based on campus were distributed as follows: from KSA 7619, from Egypt 3342, from Kuwait 2315, from Lebanon 1055, Bahrain 580, Oman 502, Jordan 352 and Sudan 75. The incoming students joined AOU in Fall 2022-2023. Figure 2 below shows the study sample distributed across the aspired fields of specialization:

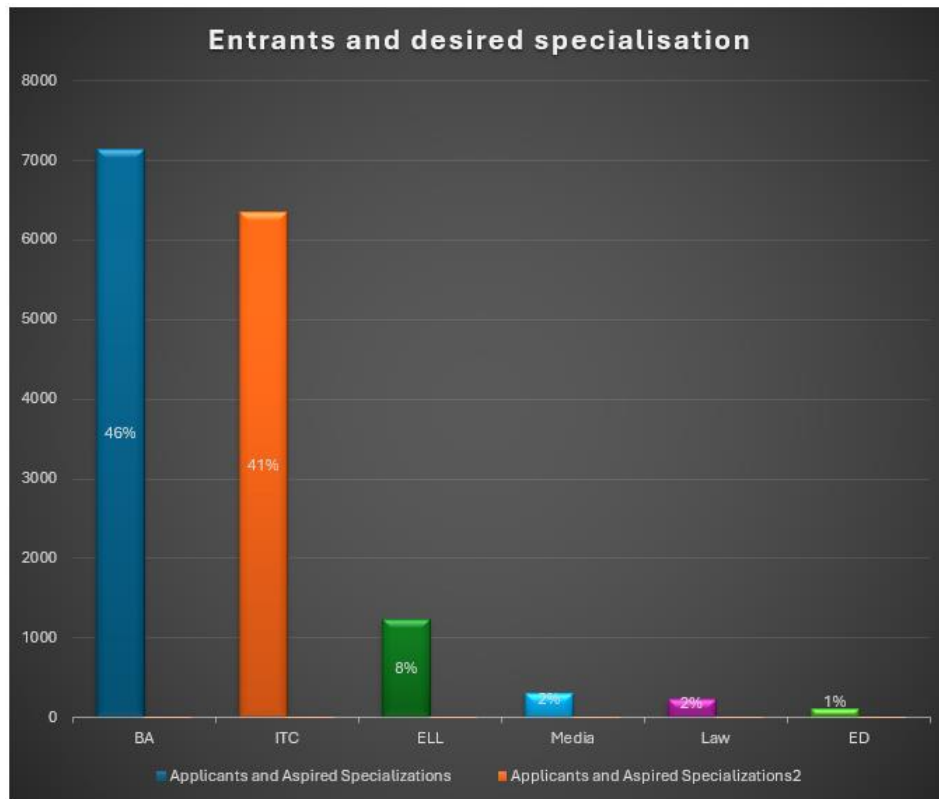


Figure 2. Entrants and Desired Specializations

Out of the total 15840, 4542 were not placed at any of the communication skills courses because they were either exempted based on the score they attained, or their destination was non-degree or non-MEI majors, both of which do not require English as one of the admission requirements. These 4542 students will not be targeted in our study since the focus is to assess incoming students' readiness to cope with the demands of English in higher education, understand students' academic English needs, assess the type and value of support they receive and relate these to the theoretical constructs of teaching and learning English. Our focus will, therefore, be on the 11298 students who were placed according to their placement scores in communication skills courses based on the OOPT score presented in Figure 3 below.



Figure 3. Distribution of Incoming Students Across Communication Skills Courses

The placement scores of the 11298-study sample provided information on their levels of academic literacy in English and implications on how they will cope with English at a university that uses it as the medium of instruction. Figure 4

provides the entry levels attained by the study sample through OOPT entry exams.

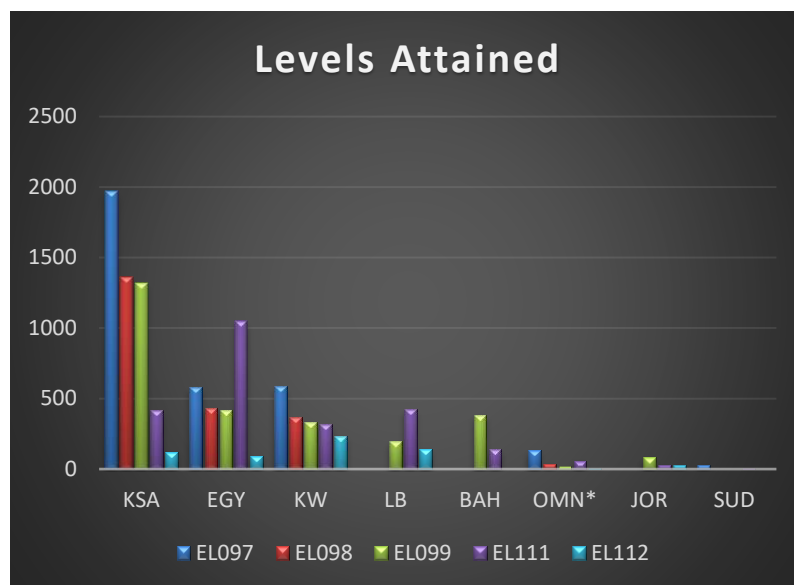


Figure 4. Study Sample Entry-Level Attainment

* Oman adopts alternative codes for EL097 (EF001), EL098 (EF002) & EL099 (EF003)

Figure 4 above confirmed that the majority of incoming students scored within EL097 tier, which is quite surprising given the fact that students in most Arab countries, including the ones that host AOU, teach English from grade one. These intriguing results mean that the quality of learning and teaching English at the school level is not up to the standard required to gain access to higher education, despite the long years of exposure. This conforms to the propositions that schools exit levels in English proficiency do not match university entry level requirements (Coleman et al., 2018; Yung & Fong, 2019; Trenkic & Warmington, 2019).

The 105 English tutors teaching different entry-level communication skills English courses, EL097, EL098, EL099, EL111 and EL112, provided their views on the results of the OOPT and the challenges that entry-level students face upon enrolment in an English medium of Instruction University in the non-native context. Their feedback also included assessment on the skill that needed most support in each level and the type of teaching and learning support that were applied throughout their tutorials. Figure 5 below displays tutors' perceptions on the skill that required the most support in their classes. The figure combines tutors' perception from all communication skills courses.

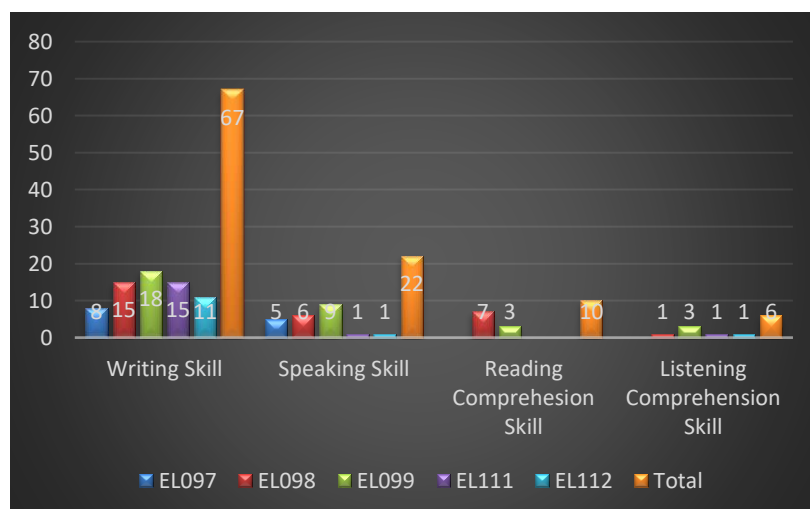


Figure 5. Tutors' Perceptions on Skills Requiring Support

Among the 105 respondents surveyed, 67 (64%) identified writing skills as the area requiring the most support; followed by the speaking skills perceived by 22 respondents as the most skill requiring support (21%). Reading comprehension is ranked third, with 10 respondents regarding it as the skill requiring most support from entry level to exit in communication skills courses (9.5%). Finally, listening comprehension was perceived as requiring the most support by 6 respondents (5.5%). Figure (6) below displays tutors' perceptions vis-à-vis the skills requiring support.

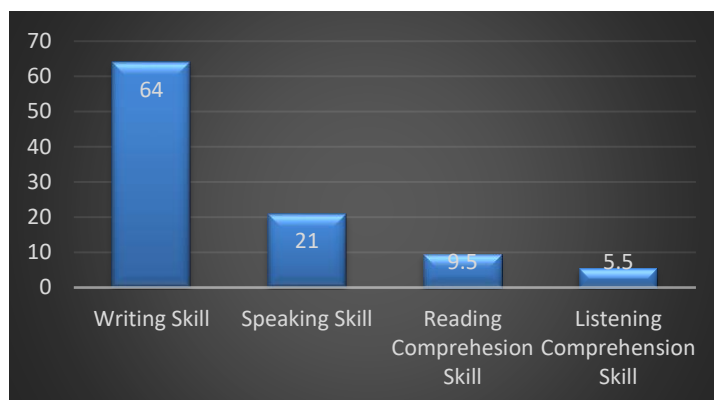


Figure 6. Tutors' Perceptions vis-à-vis the Skills Requiring Support

It follows from Figure 6 above that the receptive skills were deemed as the least requiring support while the productive ones were perceived as the most skills requiring support by the English communication skills tutors. The globalisation of English and its availability in media forums may have contributed to this outcome. Students may have encountered texts and audio-visual products in English and have been able to comprehend the content at an easier rate than the ability to produce it. When it comes to productive skills, active application, and proficiency in generating coherent language output is highly required. This disparity underscores the nuanced nature of language acquisition, where receptive skills benefit from extensive exposure and passive engagement, productive skills require deliberate practice and application to achieve proficiency.

In what follows, the researchers will discuss the views expressed by the sample tutors teaching in the English foundation programme who were invited to reflect on the salient difficulties encountered by the learners in the receptive and productive skills in the five levels targeted in the study, i.e., EL097, EL098, EL099, EL111 and EL112.

A. The Writing Skill Requiring the Most Support

When requested to elaborate on why they think that writing is the skill that requires most support, tutors of the five levels gave different explanations capitalizing on their teaching of these levels and their observations of the constant difficulties that students encounter. Although certain problems tend to surface and persist in the five levels, some difficulties tend to be characteristic of one level more than the other ones. For instance, while the students in EL097, the lowest entry level, are observed, according to their tutors' reports, to exhibit weak grammar background, lack of paragraph writing basics, inability to differentiate phonologically between similar graphemes, as in b & d, spelling mistakes, incorrect sentence structure, and wrong sentence connection, the students in EL098 exhibit some of these problems and a few others that characterize this level of learning. Problems observed at this level include limited lexis, misspellings, inadequacy in grammar, flaws in composing topic sentences and supporting sentences, poor connections and organization.

Tutors of EL099, the third lowest entry level, mentioned several problems that they observe in their classes, including poor grammar, insufficient content lexis, subject-verb agreement problems, as well as problems in mechanics and meaningful sentences.

Tutors of EL111, the first credited entry level, reported many problems encountered by students at this level, some of which resemble the ones observed but at a different level of difficulty. For instance, while the difficulty in EL097 is on formulating a grammatically correct sentence, at this level, this grammatical difficulty is on felicitously connecting short sentences to make well-connected, more effective extended ones. Thus, difficulties reported here comprise students' inability to compose a fairly well-written paragraph, structural inadequacy, vocabulary shortage, and mixing speaking and writing norms. As is the case with tutors in all levels, tutors here allude to non-linguistic reasons that tend to be partially conducive to these difficulties including insufficient writing practice, online exams, insufficient time for learning and practicing in class and huge class numbers, among other factors.

The points raised by EL112 tutors, the second credited entry level, are not very different from the ones pointed out by tutors of EL111. The tutors here stressed that students at this level mix speaking and reading norms with writing ones, which obviously result in inadequate use. They also indicate that even at this level students commit spelling mistakes, exhibit punctuation problems, use limited short sentences, find it difficult to develop sentences into error free paragraphs and essays, etc. Again, they think that insufficient writing practice in class and outside class is a cogently strong reason. This aligns with the findings of the study conducted in Japan which explores the correlation between Japanese undergraduate students' English language proficiency and the challenges they encounter while studying an international business course taught in English (Aizawa et al., 2023). The research revealed that students encountered significant difficulties with academic writing due to limited proficiency and insufficient practice. These difficulties were further compounded by a lack of exposure to complex writing tasks and inadequate feedback mechanisms.

The following chart recapitulates the prominent points pertinent to students' writing difficulties as reported by the tutors of the five levels.

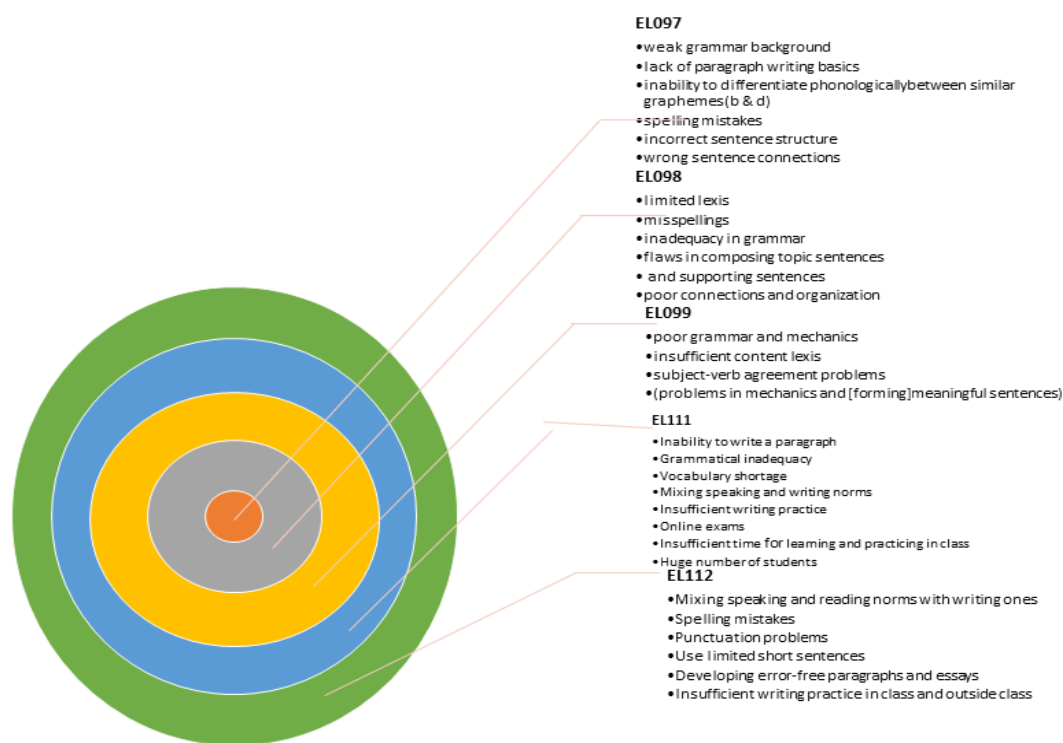


Figure 7. Students' Writing Difficulties

The chart emphasizes that difficulties observed at lower levels often reoccur at higher levels in more complex forms, mirroring the educational demands characteristic of these instructional levels. In addition, the chart supports the researchers' stance to adopt a multilayered approach of instruction wherein the input at one level glides into and impacts the instruction of the subsequent levels.

B. The Speaking Skill Requiring the Most Support

Interestingly, tutors who perceived the speaking skill as the second skill meriting most support were limited to the first three lower entry level of intensive courses. Tutors teaching the credited regular entry level courses (EL111 and EL112) did not mark the speaking skill as needing support. In examining the linguistic and non-linguistic reasons put forward by the tutors of the three elementary levels, i.e., EL097, EL098 and EL099, one observes that the same problems persist at these levels in different calibers (see Appendices 3-A-C). In scrutinizing their responses that motivate their stance that the speaking skill requires most support, tutors of EL097 gave many reasons including lack of vocabulary, pronunciation problems and insufficient knowledge of grammar rules relevant to this level of learning. They also mentioned certain non-linguistic reasons such as lack of practice and lack of relevant resources. These issues closely resemble those identified by tutors of EL098 who observed that the linguistic difficulties that students encounter in speaking relate to mispronunciation, inability to pronounce new words, weakness in the basics that help initiate or contribute to a conversation and lack of previous practice. The views of the tutors of EL099 exhibited notable similarities to those expressed by EL097 and EL098 tutors. Here tutors highlighted linguistic challenges encountered by students in speaking, including difficulties in selecting appropriate vocabulary and lacking confidence in pronunciation, occasionally resulting in the use of Arabic during English conversations. The tutors' feedback and comments on the students' speaking skills resonate with the findings of the paper "Challenges of English-Medium Higher Education: The First-Year Experience in Hong Kong Revisited a Decade Later" (Shepard & Morrison, 2021) which highlights how EMI environments in Hong Kong universities can hinder students' speaking abilities due to the students' limited exposure to spoken English, their fear of making mistakes. Similar to the current research, the study conducted in Hong Kong implies that universities need to find ways to encourage participation and create opportunities for spoken English practice in EMI classrooms.

C. Reading Comprehension as the Skill Requiring the Most Support

Again, an interesting observation emerges when looking at the data from English communication skills courses; tutors who identified the reading comprehension skill as the one requiring most support are the tutors teaching the two intensive courses EL098 and EL099. Contact with EL097 tutors revealed that they were more concerned with building blocks of lexis and grammar before moving on to consider reading comprehension. When asked to elaborate on why they think the reading comprehension skill is the skill that requires most support, tutors of EL098, mentioned many points including students' inability to understand relations between parts of the text, inability to separate essential from non-essential

information, lack of comprehension, etc. As for tutors of EL099, they attributed students' weak reading skills to inability to understand opaque metaphorical expressions, inability to understand the communicative function of the sentences and inability to extrapolate, apply or infer meaning.

The challenges identified by EL098 and EL099 tutors in reading comprehension go in line with a study conducted in Vietnam in which the authors reported that there are factors affecting students' reading comprehension in EMI classrooms which include limited vocabulary, difficulties in understanding complex academic texts with intricate sentence structures and technical vocabulary, and the fast-paced nature of lectures and reading material (Tran et al., 2020). Overall, the research findings are similar to the observations made by EL098 and EL099 tutors.

D. Listening Comprehension as the Skill Requiring the Most Support

In the current study, listening comprehension emerged last as the area requiring the most support, as noted by tutors across EL097, EL098, EL099, EL111, and EL112. EL097 tutors indicated prioritizing other language skills essential for course success. At the second lowest level of EL098, tutors observed that students face linguistic challenges in listening comprehension, including difficulties coping with natural conversational speed, insufficient vocabulary, and issues with comprehending and retaining information. In EL099, tutors identified students' struggles with understanding unfamiliar accents and the inability to correlate spoken words with their existing knowledge. Tutors from both levels recommended that students need to enhance their listening skills by engaging with authentic English conversations through mediums such as radio and television.

In addition, EL111 tutors added a couple of significant challenges, namely the students' struggles to adjust their auditory perception to authentic English language conversations and their difficulty in comprehending various English accents that they had not encountered previously. Consequently, tutors here recommend that students need more practice in listening to native English conversations. The points mentioned by tutors of EL112 are not very different from the ones expressed by the tutors of the previous accredited level. For instance, pronunciation persists as a notable difficulty at this level. Other difficulties observed in students' performance include the inability to realize the appropriate structure, missing the semantic relations of meaning, inaccurate guesses and incorrect interpretations. Similar to their counterparts in EL111, EL112 tutors recommend that students need more practice in listening to different accents of English.

V. CONCLUSION

The study has set out to chart the progress of a large sample of EFL entrants as they moved from high school into a higher education institution using English as the medium of instruction. In this pursuit, the researchers have attempted to interrogate the effectiveness of theories in assessing the challenged and projecting potential solutions.

A. Findings

In response to the first research question on the needs of EFL new entrants in a higher education institution using English as the medium of instruction, and whether they change with different EFL proficiency levels, the study findings confirm that there are different needs of EFL new entrants in a higher education institution using English as the medium of instruction and these change with different EFL proficiency levels.

In an effort to yet venture into proposing a multilayer EFL deep-learning framework, the researchers construe the feedback received into its equivalent theoretical correlation. Deep learning in our EFL frame is analogous to the one proposed in Artificial Intelligence. The reference is to multilayer in a network where each layer transforms its learnt data into implementations that transcend the conceptual sphere associated with that particular level into representation in the next layer. The same pattern recurs with a slightly more abstract and composite representation at each level.

In addressing the third research question regarding which theories can anticipate potential challenges and evaluate solutions throughout the extended journey of learning English as a Foreign Language (EFL) in higher education institutions where English serves as the medium of instruction, the researchers propose a multi-tiered EFL deep learning framework. This framework integrates teaching methods at each level, specifically tailored from the existing EFL theories and approaches to suit the students' needs and the teaching learning context. Therefore, although each level could induce tutors to adopt a certain approach, it cannot be claimed that one single approach could be viably utilized at one level exempting entirely all others. So, while the behaviorist-oriented approaches could have a place in the beginning levels, these levels need activities that are cognitively based and communicatively oriented. The difference will be on the degree of emphasis or dose deemed feasible in each level. Thus, the researchers recommend integrating activities and procedures from various existing theories, approaches, and methods of EFL teaching to address the five levels i.e., cognitive, innatist, behaviorist and interactionist. The selected and or tailored activities and procedures need to fit the teaching context and the students' needs. Teaching context here refers to the teaching duration, type of students, cultural backgrounds, social restrictions, availability of teaching tools including smart tools in addition to prominent language problems students exhibit, etc. Our approach is eclectic, as we customize it for each level based on students' linguistic and extralinguistic needs, as well as the teaching environment. Throughout, our focus remains on communicative instruction. With this pedagogical perspective in mind, our eclectically-based approach is cognitively and intentionally tailored and implemented in a multilayered mode. In other words, we thoughtfully incorporate a spectrum of pedagogical EFL theories and methods into our purpose-made approach, ensuring that instruction at one level informs subsequent levels. The

following tenets delineate the implementation of this approach:

At the initial levels (EL097, EL098, and EL099), teaching activities must be purposeful, and information should be clear, comprehensible, and relevant. In other words, students at these levels need to bridge their existing knowledge with new concepts (Ausubel, 2000). According to Ausubel's Subsumption Theory, for learning to occur, learners should connect newly acquired pieces of information to existing ones that they have already acquired, i.e., connecting new to old information. This is important at this level because we cannot claim that we can follow the communicative approach entirely in teaching these elementary levels since the students' foreign language background may not always accommodate what is newly taught, i.e., the fertile environment that hooks newly introduced language items to already existing ones may not always be there.

The tutors' input pinpointed the difficulties that surface at each level and, therefore, in teaching, these difficulties should be addressed through tailoring appropriate teaching procedures wisely customized from various methods and theories, as outlined above.

Certain similarities and differences between the two languages can be addressed, particularly those that tackle recurring problems which means that we adopt activities that are advocated by the innatist approach, particularly at the pre-advanced levels as in EL097-EL099.

The initial levels should feature varying types of drills which enable students to practice language structures that constitute persisting difficulties, pronunciation difficulties, etc. In other words, we adopt and develop activities that reflect and benefit from the behaviorists' assumptions. Such drills are essential at all levels, emphasizing the development of the four language skills to support the learners and broaden their knowledge base. For instance, at the initial levels, drills primarily emphasize formulating grammatically correct sentences and focus on pronunciation. At the advanced levels, however, students engage in exercises that involve extensive writing, particularly in the areas of paragraph and essay composition. Definitely, such drills will mean exposing students to different types of paragraphs and essays that function as models for them to read and analyze prior to embarking on the writing process, i.e., read then write.

The advanced levels engage in communicative learning and teaching atmosphere capitalizing on what they have learnt. Here their background makes it possible for natural communication and natural use of the language in the receptive and productive skills. In other words, here we expect that students have reached a level at which they can use language to communicate their views in a grammatically correct and culturally appropriate manner.

The curriculum must align with the principles and criteria outlined earlier. Based on our examination of the existing curriculum that is in use at AOU, we have proposed specific modifications related to the presentation of language content across the five different levels. These proposed views were discussed earlier in section 9. Academicians at the publishing house providing the textbooks to the AOU students were given a copy of the suggestions delineated in section 9 and were also invited to peer visits to some teaching classes with the researchers. Researchers and Textbook writers listened to the views of the tutors in the four skills and have agreed to modify the textbooks based on the views voiced by the tutors and the suggestions and recommendations made by the authors of this project.

B. Implications and Recommendations

The present study has significant implications. During the period of this research project, the research team engaged in fruitful discussions with the authors of the new C21 to integrate the quantitative and qualitative findings of the research into the new curricula. The goals were to enrich the C21 curriculum ensuring that it fills the gaps identified through the research's findings, and to address the linguistic and extralinguistic issues encountered by the students who were using the old curriculum.

The new C21 curriculum which is modelled against the Common European Foreign Language Framework (CEFR) was crosschecked against these needs and many modifications were suggested and implemented. The curriculum combines language skills with 21st Century skills such as communication, creativity, critical thinking, and study skills. At the beginning levels, which correspond to (A1+, A2 and B1) CEFR, there is a greater emphasis on providing relevant lexis and grammar in the context of contemporary university life. These include personal life, family and friends, and job and career decisions. Recycling the necessary vocabulary is further achieved by using built-in quizlet digital flashcards and games through QR codes for each unit of the textbooks. At the last two levels which correspond to (B1+ and B2), more focus is given to reading and writing. Overall, many units have writing models (paragraphs or essays) that serve as a reference for the intended rhetorical patterns for each level. What follows are the issues addressed at each level as cross-checked against C21.

At level 1, represented by (A1+) which targets the needs of the EL097 students, more vocabulary items related to learners' contextual and cultural norms and expectations were proposed, along with adjustments to grammar and lexis to support both new and existing knowledge of the learners. The propositions are intended to make learning meaningful to the learners. As reflected in the research findings, at the lowest entry level, EL097, the difficulties encountered in writing relate to how information is received and processed. Gaps in knowledge have to be addressed and hence tutors engaged in making knowledge meaningful in order to help the learners organize and relate new information to existing information/knowledge. Other findings include categories of deficient syntax, poor lexis, poor phoneme to grapheme correspondence marked the needs of EFL learners. In speaking, lack of vocabulary, insufficient knowledge of grammar rules, absence of correct pronunciation marked the performance of the same group.

At level 2, represented in the C21 curriculum construction by (A2) which targets the needs of our EL098 students, the

research team proposed more focus on providing models in the foreign language that can guide learners into sentence construction and organization, including mechanics. For this purpose, descriptive paragraphs with varied themes are targeted. As for reading comprehension, coherence between sentences is underlined to help learners relate ideas and understand how these are manifested in sentence construction. Learners' misspelling problems at this level were tackled through appropriate spelling activities. In addition, the textbooks were suggested to give overt emphasis to students' recurrent flawed sentence structures, inaccurate constructions and weak organizational patterns that are attributed to L1 negative transfer and to provide students with ample activities that help them overcome these problems. In speaking, listening, and reading, appropriate drills are suggested to be presented to deal with problems surfacing at this level.

At level 3, represented in the C21 curriculum construction by (B1) which targets the needs of the EL099 students, the researchers proposed drills and exercises on correct grammar in writing applications, particularly subject and verb agreement, morphological rules, structure and construction of words. In addition, selecting appropriate lexis to discuss assigned themes revealed the need for more drills. At the third lowest entry level, EL099, concerns on drills and practicing were reflected in tutors' replies. In writing, subject and verb agreement, errors and mixing content lexis underlined the need for more practice rather than deficiency in knowledge. In speaking, learners were considered as not confident about their pronunciation and hence in need of more practice. All these speaking and writing concerns were brought to the attention of the textbook writers. In reading comprehension for the same group, inability to extrapolate, apply or infer meaning are suggested to be remedied by appropriate drills in the new curriculum. In listening comprehension, the difficulties related to problems with unfamiliar accents were to be tackled by presenting listening activities that involve different accents, i.e., American and British English as well as other major accents, where possible.

At level 4, represented in the C21 curriculum construction by (B1+) which targets the needs of the EL111 students, the researchers proposed integrating grammar skill; sentence types, parts of speech, in writing and speaking modules that represent real communicative events, suitable for the learners' contexts and needs and provide adequate supplementary lexis that can aid performance. In addition, the importance of coherence and cohesion in linking the spoken and written text needs to be underlined and supported through the use of appropriate mechanics. At the credited levels of EL111 and EL112, EFL learners encountered challenges primarily linked to interactionist theories, which emphasize that learners' ability to communicate effectively in English is influenced by their opportunities to interact with others. Although learners possess a foundational proficiency across all the four language skills, they still faced difficulties in the interactive language use in real-life contexts. At level 5, represented in the C21 curriculum construction by (B2) which targets the needs of the EL112 students, the researchers proposed diversifying exercises to ensure fluency and ability to communicate across a range of topics, using different styles ranging from argumentative to persuasive and applying appropriate vocabulary and correct grammar.

Based on our proposed model, no single approach, no matter what merits this approach possesses, can be solely followed if teaching a foreign language is to be a success. We, alternatively, have advocated the use of an eclectically-built approach that encompasses activities, techniques and teaching procedures from all major existing EFL theories and teaching methods that take students' background as well as the other sociocultural and infrastructural considerations into account. The pedagogic approach advocated here is explicit, comprehensible and relevant and thus more useful for learners at this level as it directly addresses their knowledge gaps. For second lower or middle intensive levels, the suggested eclectically-built approach makes use of, among other teaching procedures, the contrastive approach that draws on the similarities or differences with the first language to support learning English as a foreign language learning. At the third lowest or upper intensive level, the behaviourist perspective can be part of the built approach since learners need drills and practices to expand their knowledge basis in all four skills. At the fourth level beyond the intensive tiers, interactionist theories and perspectives, including communicative approaches, should constitute a sizable component of the eclectically developed approach, which yields favorable outcomes, once learners master the basics.

In conclusion, there is no single approach that can fit all learning stages. An eclectic-oriented model is what is needed; a model that is flexible in targeting the learners and their needs and not imposing an obsolete single model that can inhibit learning and is incapable of yielding the desired results.

The findings are hoped to enhance student channeling to appropriate academic paths and propose the required teaching approach that can support their academic development, and hence support retention rates. Our findings will serve the development of a context for reviewing and expanding academic and research synergies and can provide a useable body of knowledge to strengthen informed teaching and learning strategies in an EFL context and can guide subsequent planning for EFL courses within an EMI institution.

REFERENCES

- [1] Aizawa, I, Rose, H., Thompson, G., & Curle, S. (2023). Beyond the threshold: Exploring English language proficiency, linguistic challenges, and academic language skills of Japanese students in an English medium instruction programme. *Language Teaching Research*, 27(4), 837-861. <https://journals.sagepub.com/doi/10.1177/1362168820965510>
- [2] Al-Hosni, S. (2014). Speaking difficulties encountered by young EFL learners. *International Journal on Studies in English Language and Literature (IJSELL)*, 2(6), 22-30.
- [3] Ausubel, D. P. (2000). *The Acquisition and Retention of Knowledge: A Cognitive View*. Springer.
- [4] Bailey, R. (2018). Student writing and academic literacy development at university. *Journal of Learning and Student Experience*, 1, article 7. Retrieved June 19, 2024, from <https://www.researchgate.net/publication/332151711>

- [5] Cheng, A. (2008). Analysing genre exemplars in preparation for writing: The case of an L2 graduate student in the ESP genre-based instructional framework of academic literacy. *Applied Linguistics*, 29(1), 50-71. <https://doi.org/10.1093/applin/amm021>
- [6] Coleman, J., Hultgren, K., Li, W., Tsui, C. C. F. & Shaw, P. (2018). Forum on English medium instruction. *TESOL Quarterly*, 52(3), 701-720. <https://doi.org/10.1002/tesq.469>
- [7] *Common European Framework Reference Languages Level descriptions*. (2022). Retrieved March 4, 2024, from <https://www.coe.int/en/web/common-european-framework-reference-languages/level-descriptions>
- [8] Coneyworth, L., Jessop, R., Maden, P. & White, G. (2020). The overlooked cohort? – Improving the taught postgraduate student experience in higher education. *Innovations in Education and Teaching International*, 57(3), 262-273. <https://doi.org/10.1080/14703297.2019.1617184>
- [9] Dearden, J. (2014). *English as a medium of instruction – a growing global phenomenon*. British Council. Retrieved November 20, 2024, from https://www.britishcouncil.es/sites/default/files/british_council_english_as_a_medium_of_instruction.pdf
- [10] Ellis, R. (2016). *Language teaching research and language pedagogy*. Wiley-Blackwell.
- [11] Gass, S. M., & Mackey, A. (2012). *The Routledge handbook of second language acquisition*. Routledge.
- [12] IELTS. (2018). *Setting IELTS entry scores*. Retrieved July 13, 2020, from <https://www.ielts.org/ieltsfor-organisations/setting-ielts-entry-scores>.
- [13] Jafari, N. & Ansari, D. (2012). The Effect of Collaboration on Iranian EFL Learners' Writing Accuracy. *International Education Studies*, 5(2), 124-131.
- [14] Kong, M. & Wei, M. (2019). EFL Learners' Attitudes toward English-medium Instruction in China: The influence of sociobiographical variables. *Linguistics and Education*, 52, 44-51. Retrieved February 21, 2024, from <https://www.sciencedirect.com/science/article/abs/pii/S0898589818303991?via%3Dihub>
- [15] Krashen, S. (1985). *The input hypothesis: Issues and implications*. Longman.
- [16] Lasagabaster, D. (2018). Fostering team teaching: Mapping out a research agenda for English-medium instruction at university level. *Language Teaching*, 51(3), 400-416. Cambridge University Press. <https://doi.org/10.1017/S0261444818000113>
- [17] López-Gopar, M. E. et al. (2021). Co-constructing Social Justice: Language Educators Challenging Colonial Practices in Mexico. *Applied Linguistics*, 1-14.
- [18] Macaro, E., Curle, S., Pun, J., An, J. & Dearden, J. (2018). A systematic review of English medium instruction in higher education. *Language Teaching*, 51(1), 36-76. <https://doi.org/10.1017/S0261444817000350>
- [19] Mačiulskienė, J. C. & Zutkienė, L. D. (2024). Is the English proficiency level always reflected in placement tests? *International Linguistics Research*, 7(20), <https://doi.org/10.30560/ilr.v7n1p1>
- [20] McGrath, L., Negretti, R. & Nicholls, K. (2019). Hidden expectations: Scaffolding subject specialists' genre knowledge of the assignments they set. *Higher Education*, 78, 835-853. <https://doi.org/10.1007/s10734-019-00373-9>
- [21] McKinley, J., Rose, H., & Zhou, S. (2021). Transnational Universities and English Medium Instruction in China: How Admissions, *Language Support and Language Use Differ in Chinese Universities*. *RELC Journal*, 52(2), 236-252. <https://doi.org/10.1177/00336882211020032>
- [22] Mezek, S., McGrath, L., Negretti, R. & Berggren, J. (2021). Scaffolding L2 academic reading and self-regulation through task and feedback. *TESOL Quarterly*, <https://doi.org/10.1002/tesq.3018>
- [23] Moll, L. C. (1990). Vygotsky's Zone of Proximal Development: Rethinking its Instructional Implications. *Infancia y Aprendizaje*, 51-52, 157-168.
- [24] Mouhanna, M. (2016). *English as a medium of instruction in the tertiary education setting of the UAE: The perspectives of content teachers*. Doctoral Thesis. University of Exeter. Retrieved November 20, 2024, from <https://core.ac.uk/download/pdf/77032172.pdf>
- [25] Pecorari, D. (2020). English Medium Instruction: Disintegrating Language and Content? In: Dimova, S., Kling, J. (Eds.), *Integrating Content and Language in Multilingual Universities*. *Educational Linguistics*, (Vol. 44). Springer, Cham. https://doi.org/10.1007/978-3-030-46947-4_2
- [26] Rabab'ah, G. (2005). Communication problems facing Arab learners of English. *Journal of Language and Learning*, 3(1), 179-197.
- [27] Robinson, P. Ed. (2011). *Second language task complexity: Researching the cognition hypothesis of language learning and performance*. John Benjamins Publishing Company.
- [28] Shepard, C & Morrison, B. (2021). Challenges of English-medium higher education: The first-year experience in Hong Kong revisited a decade later. *Language use in English-medium instruction at university*. Routledge.
- [29] Swain, M. (1985). Communicative competence: Some roles of comprehensible input and comprehensible output in its development. In S. Gass & C. Madden (Eds.), *Input in second language acquisition*. Rowley, MA.: Newbury House.
- [30] Trenkic, D. & Warmington, M. (2019). Language and literacy skills of home and international university students: How different are they, and does it matter? *Bilingualism: Language and Cognition*, 22(2), 349-365. <https://doi.org/10.1017/S136672891700075X>
- [31] Tran, T., Tran, T., & Bien, T. (2020). An exploration of the factors hindering students' lesson comprehension in EMI classes. *International Journal of Language and Literary Studies*, 2(3), 29-42. DOI: 10.36892/ijlls.v2i3.317
- [32] Wingate, U. (2015). *Academic Literacy and Student Diversity: The Case for Inclusive Practice*. Bristol, Blue Ridge Summit: Multilingual Matters. <https://doi.org/10.21832/9781783093496>
- [33] Wingate U. Academic literacy across the curriculum: Towards a collaborative instructional approach. *Language Teaching*. 2018;51(3):349-364. doi:10.1017/S0261444816000264
- [34] Yung, K. W. H. & Fong, N. (2019). Learning EAP at university: Perceptions of high achieving first-year ESL undergraduates. *ELT Journal*, 73(3), 306-315. <https://doi.org/10.1093/elt/ccz019>

Aziz Thabit Saeed is Professor of Linguistics and Dean of the Faculty of Language Studies, Arab Open University, HQ, Kuwait. Prof. Saeed earned his PhD from Ball State University, Indiana, USA in 1997. He has published more than 40 papers and articles in the fields of Linguistics, Applied Linguistics, Second Language Acquisition and Translation. He has also published 8 books and many book chapters; made more than thirty conference presentations in over twenty different countries; chaired and coordinated five international conferences; served as Dean and Department Head; reviewed papers for many international journals (editor in three). Prof. Saeed has received many international grants and awards, including the Fulbright Alumni Grant (5 times), DAAD Grant Award (Germany), Voss Award, and Ball State University Internal Grant (USA). His research interests include Applied Linguistics, Discourse Analysis, Second Language Acquisition, Translation, and pragmatics.

Hayat Al-Khatib is Professor of Applied Linguistics at the Arab Open University Lebanon. She received the degree of PhD from the University of London in 2002. Prof. Al-Khatib is member of the British Association of Applied Linguists (BAAL), Research Support Group at the University of London, German Academic Exchange Service (DAAD) and the Association of Professors of English and Translation at Arab Universities (APETAU). Prof. Al-Khatib is active in regional and international conferences, with an interest in linguistics, sociolinguistics, language teaching and education. She was shortlisted for best paper award at the Cambridge Fourteenth International Conference, Cambridge University, 25-28 September 2011. Her professional background includes serving in many positions including the Academic Vice-Rector at the Arab Open University Lebanon 2004-2014, Head of the Research Committee 2004-2014, Head of the Promotion Committee 2004-2014, Chair of the English Department 2005 to date, teaching at the University of London 2000-2002 (Goldsmith College), teaching at the University of London (Institute of Education) 1999-2001, and External Examiner for PhD candidates at European and Lebanese universities 2008 to date.

Kaldun Mohamednur Said is a lecturer at the Arab Open University, Kuwait, and Chair of the English Language Units, AOU, HQ. Prior to joining the AOU, he taught for eight years at different educational stages, Kuwait University and other tertiary education institutes. He holds an MA in Translation and an MBA from Kuwait University, and he is a CELTA-certified teacher from Cambridge University. Some of his translated works have been published by the Kuwait Foundation for the Advancement of Sciences and they focus on disseminating popular science. His interests include TESOL, second language acquisition and translation. Email: ksaid@aou.edu.kw is a lecturer at the Arab Open University, Kuwait, and Chair of the English Language Units, AOU, HQ. Prior to joining the AOU, he taught for eight years at different educational stages, Kuwait University and other tertiary education institutes. His interests include TESOL, second language acquisition and translation.

Ghada Abdel Hafeez is the local dean of the Faculty of Language Studies (FLS) at Arab Open University-Bahrain, and a distinguished professor of English Literature. Professor Abdel Hafeez's scholarly contributions encompass a wide range of fields, including Egyptian women writers, post-colonial interpretations of contemporary literature, trauma, memory, home and exile, border crossings, rituals, the rewriting of myths, women's silence, and the metropolis. Her research interests extend beyond literary studies to include education, leadership, civic education, curriculum planning and assessment, and quality assurance in education. Her research papers have been featured in prestigious journals such as *Dotawa: A Journal of Nubian Studies*, *Alif: Journal of Comparative Poetics*, *The Jordan Journal of Modern Languages & Literatures (JJMLL)*, and *World Journal of English Language*. She is a Fulbright Visiting Scholar who conducted research at Northeastern Illinois University, Illinois, USA, in 2016. She is also a CELF Fellow (Civic Education & Leadership) from the Maxwell School of Citizenship and Public Affairs at Syracuse University, New York, USA (2013).

The Impact of ChatGPT on EFL Medical Track Students' Affective Filter

Aeshah M. Almineeai

Department of English Language and Literature, College of Arts and Letters, University of Bisha, Bisha, Saudi Arabia

Mohammed A. Alrashed

Department of English Language and Literature, College of Languages and Translation, Imam Mohammad Ibn Saud Islamic University (IMSIU), Riyadh, Saudi Arabia

Taha A. Hezam

Department of English Language and Literature, College of Arts and Letters, University of Bisha, Bisha, Saudi Arabia;
Department of English, Taiz University, Taiz, Yemen

Asma F. Alharthi

Department of English Language and Literature, College of Arts and Letters, University of Bisha, Bisha, Saudi Arabia

Salma F. Alharthi

Department of English Language and Literature, College of Arts and Letters, University of Bisha, Bisha, Saudi Arabia

Abstract—This study examines the impact of ChatGPT on reducing the affective filter and enhancing speaking proficiency among EFL medical track students. An experimental group of 18 students participated in speaking practice facilitated by artificial intelligence (AI) tools using ChatGPT. Specifically, the influence of ChatGPT was evaluated on motivation, self-esteem, and anxiety levels among English as a foreign language (EFL) learners. A mixed-methods approach was employed, combining quantitative and qualitative data collection through pre-posttests on speaking proficiency, as well as interviews. Results indicate a significant positive shift in students' anxiety levels post-intervention, along with improvements in speaking performance and reduced affective filter. ChatGPT's role in providing personalized feedback, simulated conversations, and a supportive learning environment is highlighted as an asset in language learning and emotional barrier mitigation. Further exploration into the long-term effects of AI technology in language learning is recommended to enhance teaching practices and create inclusive learning environments.

Index Terms—ChatGPT, speaking proficiency, affective filter

I. INTRODUCTION

Scholars have shown significant interest in the implementation of artificial intelligence (AI) tools in higher education, specifically in the context of EFL learning and teaching. According to Abdalgane and Othman (2023), the integration of AI technologies has great potential to improve EFL education by enabling pedagogical advancements through innovative frameworks. The use of Chat Generative Pre-Trained Transformer (ChatGPT) has become a significant trend in EFL instruction since 2022. Scholars like Hong (2023) and Hualpa (2023) have highlighted its transformative effect on traditional teaching methods.

Simultaneously, Krashen (2013) explains the affective filter hypothesis, which emphasizes the impact of students' emotional states on their ability to learn a language in EFL settings. It is suggested that emotions like anxiety, low self-esteem, and frustration can create obstacles that hinder the process of language acquisition, thus impeding the development of students' proficiency. Du (2009) provides a more detailed explanation of the connection between emotional factors and language input, emphasizing the crucial influence of motivation and comfort on facilitating successful language acquisition processes.

The study examines the impact of ChatGPT on students' motivation, self-esteem, and anxiety levels during EFL learning tasks by using AI-driven language practice to reduce the students' affective filter. Focus is on investigating the impact of ChatGPT on motivation levels, self-esteem, and anxiety reduction among EFL medical track students. It highlights the significance of AI technologies in promoting favorable learning experiences and outcomes.

II. LITERATURE REVIEW

This review examines the role of affective filter in the language classroom and the capacity of ChatGPT to reduce emotional barriers in EFL learning settings, with particular emphasis on motivation, self-esteem, and anxiety. Affective

filter, as proposed by Krashen (1982), refers to emotional conditions that can hinder the process of acquiring a language. By reducing this filter, learners become more open to receiving language input.

A. The Multifaceted Nature of Affective Filter in Language Learning

Affective filter, a theoretical construct impacting language learning, is influenced by a complex interplay of factors within the learning environment and individual learner characteristics.

(a). Classroom Dynamics

Traditional classroom settings present a complex interplay of factors influencing student learning. On one hand, larger class sizes and the potential for negative peer evaluation can create a breeding ground for anxiety. Biria et al. (2013) found a direct correlation between increased class size and heightened student anxiety, impacting academic performance. Similarly, Botes et al. (2020) explored the concept of EFL anxiety, highlighting how fear of peer judgment can hinder language acquisition in classroom settings. However, the impact of these anxieties can be significantly mitigated by a supportive teacher who fosters a safe learning environment. Research by Böttger and Költzsch (2020) suggests that a teacher's ability to create a positive classroom climate can significantly reduce the affective filter. This aligns with broader educational theories that emphasize the importance of social-emotional learning (SEL) in fostering a positive learning environment (CASEL, 2023). By promoting a sense of belonging, collaboration, and respect, teachers can create a classroom dynamic where students feel comfortable taking risks, asking questions, and participating actively, ultimately leading to improved learning outcomes.

(b). Individual Differences and Cultural Background

Beyond the learning environment, individual learner traits significantly influence the affective filter. Learners with higher general anxiety or shyness are more prone to a stronger affective filter (Mohebbi et al., 2016). Furthermore, self-perceived proficiency and perceived communicative competence play a crucial role (Tai, 2024). Understanding these individual differences allows educators to tailor instruction and support mechanisms. Language proficiency and self-efficacy, the belief in one's capabilities, are also intertwined with the affective filter. Learners with lower self-efficacy or who doubt their language skills tend to experience heightened anxiety (Mohammed, 2023). Thus, instructors should provide opportunities for students to gradually build proficiency and confidence through practice and positive feedback.

Cultural background is another important consideration. Learners from collectivist cultures, which prioritize group harmony, may experience a stronger affective filter compared to those from individualistic cultures, where assertiveness is more common (Wan, 2017). Additionally, learners from linguistic backgrounds with substantial differences from the target language, such as tonal languages learning English, may face increased anxiety due to pronunciation challenges (Arnold, 1999). Recognizing these cultural factors is essential for providing culturally sensitive support and interventions to address the affective filter (Wang, 2017).

By acknowledging these various factors and their influence on the affective filter, educators can develop more supportive learning environments that cater to individual needs and cultural backgrounds. This ultimately enhances the language learning experience for all students.

B. The Affective Filter and ChatGPT in Speaking Classrooms

Language learning success hinges not just on mastering language skills, but also on overcoming psychological barriers. Studies suggest ChatGPT can be a motivational tool, promoting task enjoyment, fostering interactive learning, and offering personalized feedback (Ali et al., 2023; Hmoud et al., 2023; Siregar et al., 2023). However, the impact on self-esteem is multifaceted. While prompt feedback and a sense of accomplishment can be beneficial (Parsakia, 2023), overreliance can hinder social communication skills (Parsakia, 2023). Similarly, the influence on anxiety remains unclear. Some studies report reduced anxiety through AI interaction (Pham, 2023), while others highlight the potential for negative experiences to exacerbate anxiety (Çakmak, 2022; El Shazly, 2021).

(a). Motivation and ChatGPT

Studies indicate a direct relationship between motivation and the achievement of language learning goals (Ai et al., 2021). Research conducted by Kim (2019) on communication with chatbots revealed a notable rise in motivation and interest in language. Nevertheless, this study utilized Replika, a chatbot that prioritizes personal interaction and emotional assistance, in contrast to ChatGPT's primary focus on generating language and providing feedback. According to Ali et al. (2023), students viewed ChatGPT as a motivating tool and recommended its inclusion in EFL programs. Siregar et al. (2023) provided additional support for this idea, demonstrating a notable and beneficial effect on student motivation following the utilization of ChatGPT. Hmoud et al. (2023) discovered five primary motivational factors that are affected by ChatGPT: task enjoyment, reported effort, result assessment, perceived relevance, and interaction. The results indicate that ChatGPT has the potential to improve student motivation by offering personalized feedback, facilitating interactive learning, and providing assessments.

(b). Self-Esteem and ChatGPT

Self-esteem is a crucial factor in achieving success in language learning, especially in speaking skills (Rubio, 2007). Phuangsuwan et al. (2023) established a correlation between academic performance and self-esteem, indicating that higher

performance is associated with enhanced self-perception. Parsakia (2023) emphasized the beneficial influence of chatbots on self-esteem by providing prompt feedback, tailored assistance, and a feeling of accomplishment. Nevertheless, the study also warned about excessive reliance, which could result in social communication difficulties. Zhuo et al. (2023) highlighted the dual nature of technology's impact, stating that positive user experiences with ChatGPT can enhance self-esteem, while negative experiences undermine it.

(c). Anxiety and ChatGPT

Anxiety is a major emotional barrier hampering language learning (Gómez et al., 2023). Studies investigating the impact of chatbots on anxiety reduction have produced inconclusive findings. El Shazly (2021) and Çakmak (2022) found that chatbot interaction did not lead to a significant reduction in speaking anxiety. They attributed this to challenges in comprehension and negative user attitudes. In contrast, Pham (2023) discovered that engaging with AI tools alleviated anxiety through the provision of information, generation of ideas, and delivery of clear explanations. Moreover, research conducted by Kim (2019), and Han (2020) utilizing diverse AI tools showed a reduction in anxiety and a boost in self-assurance during verbal communication.

This review has elucidated the intricate interplay of factors shaping the affective filter in language learning environments. Classroom dynamics, individual differences, and cultural backgrounds all contribute significantly to the modulation of learners' emotional states and, consequently, their language learning journey. Understanding and addressing these factors enables educators to create supportive and inclusive learning environments tailored to individual needs, ultimately enriching the language learning experience for all students. Moreover, within the context of speaking classrooms, ChatGPT emerges as a promising tool with the potential to enhance motivation through personalized feedback, task enjoyment, and interactive learning. While the impact on self-esteem appears positive in terms of feedback provision and task accomplishment, caution is advised against overreliance to prevent hindrances in social communication skills. Regarding anxiety, the literature presents mixed findings, suggesting the need for further exploration to delineate the nuanced effects of ChatGPT interaction on learners' anxiety levels and self-assurance in verbal communication contexts.

III. AIM AND OBJECTIVES OF THE STUDY

This study assesses the impact of ChatGPT on reducing the affective filter and enhancing speaking proficiency among EFL medical track students at the University of Bisha. Specifically, the study aims to identify the multifaceted influence of ChatGPT on a specific group of EFL learners (medical track students) by examining its impact on emotional factors (motivation, self-esteem, and anxiety) and speaking proficiency. Accordingly, the study objectives are as follows:

- 1- To assess the influence of ChatGPT on motivation levels of EFL medical track students during speaking tasks.
- 2- To examine the impact of ChatGPT on self-esteem among EFL medical track students.
- 3- To evaluate the effectiveness of ChatGPT in reducing anxiety levels of EFL medical track students during speaking practice.
- 4- To explore how ChatGPT contributes to improved speaking proficiency among EFL medical track students.

IV. QUESTIONS OF THE STUDY

The focuses on the effectiveness of ChatGPT in mitigating the affective filter, a mental block hindering language learning, among EFL medical track students. To achieve this, the study explores how ChatGPT influences students' emotions and speaking proficiency. Here are the research questions guiding this investigation:

- 1- To what extent does ChatGPT address the affective filter (anxiety, motivation, self-esteem) of EFL medical track students, leading to improvements in speaking proficiency?
- 2- How did ChatGPT's specific features (e.g., personalized feedback and simulated conversations) influence the speaking practice experiences of EFL medical track students?
- 3- Did the use of ChatGPT in speaking practice activities lead to a significant increase in self-reported motivation among EFL medical track students?

V. METHODOLOGY

The methodology section details how the researchers investigated the impact of ChatGPT on EFL medical track students. Eighteen participants took a speaking pre-test. The study then employed a mixed methods approach, combining a seven-week intervention using ChatGPT speaking techniques with post-intervention interviews. The researchers monitored and supported participants throughout the intervention. Finally, a post-test measured improvement and interviews explored their experiences with ChatGPT's impact on anxiety, motivation, and self-esteem.

A. Participants

The data were collected from a sample of eighteen freshman female students enrolled in the medical track program at the University of Bisha. Data collection was conducted during the second semester of the 2024 academic year. All participants were actively engaged in the General English 2 course, a program designed to cultivate general proficiency in the English language. This twelve-hour-per-week course provided a structured environment for the development of core English

language skills. The specific sample of eighteen participants was chosen to ensure a homogenous group in terms of academic background and language learning experience. This homogeneity aimed to mitigate potential confounding variables and strengthen the internal validity of the study's findings.

B. Research Design

This study adopts a mixed methods approach to explore the effects of ChatGPT on the reduction of the language affective filter and the enhancement of motivation and self-esteem during speaking classes. This approach capitalizes on the strengths of both quantitative and qualitative data collection.

C. Instruments of the Study

Two instruments were used in the study: the Speaking Pre-posttest and semi-structured interviews.

(a). The Speaking Pre-Posttest

It was administered before and after the intervention period involving ChatGPT use to collect the quantitative data of the study. These tests assessed participants' speaking proficiency. By comparing the pre-test and post-test scores, the researchers quantified the potential advancements in speaking proficiency and assessed the effectiveness of the intervention in reducing the students' affective filter. Specifically, a standardized speaking task was developed by the researchers and meticulously evaluated using a five-point rubric by a panel of experienced raters. This task served as the pre-test, administered to all participants at the start of the study. Following the seven-week intervention period where participants practiced using ChatGPT, a subsequent speaking task was assigned as the post-test. The speaking tasks were meticulously constructed to directly assess the course objectives, ensuring a clear link between the evaluated skills and the intended learning outcomes. Evaluating speaking performance was done through a standardized rubric developed by English language instructors within the University of Bisha's English Department. This rubric, adapted from the Rcampus website, provided a comprehensive framework for analyzing speaking skills across five key categories: Range, Accuracy, Fluency, Coherence, and Interaction.

Range. This category evaluated the variety and complexity of vocabulary and grammatical structures employed by participants during their speaking tasks.

Accuracy. Here, the focus was on assessing the participants' grammatical correctness, pronunciation, and spelling during their spoken responses.

Fluency. This category examined participants' overall ease and flow of speech, including aspects like natural pacing, minimal hesitation, and smooth transitions between ideas.

Coherence. This dimension assessed participants' ability to organize their thoughts and express ideas in a clear, logical, and cohesive manner.

Interaction. This category evaluated participants' ability to engage in a two-way conversation by actively listening, responding appropriately, and demonstrating awareness of conversational cues.

Each category employed a four-point scale, with 1 denoting the lowest level of performance and 4 signifying the highest level of achievement. To generate a final score out of 10 for each participant, the individual category scores were summed and then divided by two. This standardized scoring approach ensured consistency in evaluation and facilitated reliable comparisons between the pre-test and post-test results. Notably, the speaking test was administered as a post-test following the intervention period, utilizing the same rigorous assessment method. This pre-posttest design enabled the researchers to systematically measure any potential improvements in speaking proficiency attributable to the use of ChatGPT.

(b). Semi-Structured Interviews

To complement the quantitative data obtained from the pre-and post-speaking tests, semi-structured interviews were utilized to assess participants' perspectives and encounters with ChatGPT during speaking practice. These interviews, conducted individually with all eighteen participants post-intervention, featured open-ended questions aimed at eliciting detailed responses. Lasting approximately five minutes each, the interviews were tailored to provide a platform for participants to expand on their thoughts and emotions. By exploring the impact of ChatGPT on the affective filter, language motivation, and self-esteem, the interviews yielded valuable insights into the nuanced ways through which ChatGPT influenced these variables within the context of speaking lessons.

The audio recordings from these interviews were meticulously transcribed to enable a comprehensive analysis of participants' responses. This analysis focused on capturing a range of elements, including:

Attitudes towards the intervention. The interview aimed to examine participants' overall impressions and experiences with the experiment involving ChatGPT.

Changes in affective states. The interview explored potential shifts in participants' feelings, specifically focusing on anxiety, motivation, and self-esteem while practicing speaking tasks with ChatGPT.

Reasons for affective changes. Participants were encouraged to elaborate on the factors contributing to their feelings of anxiety, confidence, or motivation when practicing speaking English.

Impact of ChatGPT on anxiety. A key question probed participants' perceptions of how using ChatGPT potentially influenced their anxiety levels. Here, an open-ended approach allowed participants to express any additional feelings that emerged during their speaking practice with the AI tool.

The specific interview questions employed were:

1. Can you describe your initial feelings – anxiety, confidence, motivation, or perhaps something else – when you begin a speaking task? How intense would you say these feelings are? This broad question invited participants to share their dominant emotional state at the start of a speaking task.
2. Why do you think you experience those particular feelings when you begin speaking English? This question encouraged introspection, prompting participants to assess the reasons behind their initial emotional responses.
3. In your opinion, how did using ChatGPT affect your initial feelings (e.g., anxiety)? Did you experience any other changes in feelings while using ChatGPT? This question directly addressed the core focus of the interview, investigating participants' perceptions of how ChatGPT influenced their emotional state during speaking practice.

This mixed-research approach combined the strengths of quantitative and qualitative methodologies. The pre-posttest provided objective measures of speaking proficiency, while the semi-structured interview facilitated a richer understanding of participants' experiences using ChatGPT. This triangulation of data strengthened the overall validity and reliability of the study findings.

D. Procedure of the Study

This part details the research design and implementation of the intervention utilizing, ChatGPT.

(a). Speaking Pre-Test Administration

The study commenced with the administration of a standardized speaking pre-test for all eighteen participants. This pre-test served as a baseline assessment of participants' speaking proficiency and ensured alignment with the course objectives.

(b). Intervention Phase

Following the pre-test, the intervention phase commenced. This phase spanned seven weeks and involved all eighteen participants actively practicing their speaking skills with ChatGPT techniques. To guide their practice sessions, the researchers carefully selected and organized a series of ChatGPT techniques designed to address the established course objectives. Each week, participants were introduced to a new technique, as outlined in Table 1.

TABLE 1
TECHNIQUES FOR ENGLISH SPEAKING SKILL PRACTICE WITH CHATGPT

Week	Speaking Technique
1	Shadowing Technique with ChatGPT
2	Role-Playing with ChatGPT
3	Interview with ChatGPT
4	Storytelling with ChatGPT
6	Topic Exploration with ChatGPT
7	Conversational Practice (Open-Ended Questions) with ChatGPT

(c). Monitoring and Support

Throughout the seven-week intervention period, the researchers maintained regular contact with participants to ensure comprehension and effective application of the designated speaking techniques. This ongoing support aimed to maximize the participants' engagement and potential benefits from utilizing ChatGPT.

(d). Speaking Post-Test and Interview Administration

Upon completion of the seven-week intervention, a post-test identical to the pre-test was administered to all participants. This post-test facilitated the evaluation of potential improvements in speaking proficiency attributable to the use of ChatGPT. Additionally, a semi-structured interview was conducted with each participant following the intervention period. This qualitative data collection method aimed to gather in-depth insights into their experiences with ChatGPT, including perceived changes in anxiety levels, motivation, and self-esteem related to speaking English.

VI. RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

This study examines the influence of ChatGPT on the motivational, self-esteem, and anxiety-related factors (affective factors) of female medical-track students enrolled in a General English 2 course at the University of Bisha. Employing a pre-test, post-test design with speaking tasks and semi-structured interviews, the study explored how ChatGPT usage impacted participants' motivation to engage in language learning activities, their self-esteem during language tasks, and its effectiveness in mitigating anxiety associated with speaking English. This analysis of both quantitative and qualitative data aimed to shed light on the multifaceted influence of ChatGPT on the affective factors of EFL learners in this specific context.

A. Results of the Speaking Pre-Posttest

The quantitative analysis aimed to assess the potential influence of the ChatGPT intervention on participants' speaking proficiency. The quantitative analysis assessed the potential impact of the ChatGPT intervention on participants' speaking

proficiency. Data obtained from the pre- and post-speaking tests were subjected to rigorous statistical analysis using a paired-samples t-test to determine the presence of any statistically significant differences between the speaking pre-test and post-test.

TABLE 2
DESCRIPTIVE STATISTICS OF SPEAKING PRE-POST-TEST SCORES

Test	Number	Minimum	Maximum	Mean (M)	Standard Deviation (SD)
Pre-Test	18	1.40	2.80	1.9176	0.47989
Post-Test	18	1.40	3.00	2.4118	0.43284

Table 2 presents the descriptive statistics of the speaking test scores obtained from both the pre-test and post-test administrations. As illustrated, the mean total score on the pre-test was 1.9176 (SD = 0.47989), indicating an average performance level across the five assessed categories (Range, Accuracy, Fluency, Coherence, and Interaction). Notably, the minimum score on the pre-test was 1.40, while the maximum score reached 2.80, suggesting some initial variation in speaking proficiency among the participants. Following the seven-week intervention period utilizing ChatGPT, the mean total score on the post-test increased to 2.4118 (SD = 0.43284). This observed improvement suggests a potential positive influence of the intervention on participants' speaking skills. The maximum score on the post-test reached 3.00, demonstrating improvement for some participants, while the minimum score remained at 1.40.

To determine the statistical significance of the observed improvement in mean scores, a one-sample t-test was conducted. The results of the t-test, as displayed in Table 3, revealed a statistically significant difference between the pre-test and post-test scores ($t = 16.476$, $p = 0.000$). This statistically significant difference ($p < 0.05$) allows us to conclude that the ChatGPT intervention had a positive impact on participants' affective filter and overall speaking proficiency, as measured by the pre-posttest scores.

TABLE 3
ONE-SAMPLE T-TEST RESULTS

Test	Test Value	df	Sig. (2-tailed)	Mean Difference	95% Confidence Interval of the Difference
Pre-test vs. Post-test	$t = 16.476$	16	0.000	0.49415	0.16709

The quantitative findings provide initial evidence suggesting that the ChatGPT intervention effectively enhanced the speaking proficiency of EFL learners enrolled in the medical track program. The statistically significant increase in the mean total score on the post-test compared to the pre-test indicates a positive trend in participants' speaking proficiency. However, it is crucial to acknowledge that these findings are based on a relatively small sample size ($n = 18$). Future research with larger participant groups could further solidify the generalizability of these results. Additionally, the qualitative data obtained from the semi-structured interviews are presented in the subsequent section to gain deeper insights into participants' experiences with ChatGPT and their perceived changes in affective factors, such as motivation, self-esteem, and anxiety.

B. Results of the Semi-Structured Interviews

The quantitative analysis aimed to assess the potential influence of the ChatGPT intervention on participants' speaking proficiency. The quantitative analysis assessed the potential impact of the ChatGPT intervention on participants' speaking proficiency. Data obtained from the pre- and post-speaking tests were subjected to rigorous statistical analysis using a paired-samples t-test to determine the presence of any statistically significant differences between the speaking pre-test and post-test.

Thematic analysis of the semi-structured interviews conducted in this study yielded rich insights into participants' emotional landscape. These interviews aimed to explore the following key questions:

Initial Feelings During Speaking Tasks: Participants were invited to describe their dominant emotional state at the outset of a speaking task, along with the intensity of these feelings.

Reasons Behind Initial Emotional Responses: This question probed participants' self-reflection on the underlying factors contributing to their initial emotions when speaking English.

Perceived Impact of ChatGPT on Emotional State: This core question investigated participants' perceptions of how using ChatGPT influenced their emotional state during speaking practice. Did they experience any changes in emotions while using the AI tool?

1. Dominant Emotional Response: Anxiety

A significant theme surfaced from the analysis: when participants initiated speaking tasks, anxiety was almost universally present as the dominant emotion. A majority of the participants, 98%, indicated that they had encountered anxiety, which varied in intensity from low to high. Only 2% of participants denied feeling any anxiety during such activities. These findings resonate with established research highlighting anxiety as a prevalent barrier in foreign language speaking tasks (Elahi Shirvan & Talebzadeh, 2020).

2. Shifting Emotional Landscape with ChatGPT

One of the primary objectives of this study was to investigate whether the 7-week training course utilizing ChatGPT could influence participants' emotional states associated with speaking English. The interview data revealed a promising trend – all participants expressed a decrease in their anxiety levels after the intervention. This finding suggests that AI-

powered language learning tools like ChatGPT have the potential to lower negative emotions associated with speaking tasks.

3. Pre-Teaching Emotional Experiences and Attitudes

Beyond anxiety, the interviews unveiled a range of negative emotions participants experienced prior to the ChatGPT teaching. These emotions included low motivation, embarrassment, hesitation, fear of speaking, diminished self-confidence, and a general reluctance to engage in spoken language activities. Participants attributed these negative emotions to the anxiety they faced in such learning situations. These findings align with prior research demonstrating the detrimental impact of anxiety on language learning motivation and performance (MacIntyre & Gregersen, 2012).

4. Post-Teaching Emotional Shift and Positive Outcomes

The interviews revealed a significant shift in participants' emotional states and attitudes following the 7-week ChatGPT teaching. Participants expressed a sense of satisfaction with the positive changes they experienced. They reported improvements in speaking fluency, vocabulary acquisition, and overall language performance. Notably, a newfound sense of self-confidence emerged as a recurring theme, signifying a marked contrast from their initial anxieties. Additionally, participants described feeling more motivated, enthusiastic, and willing to engage in spoken language practice. This positive shift in emotional state and motivation aligns with research suggesting that positive emotions can enhance language learning outcomes (Dewaele & MacIntyre, 2016).

5. Reasons Behind Emotional Shifts: Perceived Benefits of ChatGPT

A third prominent theme from the interviews explored the underlying factors contributing to the observed changes in participants' emotional experiences. When discussing their initial anxiety, most interviewees attributed these feelings to a fear of making mistakes in grammar and pronunciation. However, they indicated that the ChatGPT-based course provided them with the tools and support system to overcome these anxieties and cultivate a more positive mindset towards speaking English.

Several key features of ChatGPT were identified by participants as instrumental in this transformative experience:

Personalized Feedback and Error Correction. Participants highly valued the ability to receive immediate feedback and error corrections from the AI application. This feature allowed them to improve their spoken language skills in a safe and supportive environment, free from the fear of judgment or embarrassment.

Simulated Conversational Practice. The interactive nature of ChatGPT, simulating natural conversations in both written and oral formats, provided participants with a safe space to practice their speaking skills without the pressure of real-time interactions. This approach aligns with research advocating for the benefits of simulated conversational practice in language learning (Ericsson & Johansson, 2023).

Non-judgmental Learning Environment. The impersonal nature of interacting with an AI system was highlighted by participants as a significant factor in alleviating their anxieties about making mistakes. They did not experience the potential embarrassment associated with speaking to another person.

VII. CONCLUSIONS AND IMPLICATIONS

This study investigated the impact of ChatGPT on the affective factors (motivation, self-esteem, and anxiety) of female EFL learners enrolled in a medical track program at the University of Bisha. By employing a mixed-methods approach with speaking pre-posttest and semi-structured interviews, the study explored the multifaceted influence of ChatGPT on these learners' emotional states and their perceptions of their speaking proficiency.

The quantitative findings revealed a statistically significant improvement in participants' speaking performance following a seven-week intervention period utilizing ChatGPT. This suggests that ChatGPT may be effective in enhancing speaking proficiency among EFL learners. However, future research with larger and more diverse participant groups is warranted to solidify the generalizability of these findings.

Thematic analysis of the interviews provided a vivid picture of the emotional landscape surrounding spoken English tasks. Anxiety emerged as the dominant pre-training emotion, with nearly all participants reporting varying degrees of anxiety when initiating speaking tasks. This aligns with existing research highlighting anxiety as a significant barrier in EFL speaking (Elahi Shirvan & Talebzadeh, 2020).

Following the ChatGPT intervention, a significant positive shift in emotional state and attitudes was observed. All participants reported a decrease in their anxiety, and they expressed a sense of satisfaction with their progress, reporting improvements in speaking fluency, vocabulary acquisition, and overall language performance. Notably, a newfound sense of self-confidence emerged as a recurring theme, signifying a marked contrast from their initial anxieties.

Furthermore, they described experiencing a range of positive emotional changes, including increased motivation, self-esteem, and enthusiasm for spoken language practice. These findings suggest that ChatGPT has the potential to mitigate negative emotions associated with speaking tasks and foster a more positive learning environment. Additionally, participants became more motivated, enthusiastic, and willing to engage in spoken language practice. This positive emotional shift aligns with research suggesting that positive emotions can enhance language learning outcomes (Dewaele, 2019).

Several key features of ChatGPT were identified by participants as instrumental in facilitating these positive changes. The ability to receive immediate, personalized feedback and error correction in a safe and non-judgmental environment was highly valued. Additionally, the interactive nature of ChatGPT, simulating natural conversations, provided a low-

pressure space for participants to practice their speaking skills. Notably, the impersonal nature of interacting with an AI system was highlighted by participants as a factor that reduced their anxieties about making mistakes.

The findings of this study offer valuable insights for the integration of AI-powered language learning tools like ChatGPT into EFL classrooms. By addressing the affective factors that can hinder language acquisition, such as anxiety and low self-esteem, these tools have the potential to create more positive and engaging learning experiences. The personalized feedback, error correction, and safe practice environment offered by ChatGPT can empower learners to overcome their anxieties and develop greater confidence in their spoken language abilities.

Future research is recommended to explore the long-term effects of AI-assisted language learning on EFL learners' affective factors and speaking proficiency. Additionally, research on the effectiveness of ChatGPT or similar AI tools in different learning contexts and with more diverse learner populations would be valuable contributions to the field.

In conclusion, this study demonstrates the potential of ChatGPT to positively impact the affective factors and speaking proficiency of EFL learners. By fostering a more positive and supportive learning environment, AI-powered language learning tools can play a significant role in enhancing EFL learners' motivation, self-esteem, and communication skills. This study paves the way for further exploration of AI-powered language learning tools and their impact on the affective domain in EFL contexts. Future studies could investigate the long-term effects of such interventions on learners' motivation, self-esteem, and anxiety levels. Additionally, research could explore the effectiveness of ChatGPT across different language learning contexts, proficiency levels, and learner demographics. Further research is also required to examine the precise impact of ChatGPT on anxiety levels among EFL learners. Furthermore, investigations into the potential limitations and ethical considerations of using AI-powered language learning tools would be valuable in refining their application within the EFL classroom.

REFERENCES

- [1] AbdAlgan, M., & Othman, K. A. J. (2023). Utilizing Artificial Intelligence Technologies in Saudi EFL Tertiary Level Classrooms. *Journal of Intercultural Communication*, 23(1), 92–99. <https://doi.org/10.36923/jicc.v23i1.124>
- [2] Ai, J., Pan, Y., & Zhong, W. (2021). *The Role of Motivation in Second Language Acquisition: A review*. Proceedings of the 2021 3rd International Conference on Literature, Art and Human Development (ICLAHD 2021). Retrieved on February 2, 2024 from <https://www.atlantis-press.com/proceedings/iclahd-21/125964829>
- [3] Ali, J. K. M., Shamsan, M. A. A., Hezam, T. A., & Mohammed, A. A. (2023). Impact of ChatGPT on learning motivation: teachers and students' voices. *Journal of English Studies in Arabia Felix*, 2(1), 41-49. Retrieved on January 10, 2024 from <https://journals.arafa.org/index.php/jesaf/article/download/51/71>
- [4] Arnold J. (1999). *Affect in Language Learning*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.
- [5] Biria, R., Mohamadi, G., & Koosha, S. (2013). The Relationship between Foreign Language Anxiety and Language Learning Strategies among University Students. *Academy Publishers*, 3(4), 637-646. DOI:10.4304/tpls.3.4.637-646
- [6] Botes E., Dewaele J.-M., Greiff S. (2020). The power to improve: effects of multilingualism and perceived proficiency on enjoyment and anxiety in foreign language learning. *European Journal of Applied Linguistics*, 8, 1-28. 10.1515/eujal-2020-0003
- [7] Böttger, H., & Költzsch, D. (2020). The fear factor: Xenoglossophobia or how to overcome the anxiety of speaking foreign languages. *Training, Language and Culture*, 4(2), 43-55. Doi:10.22363/2521-442X-2020-4-2 43-55
- [8] Çakmak, F. (2022). Chatbot-human interaction and its effects on EFL students' L2 speaking performance and speaking anxiety. *Novitas-ROYAL (Research on Youth and Language)*, 16(2), 113–131. Retrieved on March 5, 2024 from <https://files.eric.ed.gov/fulltext/EJ1365002.pdf>
- [9] CASEL. (2023). *Social and emotional learning (SEL) framework*. Retrieved on March 19, 2024 from <https://casel.org/>
- [10] Dewaele J.-M., MacIntyre P. D. (2016). Foreign language enjoyment and foreign language classroom anxiety. The right and left feet of FL learning? in *Positive Psychology in SLA*, eds MacIntyre P. D., Gregersen T., Mercer S. 215–236. Bristol: Multilingual Matters.
- [11] Du, X. (2009). The affective filter in second language teaching. *Asian Social Science*, 5(8), 162-165. DOI:10.5539/ass.v5n8p162
- [12] El Shazly, R. (2021). Effects of artificial intelligence on English speaking anxiety and speaking performance: A case study. *Expert Systems*, 38(3), <https://doi.org/10.1111/exsy.12667>
- [13] Elahi Shirvan M., Talebzadeh N. (2020). Tracing the signature dynamics of foreign language classroom anxiety and foreign language enjoyment: a retrodictive qualitative modeling. *Eurasian Journal of Applied Linguistics*, 6, 23–44. 10.32601/ejal.710194
- [14] Ericsson, E., & Johansson, S. (2023). English speaking practice with conversational AI: Lower secondary students' educational experiences over time. *Computers and Education: Artificial Intelligence*, 5, 1-13. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.caeai.2023.100164>
- [15] Gómez Lacabex, E., & Roothoof, H. (2023). Pronunciation Anxiety, Pronunciation-Related Views and Pronunciation Learning Actions of EMI and English Major Students. *Research in Language*, 21(4), 333–356. <https://doi.org/10.18778/1731-7533.21.4.01>
- [16] Han, D. E. (2020). The effects of voice-based AI chatbots on Korean EFL middle school students' speaking competence and affective domains. *Asia-Pacific Journal of Convergent Research Interchange*, 6(7), 71-80. Retrieved on January 9, 2024 from <http://fucos.or.kr/journal/APJCRI/Articles/v6n7/7.pdf>
- [17] Hassan, M. S. & Al Halbusi, H., Abdelfattah, F., & Ismail, M. M. (2023). *Chatting with ChatGPT: decoding the mind of Chatbot users and unveiling the intricate connections between user perception, trust and stereotype perception on self-esteem and psychological well-being*. <https://doi.org/10.1007/s12144-023-04989-0>
- [18] Hmoud, M., Swait, H., Hamad, N., Karram, O., & Daher, W. (2024). Higher Education Students' Task Motivation in the Generative Artificial Intelligence Context: The Case of ChatGPT. *Information*, 15(1), 33. Retrieved on April 28, 2024 from <https://www.mdpi.com/2078-2489/15/1/33/pdf>

- [19] 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). Retrieved on March 3, 2024 from <https://jeti.thewsu.org/index.php/cieti/article/download/103/64>
- [20] Hualpa, J. J. (2023). Exploring the ethical considerations of using Chat GPT in university education. *Periodicals of Engineering and Natural Sciences*, 11(4), 105-115. Retrieved on January 18, 2024 from <http://pen.ius.edu.ba/index.php/pen/article/viewFile/3770/1325>
- [21] Kim, N. (2019). A Study on the Use of Artificial Intelligence Chatbots for Improving English Grammar Skills. *Journal of Digital Convergence*, 17(8), 37-46. DOI:10.14400/JDC.2019.17.8.037
- [22] Krashen, S. (2013). *Second Language Acquisition: Theory, Applications, and Some Conjectures*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.
- [23] MacIntyre, P., & Gregersen, T. (2012). Emotions that facilitate language learning: The positive-broadening power of the imagination. *Studies in Second Language Learning and Teaching*, 2(2), 193–213. <https://doi.org/10.14746/ssllt.2012.2.2.4>
- [24] Mohammad Ali, A. (2023). *An Intervention Study on the Use of Artificial Intelligence in the ESL Classroom: English teacher perspectives on the Effectiveness of ChatGPT for Personalized Language LearningEn (Dissertation)*. Retrieved on February 20, 2024 from <https://urn.kb.se/resolve?urn=urn:nbn:se:mau:diva-61339>
- [25] Mohebbi, F., Azarnoosh, M., & Rokni, A. (2016). The Relationship between EFL Learners' Anxiety and Writing Complexity. *International Journal of Foreign Language Teaching & Research*, 4(14), 47-67. Retrieved on May 2, 2024 from <https://ensani.ir/file/download/article/1610956533-10329-99-93.pdf>
- [26] Parsakia, K. (2023). The Effect of Chatbots and AI on The Self-Efficacy, Self-Esteem, Problem-Solving and Critical Thinking of Students. *Health Nexus*, 1(1), 71-76. Retrieved on February 8, 2024 from <https://journals.kmanpub.com/index.php/Health-Nexus/article/download/908/1298>
- [27] Pham, T. N. (2022). Using Artificial Intelligence Applications for Teaching and Learning Foreign Language: Facts and Solutions. *International Journal of English Language Education and Literature Studies (IJEEL)*, 1(4), 12-15. DOI:10.22161/ijeel.1.4.2
- [28] Phuangsuwan, P., Siripipatthanakul, S., Vui, C., & Siripipattanakul, S. (2023). *Self-Esteem in English Learning among Higher Education Students: A Qualitative Study in Thailand*, 9, 1813-1835. Retrieved on March 6, 2024 from <https://so04.tci-thaijo.org/index.php/jsa-journal/article/view/265594/181073>
- [29] Rubio, F. (2007). *Self-Esteem and Foreign Language Learning*. Newcastle: Cambridge Scholars Publishing.
- [30] Siregar, F. H., Hasmayni, B., & Lubis, A. H. (2023). The Analysis of Chat GPT Usage Impact on Learning Motivation among Scout Students. *International Journal of Research and Review*, 10(7), 632-638 DOI:10.52403/ijrr.20230774
- [31] Tai, T. Y. (2024). The Role of Anxiety and Self-perceived Communicative Competence in Bilingual Subject Teachers' Willingness to Communicate in L2. *The Asia-Pacific Education Researcher*. 10.1007/s40299-024-00837-2.
- [32] Toribio, N. F. (2023). Analysis of ChatGPT and Other AI's Ability to Reduce Anxiety of Science-Oriented Learners in Academic Engagements. *Journal of Namibian Studies: History Politics Culture*, 33, 5320-5337. Retrieved on January 10, 2024 from <https://namibian-studies.com/index.php/JNS/article/download/3132/2177>
- [33] Wan, X. M. (2017). The Teaching of English Writing in Senior High School Based on the Affective Filter Hypothesis. *Theory and Practice of Education*, 37, 56-57.
- [34] Wang, F. (2019). Application of Krashen's Affective Filter Hypothesis in English Teaching in Primary and Middle Schools. *Basic Education Research*, No. 4, 33-34.
- [35] Young, D. J. (1999). Helping English language learners overcome affective barriers. *The English Teaching Forum*, 37(1), 2-9.
- [36] Zhuo, T. Y., Huang, Y., Chen, C., & Xing, Z. (2023). *Exploring AI Ethics of ChatGPT: A Diagnostic Analysis*. arXiv preprint arXiv:2301.12867

Aeshah Almineeai is an assistant professor in the Department of English Language and Literature at the University of Bisha, specializing in Syntax and focusing on the Minimalist Program. She teaches courses in Syntax, Morphology, and Semantics. In research, her interests span Syntax, mainly in minimalism, Theoretical Linguistics, First language Acquisition, Computational Linguistics, and the interface between Phonology and Syntax.

Mohammed Alrashed is associate professor of linguistics at the College of Languages and Translation, Imam Mohammad Ibn Saud Islamic University (IMSIU), Saudi Arabia. With a long-standing record of initiative and innovation, he has developed and executed a number of studies in syntax and language variation. Dr. Alrashed's research interests lie mainly within syntactic complexity, syntactic reconstruction, construction grammar, and psycholinguistics.

Taha Hezam is an Assistant Professor of English for more than 15 years. He worked in many universities in Yemen and taught many courses in language and Applied Linguistics. He headed the Department of English at Taiz University for more than five years and supervised the Teacher-training Unit. He is now a supervisor of the Graduates Committee, College of Arts and Letters and the Student's Affairs Deanship Consultant, University of Bisha. His research interests are in language development and discourse analysis.

Asma Alharthi completed her Bachelor's in English Language from the University of Bisha in 2021. Her research interests include language teaching and learning, Psycholinguistics, and the role of technology in language learning and acquisition. She works as a cooperative English Language teacher at the University of Bisha.

Salma Alharthi finished her Bachelor's Degree in English from the University of Bisha in 2018. Her research interests include language acquisition and learning, computational linguistics, Neurolinguistics, and psycholinguistics. Currently, she is a cooperative teacher of English at the University of Bisha.

English Language Teachers' Perspectives on Technological Applications Used for Students With Disabilities

Omar Ismail Alorani
University of Jordan, Jordan

Sarp Erkir
American University of the Middle East, Kuwait

Suzie Yaseen Rababa'h
Jadara University, Jordan

Baker Mohammad Bani-Khair
Department of English, Faculty of Arts, The Hashemite University, Jordan

Ali Ata Alkhaldi
American University of the Middle East, Kuwait

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

Basma Mohammad Al-Hawamdeh
University of Jerash, Jordan

Abdelsalam Fahad Al-Awamrah
University of Jordan, Jordan

Feras Ali Al-Habies
University of Jordan, Jordan

Abstract—Assistive devices and technology have contributed to expanding the research base related to technology in special education. Researchers in the field of special education consider them a promising way of addressing a major practical problem in this field, which is individualized teaching. Technology-based education seems to be a more constructive method for achieving better, faster, and more effective assessment, training, and treatment than labor-intensive and time-consuming manual work. The study attempts to identify the English language teachers' perspectives on the technology used for teaching students with sensory, physical, and health disabilities, as well as its effect on improving the quality of their learning. A questionnaire was administered to a sample of 489 teachers to collect data. The results revealed that teacher's knowledge of the technology and its potential for improving the quality of their teaching was poor. Furthermore, there were no statistically significant differences in the knowledge level of teachers based on gender, years of experience, and variables in the field of supportive technology. The study helps enrich the theoretical literature on technological applications. The new world of technology holds the promise of enhancing education.

Index Terms—English language teachers' perspectives on technological applications, students with disabilities

I. INTRODUCTION

The issue of education in general, and the education of people with disabilities in particular, represents a challenge for nations and societies as it can hinder their progress in treating them as integral members of society. This could result in educational deficiencies and economic loss due to the inadequate educational services provided to people with disabilities for various reasons. Hence, the United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organization (UNESCO) emphasizes education as a fundamental right for all, making it their motto. Accordingly, UNESCO formulated its future plans with education as a goal of modern education without discrimination based on gender, race, or disability (Ali et al., 2024; De Beco, 2022; McNicholl, 2023).

The educational is broad and complex, and is interconnected with various other systems such as the economic, political, and social systems, all of which have a mutual influence on each other. There should be harmony between these systems to develop the educational system, which is more comprehensive than just an educational institution, a teacher, and a student (Al-Habies et al., 2023; Yassin et al., 2021). It concerns society as a whole, so that when societies consider their advancement, they look to education as a solution to their problems and difficulties, aiming to develop it into a tool for change in various aspects of life (Al-Jezawi et al., 2023; Alkhaldi et al., 2023; Marouli, 2021; Wolor et al., 2024).

Education has become a global concern at all levels – local, regional, and global – as everyone believes that the cornerstone of any sustainable social development lies in education, its development, improvement, and accessibility to all. Therefore, in late 2015, the United Nations member states adopted the Sustainable Development Plan for 2030, with as its fourth goal a focus on ensuring inclusive and equitable quality education and promoting lifelong learning opportunities for all (Alghazo et al., 2023; González García et al., 2020).

Given that people with disabilities constitute about 15% of the world's population, this group has received considerable attention globally. The Sustainable Development Plan emphasizes achieving quality education for all, including people with disabilities. Technology plays a crucial role for people with disabilities, bringing about significant changes in students' and communities' lives. The effective use of technology in education has been proven to overcome educational challenges and bridge the gaps resulting from disabilities, regardless of their type, providing psychological, academic, social, and economic benefits (Almsbhiheen et al., 2023; Al-Saidat et al., 2023; Essa et al., 2023; Harara et al., 2024).

Paying attention to people with disabilities is not only an ethical demand; it also accords with the principle of equal opportunities among members of society. It is the right of disabled people to be raised and educated, religiously, economically, and socially. Therefore, investing in their care contributes to economic growth and social harmony, as they are part of the community (Malkawi et al., 2023; Melhim et al., 2023; Sakarneh et al., 2023). Hence, when considering their security and advancement, societies see education as a solution to their problems and difficulties (Bardaweel & Rababah, 2021; Qudeisat & Rababah, 2021; Shalghin, 2014).

Students with disabilities face various challenges depending on the nature of their disability, whether auditory, visual, motor, intellectual, or otherwise. This imposes a significant challenge on special education experts, educational technologists, and those involved in educating this group to provide the necessary resources to overcome such difficulties (). In this context, technology is of the utmost importance for people with disabilities, bringing about significant changes in individuals' and communities' lives. The use of technology and its innovations, adapted to the nature of the relationship, has proved effective in overcoming educational challenges and closing the gap resulting from disabilities, providing psychological, academic, social, and economic benefits (Azzam et al., 2024; Rababah et al., 2024; Alshare et al., 2019; Wolor et al., 2023).

Technology can improve the quality of life of people with disabilities by giving them new opportunities to overcome long-standing challenges, which rekindles hope and aspiration. It encourages people to interact and blend in organically with their communities, while also boosting their self-esteem and sense of fulfillment. It helps students acquire skills in mobility, education, movement, and communication, among other areas of life, thus boosting their self-esteem and promoting psychological equilibrium (Alatoom et al., 2022; Al-Sous et al., 2023; Banikalef et al., 2019, 2020; Hatamleh et al., 2023).

Therefore, attention and special care are required for people with disabilities, and it should be noted that the term "intellectual disability", as mentioned by Malkawi et al. (2023), may mean that education is approached differently or at a slower pace compared to their peers of the same age. The study attempts to examine the reality of teaching this group of learners using educational technology.

A. *The Problem of Statement*

Educational technology is a crucial resource that helps people with disabilities integrate into the educational process. Although it may not be the only resource in this regard, it has undoubtedly rendered a significant part of the struggles of this group a thing of the past, thus providing the opportunity to bridge some of the gaps left by disabilities, which separate the disabled from their non-disabled peers (Abu Dia, 2013). A review of previous studies that addressed educational technology and its role in the learning process, revealed the scarcity of studies on the use of technology in teaching students with disabilities who are capable of learning in Jordan. Most of the studies addressed disabilities in general. Therefore, this study aims to understand the reality of using educational technology in teaching students with disabilities from the perspective of their teachers.

B. *Research Questions*

This study aimed to identify the needs of English language teachers when integrating technology into education. Definitely, the study attempts to answer these questions:

1. What is the level of knowledge of English language teachers regarding technology applications and their role in enhancing the quality of education for students with disabilities?
2. Are there statistically significant differences in the level of knowledge that teachers have about technological applications and their impact on enhancing the quality of life for students with disabilities attributed to gender and experience?

C. Significance of the Study

The current study may contribute to the theoretical literature in the field of training needs when integrating technology into education. The study may also benefit teachers and decision-makers in Jordanian schools attempting to identify these training needs in relation to students with disabilities.

II. LITERATURE REVIEW

Technology is already helping to assist education and foster social skills, everyday life skills, and communication and academic abilities. The use of kinesthetic, visual, and auditory aids has also helped people with impairments become more independent and have more freedom to move around. Many studies have focused on the level of knowledge with regard to technology and its applications among teachers and impaired students in schools and universities. For instance, Raddadi's (2102) study proposed training methods for English language teachers in the middle school stage when using e-learning, looking at the impact of variables such as academic qualification, years of experience, and training courses. The researcher followed the descriptive approach, using a questionnaire as a tool for data collection. The sample involved 630 teachers and 50 supervisors. The study found a great need for teacher training and statistically significant differences in the need for training in all areas of study except for the field of e-learning culture, which was attributed to the training courses received by those teachers. The researcher recommended designing training programs for English language teachers.

Abu Dia (2013) explored teaching visually impaired university students in Jordan. The study selected visually impaired students of both sexes. It utilized a questionnaire tool to achieve the study's objectives, in addition to collecting information from the Supportive Technology Unit at Jordan University to investigate its role in supporting and assisting visually impaired students. The study found that, despite the efforts made to assist this group in adapting to the nature of their disability and the academic and material requirements at the university, there was still room to enhance partnerships and the positive participation of the disabled students.

Ellis (2016) investigated visually impaired students' attitudes toward technology use with regard to their academic success. The researcher focused on the general use of technology by visually impaired students, which included note-taking and recording lectures using the Livescribe Smartpen device. The students' experience revealed some of the obstacles they might face. The theoretical framework was the Technology The study revealed that, generally, visually impaired students have an openness and readiness to use technology as a means of adaptation. Those who used the Smartpen Livescribe device for audio recording viewed it very positively. The study recommended encouraging students to take notes and engage in course content to build confidence in their abilities, so that device usage is not discontinued due to a lack of confidence.

Lersilp et al. (2016) examined students diagnosed with disabilities in Thai schools and the expected benefits of supportive technology. The survey aimed to assess the availability, usage, and needs of supportive technology, along with the viewpoints of key stakeholders regarding the standards for providing this technology in special education schools. The sample included 120 students with visual, physical, auditory, or intellectual disabilities from special education schools, as well as 24 key stakeholders or caregivers and teachers. Data were collected through a reference list of supportive technology and semi-structured interviews. Based on the findings, students with disabilities had access to a variety of supportive technology categories, with "services" ranking top, followed by "communication devices" and "facilities." Furthermore, while most students with physical disabilities received assistive technologies, those with visual impairments required them more. Last but not least, the requirements for supplying supportive technology included infrastructure, a holistic viewpoint, school autonomy, learning systems, and production guidelines. Three main entities—the government, private organizations, and educational institutions—also encouraged cooperation, user involvement, and the development of technology centers.

Malcolm and Roll (2017) looked at supportive technology in relation to academic task performance and satisfaction. Using the Canadian Occupational Performance Measure, they examined how students with disabilities used the services of supportive technology, and their experiences (using a supportive technology use survey). A total of 350 students with disabilities participated in the survey. The study revealed significant use of supportive technology by these students, who preferred face-to-face training and used supportive technology at least three times a week, in various environments. They felt that supportive technology positively impacted their academic success.

Silman et al. (2017) examined how technology used in the 'Turkish Cypriot Association for the Blind' facilitated learning, teaching, and administrative processes for visually impaired individuals. They used qualitative research methods and a case study approach to verify how technology used in the Association facilitated learning, teaching, and administrative processes for visually impaired individuals. Participants in the study included teachers, students, and one director, who were selected purposefully. The results showed that, with the help of technology, participants in the study were highly enthusiastic, could easily communicate with each other and with people outside their institution, and shared decisions with their teachers.

The study by Baglama et al. (2018) aimed to identify the key technological techniques used with deaf and hearing-impaired students to enable effective communication and successful participation in dissemination programs. The study revealed that teachers adopt a quantitative communication model, focusing on sign language, and rely on specialized hearing techniques to overcome the communication barriers faced by deaf students in schools.

Ahmed (2018) investigated the views of experts on the application of assistive technology in the classroom and its effects on students with disabilities. The purpose of the study was to ascertain public opinion regarding the rights of individuals with disabilities to participate in mainstream education and the underlying causes of the lack of accessible supportive technology during the semester. The poll was completed by twenty-eight Midwestern University students and faculty members in the United States. They were questioned about whether they agreed with the usage of assistive technology and what obstacles they could see in the way of using it. Of the participants, 75% said they were permitted to utilize assistive technology during the semester, whereas 25% said they were not. Regarding the positive impact of using supportive technology on the academic performance of students with disabilities, 96% believed that supportive technology made a significant difference, while 3% did not. Participants who agreed with the positive impact of supportive technology stated that it could help students perform tasks they would otherwise struggle with. Additionally, they believed that supportive technology was one of the strategies teachers should consider to help children overcome challenges better.

In their project, McNichol et al. (2020) sought to gain a deeper understanding of how students with disabilities enrolling in higher education in Ireland are affected by the use of assistive technology in terms of competence, adaptability, and self-esteem, as well as academic efficacy and educational engagement. Different scales were all used in a cross-sectional online survey of 111 disabled students. It was discovered that the use of supportive technology improved psychological outcomes in the areas of competence, adaptability, and self-worth. In comparison to those with unmet needs, those with fully met supportive technology needs scored considerably higher on four of the ten subscales measuring educational engagement, academic self-efficacy, and well-being. The findings demonstrate how important supportive technology is for students with a range of disability diagnoses, both in terms of their psychological well-being and classroom participation.

Kisanga and Kisanga (2022) investigated how supportive technology devices can help visually impaired students at Tanzanian higher education institutions participate and learn. An open-ended questionnaire survey and semi-structured interview with twenty-one respondents—seven of whom were visually impaired students and four of whom were transcribers—were used to collect data. Thematic and descriptive analyses were used to analyze the data. According to the study, visually impaired children understood what supportive technology meant. The majority of visually impaired students become dependent users of supportive technology, relying on the help of other students who are sighted or else more experienced individuals. The report also found that students at the institution under consideration had limited access to basic supportive technology equipment.

The study also demonstrated that supportive technology can aid visually impaired students by increasing their access to educational resources and expanding their career opportunities. Based on these results, the study suggests that in order to guarantee that students with sight impairments get the most out of their education, higher education institutions should provide supportive technology in an adequate and sustainable manner. In order to mitigate their feelings of isolation and reliance on sighted students, visually impaired students also need to be encouraged to use – and learn how to use – the supportive technology gadgets that are available. As with access to education and other health services, as well as medical care, supportive technology accessibility for people with disabilities is a fundamental human right.

Students with disabilities, particularly those who are visually impaired, require the highest level of assistance in order to get and utilize supportive technology (AT) and improve their ability to study and contribute to the growth of society without unwarranted inhibitions. For them to be effective members of society, students with sight impairments (SI) need a range of learning assistance systems to meet their mobility and learning demands. Stakeholders ought to create plans that support and address the educational requirements of pupils who have SI. These treatments could involve determining the type of learning disability a student has, changing their surroundings to improve their learning, and making sure AT technologies and goods are accessible and available to children with VI. The incorporation of supportive technology within the national disability policy can function as a roadmap for providing long-term, national-framework support for children experiencing learning challenges, including those with VI. Education stakeholders and students with SI can have legal grounds to fight for and defend their rights, which are established in the constitution, laws, and policy documents, if they are included in the policy.

The goal of the study by Batanero et al. (2022) was to give academics a broad understanding of information and communication technology (ICT) research, in order to address the needs of students with auditory impairments in higher education settings. Through a thorough evaluation of the literature, data from three of the most prestigious general databases in the field of dissemination—Science of Web, Scopus, and ERIC—spanning the years 2012 to 2022 were acquired. Out of the 282 original investigations, 26 studies made up the sample. The study deployed bibliometric mapping techniques, used approaches based on common themes, clustering techniques, and visualization techniques, and presented the bibliometric data through descriptive and quantitative analysis. The results pointed to gaps in research addressing the use of ICT for the demands of students with auditory impairments, along with the efficiency of these tools. The study emphasized the need for a comprehensive research approach to improve the dissemination of knowledge among students.

In summary, our findings show the benefits of assistive technology (AT) from the perspectives of psychosocial and academic engagement for students with a variety of disability diagnoses. When government departments allocate funds to higher education institutions' disability services, they should consider the many benefits of assistive technology. The setting of higher education can present numerous additional problems for students with disabilities. The results also demonstrated that having access to the right supportive technology can improve academic self-efficacy and well-being,

in addition to positively affecting students' competence, flexibility, and self-esteem. Higher education disability and supportive technology officers should be aware of the educational and psychological advantages of supportive technology for a wide range of students with different diagnoses. The extensive advantages of supportive technology should be taken into account by policy makers when allocating funds to universities.

III. METHODS

The descriptive-analytical approach was used to assess the level of knowledge of English language teachers with regard to technological applications and their role in enhancing the quality of education for students with disabilities.

A. The Population and the Sample of the Study

The population of the study included all English language teachers teaching students with disabilities in Jordan. The sample consisted of 489 teachers. The researchers distributed the study tools through emails. The study sample's distribution, based on its functional and personal factors, is shown in Table 1.

TABLE 1
DISTRIBUTION OF STUDY PARTICIPANTS

Variable	Category	Frequency	Percentage
Gender	Male	146	51%
	Female	140	49%
Experience in years	Less than 4 years	66	23.1%
	4-8 years	69	24.1%
	More than 8 years	151	52.8%
	Total	489	100.0%
Supportive technology field	Auditory impairment	58	20.2%
	Sight impairment	96	33.5%
	Physical and health disability	132	46.2%

B. Study Tool

To achieve the study's objectives, the researchers developed a tool to measure the level of knowledge of English language teachers regarding technological applications and their role in enhancing the quality of education for students with disabilities. This tool was based on the theoretical literature studying the use of technology to assist students with disabilities. The questionnaire consisted of 28 items distributed across two domains: the level of knowledge of teachers regarding technological applications, and the role of technological applications in enhancing the quality of education for students with disabilities. Likert's five-point scale was used to distribute the responses of the sample students according to the following arrangement.

C. Validity of the Study Tool

The tool was presented to ten professors from Al-Balqa Applied University who have expertise in measurement, assessment, and special education. This was done to verify the clarity of the items, the linguistic accuracy of their formulation, and the extent of the items' correlation with the domains of the tool. By determining the correlation coefficient between the item, its domain of belonging, and the overall score the dependability of internal consistency was confirmed. According to the data in Table 2, the correlation coefficients between domains and the total score ranged from (0.88-0.92), while those between the item and the domain ranged from (0.41-0.82) and those between the item and the total score from (0.46-0.84). At the significance threshold of ($\alpha \leq 0.05$), each of these coefficients has statistical significance. This demonstrates the tool's validity and qualifies it for use in the study.

D. Study Variables

- *Independent Variables:* Gender; years of experience; supportive technology field: (physical and health disability, auditory impairment, and sight impairment).
- *Dependent Variables:* Level of knowledge of English language teachers regarding technological applications and the role of technological applications in enhancing the quality of education for students with disabilities.

E. Statistical Analysis

The following statistical techniques were applied to meet the study's objectives: Pearson correlation coefficients to confirm the measurements' validity; Cronbach's alpha stability coefficient to assess the research instrument's dependability; the mean values and standard deviations to address the first research question; multivariate analysis of variance (MANOVA) to address the second question; and one-way analysis of variance (ANOVA).

IV. RESULTS

The Level of Knowledge of English Language Teachers

The mean values and standard deviations for the domains and the overall score have been calculated and shown in Table 3 in order to address the first research question, which asks, "What is the level of knowledge of English language

teachers regarding technological applications and their role in enhancing the quality of education for students with disabilities?".

TABLE 2
TEACHERS' LEVEL OF KNOWLEDGE REGARDING TECHNOLOGICAL APPLICATIONS AND THEIR ROLE IN IMPROVING THE QUALITY OF LEARNING FOR STUDENTS WITH DISABILITIES

No.	Domain	Mean	SD	Rank	Level
1	Teachers' level of application knowledge for technology.	2.32	0.264	1	low
2	Applications of technology can enhance the educational experience for people with disabilities.	2.22	0.211	2	low
	Tool as whole.	2.24	0.144	-	low

According to the data in Table 2, the average teacher's understanding of technological applications and how they might help improve the lives of people with disabilities in Jordan was 2.22, with a standard deviation of 0.144. This shows a poor degree of appreciation. The domain with the highest ranking was teachers' level of application knowledge, with an average score of (2.32) and a standard deviation of 0.264. At a low level for both domains, it was followed by the second-ranked domain, the role of technological applications in enhancing the quality of education for students with disabilities, with an average of 2.24 and a standard deviation of 0.211. Tables 3 and 4 show how the mean values and standard deviations for each domain's elements were obtained.

TABLE 3
TEACHERS' KNOWLEDGE OF TECHNOLOGICAL APPLICATIONS

No.	Domain	Mean	S.D	Level
1	Because of supportive technologies, people with disabilities can lead fulfilling lives.	3.78	0.890	high
2	I am aware that the use of supportive technology is required by law for students with disabilities.	3.84	0.864	high
3	I have a notion about the concept of technology in the twenty-first century.	2.20	0.520	low
4	Technology holds great promise for the development of new teaching materials	2.40	0.524	moderate
5	Technology has a big impact on the education	2.40	0.538	moderate
6	Using technology makes producing high-quality teaching things affordable and effective.	1.40	0.788	low
7	Technology has changed several fields.	1.44	0.842	low
8	Our teaching environment is heavily influenced by technology.	1.56	0.882	low
9	Technology has the ability to improve the competence of the teaching tools and equipment used by those with disabilities.	1.58	0.946	low
10	There are two technology issues. It can be both harmful and useful too.	2.26	0.652	low
	Total	2.32	0.277	low

The Table reveals that the total mean for the domain of the level of knowledge of teachers regarding technological applications was (2.32) with a standard deviation of (0.277). This represents a low level of esteem for technology tools. Item number 2, which states, "I am aware that the use of assistive technology is required by law for those with disabilities," rated foremost with an average of 3.84 and a standard deviation of 3.84. Following in second position was item number 1, which states, "Because of supportive technologies, people with disabilities can lead fulfilling lives" with an average of (3.83) and a standard deviation of (0.890). Third came item number 5, which states, "Technology has a big impact on the economy," with an average of 2.40 and a standard deviation of 0.538. Lastly, in the fourth position came item 6, which states, "Using technology makes producing high-quality things affordable and effective," with an average of 1.40 and a standard deviation of 0.788.

TABLE 4
ROLE OF TECHNOLOGICAL APPLICATIONS IN ENHANCING THE QUALITY OF EDUCATION

No.	Domain	Mean	S. D	Level
11	Educational technology reduces the burden on teachers by reducing students' reliance on them.	2.46	0.544	moderate
12	Educational technology stimulates motivation among the stakeholders in the educational learning process.	2.55	0.555	moderate
13	Educational technology contributes to the continuous monitoring of students with disabilities.	2.18	0.912	low
14	Educational technology equips teachers with modern technology usage skills.	1.52	0.623	low
15	Educational technology elevates the achievement level in various skills for students with disabilities.	2.30	0.488	low
16	Educational technology provides continuous feedback for teachers regarding their students.	3.11	0.746	moderate
17	The use of modern techniques by teachers during teaching increases motivation among students.	2.58	0.723	moderate
18	Educational technology assists teachers in self-reflection.	2.18	0.889	low
19	Educational technology makes the subject matter more engaging.	1.58	0.836	low
20	Educational technology helps teachers maintain constant communication with the parents of disabled students to follow up on instructions and guidance regarding their children.	2.34	0.578	moderate
21	Educational technology considers the diverse abilities of teachers.	2.28	0.746	low
22	Educational technology provides effort and time savings.	1.92	0.743	low
23	Educational technology eliminates students' differences.	1.92	0.755	low
24	Educational technology helps students retain information for a long time.	1.55	0.661	low
25	Educational technology increases positive interaction between the students and the teacher.	2.31	0.745	low
26	Using educational technology in teaching makes teachers more considerate of differences among students.	2.11	0.624	low
27	Educational technology gives teachers sufficient freedom while preparing their lessons.	2.42	0.525	moderate
28	Educational technology contributes to diversifying teachers' methods and techniques in teaching.	2.24	0.746	low
-	Total	2.24	0.162	low

Table 4 presents the overall mean (2.24) with a standard deviation of (0.162) for the domain of the function of technological applications in enhancing the quality of education for students with disabilities in Jordan. This shows a poor degree of appreciation. With an average of (3.11) and a standard deviation of (0.752), item 16, which reads, "Educational technology provides continuous feedback for teachers regarding their students" came first. With an average of 2.58 and a standard deviation of 0.711, item 17 which reads, "The use of modern techniques by teachers during teaching increases motivation among students" was in the second position. The statement "Educational technology reduces the burden on teachers by reducing students' reliance on them" (item 11) came third with an average of (2.64) and a standard deviation of (0.544). The statement "Educational technology equips teachers with modern technology usage skills", item 14, was in the last position.

TABLE 5
DOMAINS AND TOTAL SCORES BASED ON YEARS OF EXPERIENCE, GENDER, AND SUPPORTIVE TECHNOLOGY FIELD

Domain	Variable	Variable categories	No.	Mean	Stand. Devi.	Modified mean	Standard error
Teachers' level of application for technology.	Gender	Male	146	2.28	0.322	2.311	0.112
		Female	140	2.28	0.246	2.268	0.112
	Experience in years	Less than 4 years	66	2.36	0.289	2.211	0.128
		From 4-8 years	69	2.24	0.266	2.224	0.121
		More than 8 years	151	2.28	0.290	2.422	0.121
	Supportive technology field	Auditory impairment	58	2.26	0.288	2.311	0.122
		Sight impairment	96	2.32	0.266	2.323	0.068
		Physical and health impairment	132	2.32	0.288	2.377	0.124
The application of technology can help children with impairments live better lives.	Gender	Male	146	2.22	0.128	2.156	0.010
		Female	140	2.18	2.081	2.234	0.054
	Experience in years	More than 4 years	66	2.16	0.128	2.123	0.054
		4-8 years	69	2.18	0.156	2.278	0.032
		More than 8 years	151	2.29	0.156	2.255	0.058
	Supportive technology field	Auditory impairment	58	2.17	0.122	2.311	0.066
		Sight impairment	96	2.22	0.159	2.133	0.022
		Physical and health impairment	132	2.18	0.160	2.256	0.121
	Gender	Male	146	2.19	0.133	2.207	0.022
		Female	140	2.30	0.166	2.244	0.022
	Experience in years	Less than 4 years	66	2.22	0.125	2.445	0.058
		4-8 years	69	2.24	0.148	2.246	0.043
		More than 8 years	151	2.26	0.122	2.288	0.054
	Supportive technology field	Auditory impairment	58	2.22	0.138	2.289	0.059
		Sight impairment	96	2.18	0.142	2.212	0.042
		Physical and health impairment	132	2.28	0.1323	2.175	0.042

The findings of Table 5 show that there are notable disparities in the study sample students' mean scores regarding teachers' knowledge of technological applications, their contribution to enhancing the quality of life for students with disabilities across all domains, and their overall score. This is dependent upon the following factors: years of experience, gender, and area of supported technology. The Multivariate Analysis of Variance (MANOVA) test was used to determine whether the differences were statistically significant. The outcomes are shown in Table 6.

TABLE 6
THE SIGNIFICANCE OF DIFFERENCES IN THE LEVEL OF KNOWLEDGE OF TEACHERS IN TECHNOLOGICAL APPLICATIONS

Variance resource	Dependent variable	Squares sum	Squares average	(F) Value	P. Value
Gender Hoteling's Trace/ 0.060, sig=0.068	Knowledge level	0.068	0.068	0.558	0.445
	Role of technological applications	0.134	0.134	5.124	0.028
Experience in years Wilk's Lambda 0.886, Sig=0.034	Knowledge level	0.468	0.262	3.113	0.052
	Role of technological applications	0.128	0.211	2.798	0.058
Supportive technology field Wilk's Lambda 0.942, Sig=0.234	Knowledge level	0.208	0.122	1.356	0.258
	Role of technological applications	0.068	0.054	1.511	0.228
Error	Knowledge level	2.562	0.078		
	Role of technological applications	2.256	0.034		
Corrected total	Knowledge level	8.110			
	Role of technological applications	2.534			

*Statistically significant at $\alpha \leq 0.05$.

Regarding the gender variable, the results of Table 6 show that there is no statistically significant difference between the mean values of the study sample students in the area of instructors' degrees of expertise in technological applications. Regarding the function of technological applications, there are statistically significant disparities, with a tendency in favor of males. Regarding the variable of the field of supportive technology, there were no statistically significant differences between the mean values of the sample in the two domains: the role of technological applications in enhancing the quality of education for students with disabilities and the level of knowledge of teachers in applying technology. Years of experience also show that there was no statistically significant difference in the mean values of the study sample students on the contribution of technological applications to enhancing the quality of life for students with disabilities. The same table's results, however, revealed variations in the instructors' degree of technological application knowledge.

The first study question's findings demonstrated that English language instructors in Jordan had a low degree of understanding regarding technological applications and their potential to enhance the learning and teaching process of students with disabilities. Ignorance of this technology suggests ignorance of its significance in raising the quality of life for students with impairments. The lack of technological understanding is consistent with earlier research by Ayyad (2014) and Darwish and Abu Amrah (2018), and it can be explained by the novelty of technology, both internationally and in the Arab world. As a developing country, Jordan finds it difficult to use technology to improve the teaching of students with disabilities because of its high cost and resource requirements. The lack of integration of this aspect into educational curricula and teachers' training programs results in a deficiency of awareness and knowledge among professionals.

The results of did not reveal any statistically significant differences in teachers' level of knowledge about technological applications and their impact on improving the quality of life for students with disabilities based on gender, years of experience, or the field of supportive technology. The fact that neither male nor female teachers took part in any type of technology-related activity or training may account for the absence of obvious disparities. In addition, the poll found that neither gender was motivated or driven to further their personal growth nor stay abreast of technological advancements, and that university curricula did not include any courses on the subject.

Furthermore, the results revealed that there were no statistically significant differences in experience between teachers with fewer than four years, more than four years, and more than eight years. This finding is explained by the similarity in the degree of technological awareness possessed by both novice and expert educators. This has to do with the government's lack of interest and the accountability of relevant organizations and entities in creating advanced assistive technologies, tools, and programs for students with disabilities, particularly in the area of technology.

As a result, no training program seems to be provided to teachers, irrespective of their years of experience, to enhance their abilities and utilize contemporary technology. This is especially true given the minimal funding provided for technology training and use generally, as well as for students with disabilities specifically. This is consistent with Ayyad's (2014) findings, which show that years of experience and gender have had little bearing on the degree of knowledge.

Regarding the assistive disability variable, the findings did not demonstrate statistically significant variations in the teachers' level of understanding regarding technology and its applications to enhance the quality of life, based on the field of work in supportive technology for physical, mental, visual, and auditory disabilities. Professionals in the field of physical and health disabilities made up the bulk of the sample, since these categories encompass a wide range of neurological, skeletal, muscular, and health diseases. When compared to visual and auditory problems, they are more common; therefore, more supportive technology is used. Nevertheless, despite working in diverse industries, teachers' levels of knowledge when it came to technological applications did not significantly differ from one another. This is explained by the fact that many professors are unfamiliar with technology, because it is a relatively new topic of study.

Previous research has shown that this situation closely mirrors the degree of knowledge in many Arab communities and communities worldwide. A developing nation such as Jordan should anticipate a decline in consciousness due to its small size, lack of resources, and delayed technological advancement. This has affected the lack of enthusiasm among organizations and staff members, especially educators from different specialties or categories of disabilities. When it comes to tools and assistive technology for students with disabilities, professionals at state institutions and centers continue to employ antiquated practices without making any effort to stay up to date with advancements in technology. This is particularly true given the few resources at hand and the significant expense involved in creating and utilizing technology and its applications to support and enhance the lives of those with disabilities.

VI. CONCLUSION AND RECOMMENDATIONS

The purpose of this study was to find out what teachers thought about using assistive technology to help students with disabilities. The study's findings demonstrated how little the teachers knew about using assistive technology to teach children with impairments. It also demonstrated that neither gender nor experience characteristics are linked to statistically significant differences. In light of these findings, the study suggests that educators continue to use assistive technology while instructing students with impairments. A number of issues need to be taken care of in order to make education accessible to students with disabilities. These include the availability of assistive technology and educational services from university administrations, as well as the provision of services and awareness of how to use them. In order to improve student access and achieve success in education, institutions should provide the required environment, software/hardware, assistive technology, and educational services.

Special education teachers must be prepared to implement AT to enhance their knowledge and competencies, besides their teaching abilities and expertise in addressing the learning needs of students with disabilities. The findings suggest that special education teachers receive training to improve their AT abilities across a range of domains. Consequently, decision-makers ought to tackle the problems identified here concerning the implementation process. Future studies should consider the opinions of students from various backgrounds, including specialists, researchers, and customers. Furthermore, investigating how learners see technology – both with and without prior knowledge – could be a useful topic for further investigation.

REFERENCES

- [1] Alatoom, N. A., Al-Afef, A. K., Aljedayh, K. S., Al Azzam, T. M., Abumelhim, M. H., & Rababah, M. A. (2022). The future of refuge in the Middle East: Social and political impacts. *Res Militaris*, 12(2), 3410-3418. <https://resmilitaris.net/index.php/resmilitaris/article/view/458>
- [2] 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. *The Education and Science Journal*, 26(4), 148–168. <https://doi.org/10.17853/1994-5639-2024-4-148-168>
- [3] 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>
- [4] Alhabies, F. (2021). The relationship between family socialization patterns and attitudes towards drug use among users and addicts of cannabis and alcohol who wish to be treated in private clinics in Amman, Jordan. *Jordan Journal of Pharmaceutical Sciences*, 14(4), 391-401. <https://archives.ju.edu.jo/index.php/jjps/article/view/107951>
- [5] Al-Habies, F. (2022). Irrational beliefs among Sciences and Human Sciences students at Isra University. *Dirasat: Human and Social Sciences*, 49(2), 573-582.
- [6] Al-Habies, F. A. M. (2021). Relationship between self-esteem and bullying behavior of individuals addicted to stimulants and sedatives post-treatment and aging. *Periodicals of Engineering and Natural Sciences*, 9(3), 632-640. <http://dx.doi.org/10.21533/pen.v9i3.2219>
- [7] Al-Habies, F. A. M., Tarawneh, H., Al, I. D. A. A. N., Tarawneh, H. H., Dawaghreh, S. A., Jawarneh, A. I. A., ... & Alorani, O. I. H. (2024). The impact of Cognitive Behavioral Therapy (CBT) program on anxiety disorder and memory recall. *Periodicals of Engineering and Natural Sciences*, 12(1), 183-190. <http://dx.doi.org/10.21533/pen.v12i1.4005>
- [8] Al-Habies, F. A., Rababa'h, S. Y., & Rababah, M. A. (2024). Obstacles to marriage for Jordanian persons with visual or hearing disabilities from their perspectives. *FWU Journal of Social Sciences*, 18(2), 91-104. <http://doi.org/10.51709/19951272/Summer2024/9>
- [9] Al-Jezawi, H. K., Al-Abdulrazzaq, M. A., Rababah, M. A., & Aldoory, A. H. (2023). Art voicing peaceful protest: Hip-hop and rap in the American and Arabic cultures. *International Journal of Arabic-English Studies*, 24(1), 1–16. <https://doi.org/10.33806/ijaes.v24i1.555>. Retrieved on August 10, 2023.
- [10] Alkhaldi, A. A., Rababah, M. A., Al-Saidat, E. M., Rakhieh, B. M., & Rababah, K. A. (2023). A lexical study of coffee shop signs in Jordan. *International Journal of English Language and Literature Studies*, 12(1), 33–44. DOI: 10.55493/5019.v12i1.4703. Retrieved on September 10, 2023.
- [11] 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. <https://ideas.repec.org/a/asi/ijells/v12y2023i4p384-400id4923.html>
- [12] 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 September 10, 2023.
- [13] Alshare, F., Alkhawaldeh, A. M., & Eneizan, B. M. (2019). Social media website's impact on moral and social behavior of the students of university. *International Journal of Academic Research in Business and Social Sciences*, 9(3), 169-182. <http://creativecommons.org/licenses/by/4.0/legalcode>
- [14] Al-Sous, N., Almajali, D., Al-Radaideh, A., Dahalin, Z., & Dwas, D. (2023). Integrated e-learning for knowledge management and its impact on innovation performance among Jordanian manufacturing sector companies. *International Journal of Data and Network Science*, 7(1), 495-504. <http://growingscience.com/beta/ijds/5810-integrated-e-learning-for-knowledge-management-and-its-impact-on-innovation-performance-among-jordanian-manufacturing-sector-companies.html>
- [15] Banikalef, A. A. (2019). The impact of culture and gender on the production of online speech acts among Jordanian Facebook users. *International Journal of Arabic-English Studies (IJAES)*, 19(2), 395-410. <https://doi.org/10.33806/ijaes2000.19.2.9>
- [16] Banikalef, A. A. (2020). A pragmatic study of swearing objects and expressions in Jordanian Arabic. *International Journal of Linguistics*, 12(3), 195-207. Macrothink Institute.
- [17] Banikalef, A. A. (2020). Discourse analysis of Jordanian online wedding invitation cards during COVID-19 pandemic. *International Journal of English Linguistics*, 10(5), 173-178. The Canadian Center of Science and Education (CCSE). <https://doi.org/10.5539/ijel.v10n5p173>
- [18] Bardaweel, M. R., & Rababah, L. M. (2021). Reasons of using Arabizi among English language students in Jordan. *Jadara Journal for Studies and Research*, 7(1), 17-31. <https://doi.org/10.54161/jrs.v7i1.101>
- [19] 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 June 10, 2023.
- [20] 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>
- [21] Harara, N. M., Amarneh, E. F., Al Hammouri, R. N., Rababah, M. A., Rababah, L., & El-Omari, A. H. (2024). The Effect of Osborn's Model on Developing Students' Rhetoric Concepts. *Journal of Language Teaching and Research*, 15(4), 1072-1082. <https://doi.org/10.17507/jltr.1504.05>
- [22] Hatamleh, I. H. M., Safori, A. O., Ahmad, A. K., & Al-Etoum, N. M. D. I. (2023). Exploring the interplay of cultural restraint: the relationship between social media motivation and subjective happiness. *Social Sciences*, 12(4), 228. <https://doi.org/10.3390/socsci12040228>
- [23] Hatamleh, I. H. M., Safori, A. O., Habes, M., Tahat, O., Ahmad, A. K., Abdallah, R. A. Q., & Aissani, R. (2023). Trust in social media: Enhancing social relationships. *Social Sciences*, 12(7), 416. <https://doi.org/10.3390/socsci12070416>

- [24] Kisanga, S. E., & Kisanga, D. H. (2022). The role of assistive technology devices in fostering the participation and learning of students with visual impairment in higher education institutions in Tanzania. *Disability and Rehabilitation: Assistive Technology*, 17(7), 791-800. <https://doi.org/10.1080/17483107.2020.1817989>
- [25] Lersilp, S., Putthinoi, S., & Chakpitak, N. (2016). Model of providing assistive technologies in special education schools. *Global Journal of Health Science*, 8(1), 36. <https://doi.org/10.5539%2Fgjhs.v8n1p36>
- [26] Lersilp, T. (2016). Assistive technology and educational services for undergraduate students with disabilities at universities in Northern Thailand. *Procedia Environmental Sciences*, 36, 61-64. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.proenv.2016.09.012>
- [27] Malcolm, M. P., & Roll, M. C. (2017). The impact of assistive technology services in post-secondary education for students with disabilities: Intervention outcomes, use-profiles, and user-experiences. *Assistive technology*, 29(2), 91-98. <https://doi.org/10.1080/10400435.2016.1214932>
- [28] 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 September 12, 2023.
- [29] Malkawi, N., Al-Slaihat, M. M., Al Basal, N. M. A., Sakarneh, M., Alkhalidi, 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 September 12, 2023.
- [30] Marouli, C. (2021). Sustainability education for the future? Challenges and implications for education and pedagogy in the 21st century. *Sustainability*, 13(5), 2901. <https://doi.org/10.3390/su13052901>
- [31] McNicholl, A., Desmond, D., & Gallagher, P. (2023). Assistive technologies, educational engagement and psychosocial outcomes among students with disabilities in higher education. *Disability and rehabilitation. Supportive technology*, 18(1), 50–58. <https://doi.org/10.1080/17483107.2020.1854874>
- [32] 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), 55-77. <https://doi.org/10.33423/jhetp.v23i14.6389>
- [33] Melhim, M. H. A., Al-Shurman, Y. M., Zainelabdin, F. A., Rabab'a, Y. A., Bani Saeed, R. A., & Rababah, M. A. (2023). ISIS' Miscontextualization of Hadith through Strategic Linguistic Propaganda: A Socio-political Analysis. *Journal of Islamic Thought and Civilization*, 13(1), 90–102. <https://doi.org/10.32350/jitc.131.07>. Retrieved on September 11, 2023.
- [34] Qudeisat, L., & Rababah, L. (2021). A sign is worth a thousand words: Jordanian shop signs in various languages. *Jadara Journal for Studies and Research*, 7(1), 5-16. <https://doi.org/10.54161/jrs.v7i1.100>
- [35] 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>
- [36] Rababah, L. M., Rababah, M. A., & Al-Khawaldeh, N. N. (2024). Graduate Students' ChatGPT Experience and Perspectives during Thesis Writing. *International Journal of Engineering Pedagogy*, 14(3), 11-24. <https://search.ebscohost.com/login.aspx?direct=true&profile=ehost&scope=site&authtype=crawler&jrnl=21924880&AN=176617900&h=YEz0vCfyWGdtLAdmR2MAjOHwLAPe0SxmIJL2sDiRGE2VoCEpjkiqi0iPSeZ7yuKPIcCb6%2BKg8ZZTF8p hwdA%3D%3D&crl=c>
- [37] 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-2023-2304-01>
- [38] 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. *Education and Science*, 25(5), 176-194. <https://doi.org/10.17853/1994-5639-2023-5-176-194>
- [39] Shalghin, A. (2014). Time, waiting, and entrapment in Samuel Beckett. *International Journal of Humanities and Social Science*, 4(9), 101-117. <https://www.academia.edu/download/78563638/13.pdf>
- [40] Shalghin, A. (2023). The role of literature and art in constructing social thoughts. *Journal of Southwest Jiaotong University*, 38(5), 111-130. <https://doi.org/10.35741/issn.0258-2724.58.3.49>
- [41] Silman, F., Yاران, H., & Karanfiller, T. (2017). Use of supportive technology for teaching-learning and administrative processes for visually impaired people. *Eurasia Journal of Mathematics, Science & Technology Education*, 13(8), 4805-4813. <https://doi.org/10.12973/eurasia.2017.00945a>
- [42] Tashtoush, R., & Al-Qashaar, M. (2017). Quality of life and self-esteem among diabetics in Jordan (in Arabic). *The Jordanian Journal of Educational Sciences*, 13(2), 133-151.
- [43] Waldron, A., Spencer, D. & Batt, C. (2006). The current state of public understanding of technology. *Journal of Nanoparticle Research*, 8(5), 569–575. <https://doi.org/10.1007/s11051-006-9112-7>
- [44] Wolor, C. H., Datu Eranza, D. R., Rababah, M. A., & Nurkhin, A. (2023). Relationship of work-family conflict, work-life imbalance, and work-related stress with employee performance of married women in Indonesia: A cross-sectional study (Persian). *Iranian Journal of Psychiatry and Clinical Psychology*, 29(3), 350-369. <https://doi.org/10.32598/ijpcp.29.3.4713.1>
- [45] Wolor, C. W., Eranza, D. R. D., Rababah, M. A., Nurkhin, A., & Hoo, W. C. (2024). The impact of interpersonal trust development on maintaining business sustainability: A case study of Aceh Gayo coffee from Sumatera, Indonesia. *Journal of Infrastructure, Policy and Development*, 8(6), 1-12. <https://doi.org/10.24294/jipd.v8i6.3947>
- [46] Wolor, C. W., Eranza, D. R. D., Rababah, M. A., Nurkhin, A., & Wibawa, E. A. (2024). Sexual harassment and its impact on employees. *Universal Journal of Public Health*, 12(1), 91-100. <https://doi.org/10.13189/ujph.2024.120109>
- [47] Wolor, C. W., Wibawa, E. A., Eranza, D. R. D., Nurkhin, A., & Rababah, M. A. (2024). Impact of bullying on work motivation and job satisfaction. *Health Psychology Report*, 1(11), 1-12. <https://doi.org/10.5114/hpr/166427>
- [48] 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), 169-177. <https://doi.org/10.33423/jhetp.v23i7.6021>

- [49] Yassin, A. A., Razak, N. A., Saeed, M. A., Al-Maliki, M. A. A., & Al-Habies, F. A. (2021). Psychological impact of the COVID-19 pandemic on local and international students in Malaysian universities. *Asian Education and Development Studies*, 10(4), 574-586. <https://doi.org/10.1108/AEDS-05-2020-0098>
- [50] Алаззам, А. А. Аль-Шокран, А. А. К., Сулейман, Б. М., Рабабах, М. А., Аль-Хавамде, Б. М., Аль-Маразик, И. А. М., ... & Аль-Хабис, Ф. А. М. (2024). Связь между психологическим стрессом и осознанностью среди выдающихся учеников на основном этапе школьного образования. *Образование и наука*, 26(4), 148-168. <https://doi.org/10.17853/1994-5639-2024-4-148-168>

Omar Ismail Alorani has a PhD in psychological and educational counseling. He teaches at the University of Jordan in the Special Education and Counselling Department. His areas of interest are rehabilitation counselling, psychotherapy, and psychological disorders. Email: o.alorani@ju.edu.jo <https://orcid.org/0000-0002-7698-3686>

Sarp Erkir is an associate professor at the American University of the Middle East in Kuwait. His research interests include ways of incorporating educational technologies and using literature in the language classroom, along with curriculum design and development.

Suzie Yaseen Rababa'h is an assistant professor at Jadara University, Jordan. Her research interests include ways of incorporating educational technologies and curriculum design and development.

Baker Mohammad Bani-Khair is an associate professor of English language and literature at The Hashemite University, Faculty of Arts, Department of English, Jordan. His research interests include educational technologies and literature.

Ali Ata Alkhaldi is an associate professor of applied linguistics at the American University of the Middle East in Kuwait. His research interests include creative and business writing, literature, curriculum development, SLA theories, TESOL, and ESP/EAP.

Mahmoud Ali Rababah has a PhD in Applied Linguistics. He teaches at Al-Balqa Applied University, Irbid University College, Department of English Language and Literature. His areas of interest are applied linguistics, socio-pragmatics, sociolinguistics, and translation. mrababah@bau.edu.jo, <https://orcid.org/0000-0002-0930-4030>

Basma Mohammad Al-Hawamdeh is an assistant professor, Department of Curricula and Instruction, Faculty of Educational Sciences, University of Jerash; ORCID 0000-0003-1523-0661; Jerash, Jordan. Email: b.hawamdeh@jpu.edu.jo

Abdelsalam Fahad Al-Awamrah is an associate professor at the University of Jordan, Faculty of Arts, Department of Educational Leadership and Fundamentals. His areas of interest include educational leadership. Email: a.awamrah@ju.edu.jo. ORCID: 0000-0002-8827-1723

Feras Ali Al-Alhabees is an associate professor at the University of Jordan, Faculty of Arts, Department of Psychology. His areas of interest include clinical psychology, addiction psychology, criminal psychology, and social psychology.

Perceptions of Middle School Arabic Language Teachers Towards the Development of Argumentative Writing Skills

Abeer S. AlSalem

Department of Curriculum and Instruction, Faculty of Education, Imam Mohammad Ibn Saud Islamic University, the Kingdom of Saudi Arabia

Abstract—This study examined Arabic language teachers' conception of argumentative writing and their perceptions towards developing argumentative writing skills among middle school students. It also sought to identify the factors that affect or hinder teachers' implementation of teaching argumentative writing skills in middle schools in the Kingdom of Saudi Arabia. The study employed a mixed-method approach with a sequential explanatory design. The study collected data from 260 middle school Arabic language teachers using a structured questionnaire with five sections covering: their conceptions of argumentative writing, their conceptions of argumentative writing skills, their perceptions of the importance of developing these skills in middle school students, their perceptions of the requirements for developing these skills, and their perceptions of the obstacles to developing these skills. Additionally, a semi-structured interview was conducted with nine female teachers to provide qualitative insights and further contextualize the quantitative survey findings. The findings revealed that middle school Arabic language teachers held a moderate level of perceptions towards the development of argumentative writing skills among their students. Based on these findings, the study recommended that the Arabic language curricula in Saudi middle schools should place a greater emphasis on cultivating argumentative writing skills, given their importance in refining students' personalities and enhancing their ability to express opinions and persuade others.

Index Terms—Teachers Perceptions, Arabic language teachers, Saudi middle schools, argumentative writing

I. INTRODUCTION

Writing is a fundamental skill that serves as a means of effectively expressing ideas, conveying thoughts and emotions, and communicating knowledge (Dastjerdi & Samian, 2011). It is an essential aspect of academic achievement, as students must not only master the linguistic elements of writing, such as grammar and terminology, but also become familiar with the conventions of academic writing accepted in educational contexts (Teng & Zhang, 2016).

The ability to write effectively is crucial for a wide range of purposes, from creating engaging and influential stories to formulating convincing arguments and points of view. Writing forms the basis for critical thinking and deep analysis, making it a vital component in developing comprehensive language skills and understanding diverse topics (Foster, 2002; Perin, 2013). However, writing is not a naturally acquired skill; it must be learned through formal instruction and constant practice. Even learners writing in their first language (L1) often exhibit various levels of linguistic, stylistic, and discursal flaws (Myles, 2002). The writing process involves more than just the creation of text; it requires focused attention, the ability to redirect one's ideas, and self-monitoring throughout the various stages (Harris et al., 2003). Furthermore, the skills necessary for effective writing, such as high order thinking and extensive practice, are challenging to develop (Jacobson & Reid, 2010). Therefore, writing is an art and a skill that requires dedicated training and development to achieve creativity and effective influence in the world.

In Saudi Arabia, the importance of developing effective writing skills has become increasingly apparent, particularly with the announcement of the Saudi Vision 2030 initiative, which aims to diversify the Saudi economy and promote the inclusion of women in both public and professional spheres (Saleh & Malibari, 2021). Regardless of one's profession or field of specialization, the ability to communicate effectively through writing is critical, as it enables individuals to clearly express their ideas, concepts, and feelings, while also contributing to enhanced cooperation, persuasive speech, and problem-solving (Mason et al., 2013).

Argumentative writing, in particular, is a fixture of modern life and a crucial skill for academic, professional, and personal success. This type of writing involves examining an issue, developing an argument with sufficient evidence, recognizing and countering opposing ideas, and making a claim leading to action (Anderson, 2010; Song & Ferretti, 2013). Proficiency in argumentative writing can also enable students to advocate for more challenging and complex learning experiences, thereby enhancing their academic self-concept (Anderson, 2010). Moreover, in an era characterized by digital communication, the ability to craft compelling arguments has become increasingly important, as it affects the quality and impact of online interactions, social media presence, and the structure of personal identity (Wolfe, Britt &

Butler, 2009). Therefore, investing in improving argumentative writing skills is important to enable individuals to excel in academic, professional, and personal fields alike (Ismail, 2010; Schulze, 2013).

In the Arabic speaking context, the distinct style and structure of Arabic writing is deeply rooted in the influence of the Holy Quran. According to Besston (1970; as cited in Alnofel, 2003), the very method of Arabic writing derives directly from the Quranic text. This connection is further corroborated by Ostler's (1987) observation that the written Arabic language as a whole has been greatly shaped by the unique style of the Quranic Arabic. This Quranic influence extends even to the realm of argumentative writing in Arabic. The way arguments are constructed and presented in the Arabic written tradition differs significantly from the Western approach (Koch, 1983). While Western argumentative writing relies on a logical structure that goes beyond the mere words used, Arabic argumentation tends to focus on conveying the core notion or idea using a more concise, compact expression. The emphasis is on the essence of the argument rather than an elaborate, step-by-step logical progression.

Despite the increasing exposure of Arab countries to Western civilization and the widespread teaching of the English language in schools over the past century, the teaching and application of effective writing strategies in the Arabic language has lagged behind that of the English language (Alshammari, 2016). This gap is further supported by related studies, such as Alnofil's (2003) investigation into the differences and similarities between the writing strategies employed by Saudi learners when composing in their native language (L1) of Arabic versus their second language (L2) of English. The findings revealed that participants had received significantly more training and practice in utilizing pre-writing and post-writing strategies when writing in English compared to when writing in Arabic. These results align with earlier studies that also documented the tendency of Saudi students to apply more sophisticated writing strategies in their L2 English rather than their L1 Arabic (Muhammad, 2001).

Furthermore, Al-Ali's (1998; as cited in Alnofil, 2003) observation suggests that Arabic writing instruction at the high school level tends to be limited to the basics of orthography, grammar, and organization, without adequately addressing the quality and sophistication of the writing process. The present study aims to address this gap by investigating the specific challenges and opportunities in enhancing the teaching and learning of argumentative writing strategies within the Arabic language context. By shedding light on this underexplored area, the study has the potential to contribute valuable insights for improving Arabic writing instruction and supporting the development of more effective written communication skills among Arabic language learners.

II. LITERATURE REVIEW

A. *The Importance and Characteristics of Argumentative Writing*

Learning how to write is equivalent to learning how to think, since writing is a reflective activity in which students apply their prior knowledge to communicate a relevant message to their readers (Graham et al., 2019) and it serves as a visual representation tool for abstract ideas (Saed & Al-Omari, 2014; Zhang, 2018) and information stored in the individual's mind, which facilitates the process of thinking and learning. It has been noted that writing depends on the learner's knowledge and ability to express it effectively through written words, which reflects their use of stored knowledge to convey meaning to readers (Zhang, 2018). Writing also includes a variety of skills such as vocabulary selection, use of grammar, thought process, planning and editing, and review.

Writing is classified into four main types. Firstly, explanatory writing which focuses on presenting information in a logical and objective manner without expressing personal opinions. Secondly, descriptive writing which uses vivid language to enable readers to imagine the experience of a person, an object, or the presentation of a scene using their five senses. Thirdly, argumentative, demonstrative, persuasive, or assertive writing aims to influence the reader's point of view and persuade him to take the writer's point of view. Fourthly, narrative writing which includes narration, whether based on real events or purely fictional, to attract the reader's attention and entertain him (Caulfield, 2020).

This study mainly deals with argumentative writing which includes analyzing a specific topic, constructing a well-supported argument, inferring opposing viewpoints, and identifying claims. When reviewing the literature, it becomes clear that the terms argumentative, "evidential", "confirmatory", and "persuasive" are often used interchangeably as they share some similarities. For example, the author's goal in argumentative texts is to show, persuade, defend a point of view, and draw the reader into the author's thinking (Güneş, 2013). She also describes argumentative writing as the creation of texts that experience, perceive, and express opinions, make predictions, and justify reasons to make them acceptable to others. Likewise, evidential texts relate to examples and opinions from repeated diverse sources to persuade, clarify, and keep the reader in focus (Beyreli & Konuk, 2018).

Argumentative writing is considered a powerful means for inspiring and guiding students on their journey towards constructing meaning (Baghbadorani & Roohani, 2014). Mastering argumentative writing holds great importance for students, especially those students who aspire to pursue higher education (Aziz & Ahmad, 2017). Recent research indicates the positive impact of the strategies for writing development, especially developing argumentative writing skills among language learners (Razavi et al., 2019). In addition, genre-based instruction enhances argumentative writing abilities, focusing on its ability to enrich students' general writing skills (Huang & Liu, 2020).

This type of writing draws its strength from real-life contexts, as it seeks to influence readers through careful choice of words, logical conclusion, and directing it logically and consistently. Argumentative writing enriches critical thinking abilities by enabling individuals to evaluate evidence, construct logical arguments, and anticipate opposing viewpoints

(He, 2022). It is an elaborate form of written communication that requires writers to provide convincing reasons to support their point of view (Aziz et al., 2023).

Argumentative writing also plays a crucial role in enhancing self-confidence among students. Research studies have shown a continuing positive impact of argumentative writing skills on students' self-confidence to enable them to defend their beliefs and articulate their interests, which cultivates a sense of self-advocacy and self-efficacy that extends beyond the walls of the classroom (Zumbrunn et al., 2017). Through effectively communicating their opinions and persuading others, students develop a sense of confidence in themselves and in their ability to express themselves and influence others, and this increased self-confidence translates into other areas of their academic journey, as they become more prepared to actively participate in class discussions, share their opinions, and participate in constructive public discussions (Graham et al., 2019). Moreover, when students engage in the process of formulating arguments, organizing their thoughts, and presenting their ideas persuasively, they gain a sense of empowerment and thus, argumentative writing is considered a valuable tool for enhancing confidence (Elgazzar, 2021).

B. Review of Related Studies

Given the importance of argumentative writing, many studies and research have addressed this topic, such as the study of Uccelli et al. (2013) that examined 51 argumentative essays by students at different school grades in high school. The analysis showed that in addition to text length and complexity, the use of punctuation and expressions significantly predicted writing quality. These findings contribute to the development of evaluation tools to promote effective parenting.

Based on previous studies, it was observed that there was a weakness in argumentative writing skills. As a result, enhancing this vital skill among students is the main goal of many studies, such as the study of Abdullah et al. (2022) which addressed the weakness in critical writing and critical thinking skills among second-year middle school students. The results proved the effectiveness of the confiscated argument strategy in developing those skills. Additionally, the study of Ibrahim et al. (2023) was an attempt to determine the effectiveness of the critical reading and writing curriculum in developing argumentative writing skills among student teachers at the faculty of Education. The results confirmed the effectiveness of the critical reading and writing curriculum in developing argumentative writing skills among student teachers. The study of Zahran (2015) aimed to discover the effectiveness of a program based on inquiry-based learning in developing argumentative writing skills among secondary school students. The results showed that the inquiry-based program helped develop argumentative writing skills.

In Philippakos and MacArthur's (2016) study, the effect of feedback on the quality of students' argumentative writing was reviewed. Fourth and fifth-grade students ($n=145$) were trained in assessment using specific criteria. They were divided into three groups: reviewer, reader-directed, and time-controlled. The results showed that the group of reviewers, compared to the last two groups, incorporated more items addressing opposing viewpoints and produced higher quality final essays on final exams and interim assignments.

Wijekumar et al.'s (2022) study aimed to enhance argumentative writing skills among students in the upper grades of primary school by focusing on three main areas: teaching effective reading strategies, providing education on planning and writing argumentative essays, and using We Write web-based tools to learn and master. During a random experiment that included fifth-grade classes, it was proven that this approach was effective in improving the quality of writing and planning processes, with a noticeable effect size. The study of Abdul Qader (2022) revealed a low level of Arabic language teachers' proficiency in the secondary stage in the Asir region in Saudi Arabia with methods of developing argumentative writing skills.

In their study, Aziz et al. (2023) recommended incorporating Toulmin's model to enhance argumentative essay writing skills among secondary school students in Malaysia. The study analyzed essays of 150 students and found that their proficiency levels and various other factors influenced their use of persuasion elements. By incorporating Toulmin's model into classroom practices, students have been able to improve their strategies when writing argumentative essays and critical thinking skills. The study revealed the existence of a strong, positive correlation between argumentative writing and linguistic sense, and the existence of a moderate correlation between argumentative writing and self-regulation among female third-year secondary school students in Taif, Saudi Arabia.

Recent related studies (e.g., Abdul Qader, 2022; Al-Zahrani, 2023) called for further studies to examine the perceptions of Saudi teachers about developing students' argumentative writing skills and its impact on the progress of students' argumentative writing skills at all educational levels. Therefore, the current study aimed to examine Arabic language teachers' conception of argumentative writing and their perceptions towards developing argumentative writing skills among middle school students. It also sought to identify the factors that affect or hinder teachers' implementation of teaching argumentative writing skills in middle schools in the Kingdom of Saudi Arabia.

The study attempted to answer the following research questions:

1. How do middle school Arabic language teachers conceptualize argumentative writing?
2. What are middle school Arabic language teachers' perceptions towards developing argumentative writing skills in their students?
3. What factors affect or hinder Arabic language teachers' implementation of teaching argumentative writing skills in middle schools in the Kingdom of Saudi Arabia?

III. METHODOLOGY

A. Design

The study employed a sequential explanatory mixed methods research design. This approach involves collecting and analyzing quantitative data in the first phase, followed by the collection and analysis of qualitative data to help explain the initial quantitative results (Creswell, 2009). The motivation for using this mixed methods design was to obtain a more comprehensive understanding of Arabic language teachers' perceptions towards developing argumentative writing skills among middle school students in Saudi Arabia. The quantitative phase would reveal the overall patterns and trends, while the qualitative phase would provide deeper insights to better explain the quantitative findings.

B. Participants

The study population was limited to examining the perceptions of Arabic language teachers towards developing argumentative writing skills in government middle schools in the Riyadh region of the Kingdom of Saudi Arabia due to the regulations of the Saudi Ministry of Education. Arabic language teachers (n=816) who teach in the city of Riyadh, representing the entire original community, were invited to complete the questionnaire which was designed via a Google Form link. It was sent to the teachers through the school groups where they work. In the end, 260 teachers completed the questionnaire and provided responses via the link. The demographic distribution of the sample participating in the study is shown in Table 1.

TABLE 1
DISTRIBUTION OF THE STUDY SAMPLE REGARDING THE DEMOGRAPHIC VARIABLES

N	Variable	Category	Number	Percentage
1	Qualification	BA	202	77.69%
		MA/PHD	58	22.30%
		Total	260	100%
2	Teaching experience	Less than 5 years	72	27.7%
		From 5 to 10 years	108	41.53%
		More than 10 years	80	30.76%
		Total	260	100%
3	Training courses	Less than 5 courses	68	26.15%
		From 5 to 10 courses	110	42.3%
		More than 10 courses	82	31.53%
		Total	260	100%

C. Research Instruments

(a). The Study Questionnaire

The quantitative data was collected through a structured questionnaire. The questionnaire consisted of two main sections. The first section gathered participants' demographic information, such as school location, educational qualification, and teaching experience. The second section was designed to examine Arabic language teachers' conceptions of argumentative writing and their perceptions towards developing argumentative writing skills in middle schools in Saudi Arabia. To measure these conceptions and perceptions, the questionnaire consisted of five sections: the first section focused on the concept of argumentative writing and included 3 items, the second section examined argumentative writing skills and had 5 items, the third section addressed the importance of developing argumentative writing skills and contained 9 items, the fourth section looked at the requirements for developing these skills and had 5 items, and the final section explored the obstacles to developing argumentative writing skills, which included 6 items. Participants responded to each item using a 3-point Likert scale: high (3 points), moderate (2 points), and low (1 point). To evaluate the degree of teachers' conceptions and perceptions, the following criterion was used:

- 1 – 1.67: Low degree of perceptions
- 1.68 – 2.35: Moderate degree of perceptions
- 2.36 – 3: High degree of perceptions

To ensure the validity and reliability of the questionnaire, a pilot study was conducted. Participants provided feedback to improve the language and content. Additionally, three professors evaluated the questionnaire in terms of wording, vocabulary relevance, and data processing accuracy. The reliability analysis using Cronbach's alpha was 0.89, indicating strong internal consistency. The final questionnaire was deemed valid, reliable, and suitable for the study sample.

(b). Semi-Structured Interviews

Face-to-face semi-structured interviews were conducted with nine Arabic language teachers who had responded to the questionnaire. These participants were selected in February 2024 based on four criteria: 1) consent to voluntary participation by completing the consent form, 2) completion of the study questionnaire, 3) experience in teaching Arabic language at the middle school level, and 4) representation of a diverse group in terms of their responses to the questionnaire, educational backgrounds, and school locations. The interviews were conducted by the researcher and two assistant researchers.

The purpose of the interviews was to extract the participants' opinions on the study focus and determine the factors affect or hinder Arabic language teachers' implementation of teaching argumentative writing skills in middle schools. The interview questions were developed based on the questionnaire results and considering the study questions, which helped to obtain a comprehensive view of the participants' perceptions and ideas. The primary language used in the interviews was Arabic to make the interviewees comfortable and help them better understand the questions.

The average duration of each interview was 20 minutes, and the interviews were audio-taped to accurately record the data, with the consent of the participants. To ensure the validity and reliability of the interview questions, three academics reviewed the interview transcripts to verify the understanding of the interviewed teachers and provided the researcher with meaningful suggestions. Additionally, the researcher trained the assistants to be competent in interviewing study participants and recording semi-structured interview data independently and separately, enabling them to discuss interview topics and resolve any discrepancies in recording. After recording and transcribing the interview data, the researcher sent the interview topics to the interviewees to verify the originality and validity of their interviews and obtain final permissions to analyze the qualitative data. These procedures helped the researcher achieve 100% reliability, which is a high degree of agreement on data recording between interviewers.

D. Data Analysis

The data analysis for this study was conducted in two stages: quantitative analysis of the questionnaire data and qualitative analysis of the semi-structured interview data. The questionnaire data was analyzed using the Statistical Package for the Social Sciences (SPSS) software, version 26. Descriptive statistics, including frequencies, percentages, means, and standard deviations, were calculated to describe the participants' responses to the questionnaire items. Additionally, inferential statistics, such as t-tests and one-way ANOVA, were employed to examine any significant differences in the perceptions of Arabic language teachers based on their demographic characteristics, such as teaching experience, educational level, and school location.

The semi-structured interview data was analyzed using thematic analysis. The researcher and the two assistant researchers transcribed the audio recordings of the interviews verbatim. The transcripts were then reviewed multiple times to identify recurring patterns and themes related to the study's objectives. The researchers independently coded the data, and then met to discuss and refine the emerging themes. This process continued until consensus was reached on the final set of themes. The identified themes were further analyzed to provide a comprehensive understanding of the Arabic language teachers' perceptions regarding the concept of argumentative writing, their argumentative writing skills, the importance of developing these skills, the requirements for their development, and the obstacles they face. Relevant quotes from the interview transcripts were used to support the identified themes and provide a rich description of the participants' perspectives.

IV. RESULTS

The results obtained from the analysis of the questionnaire and semi-structured interviews helped to answer the three research questions. To address the first research question about Arabic language teachers' conceptions of argumentative writing, participants' responses to the first section of the questionnaire were analyzed, as presented in Table 2.

TABLE 2
MEANS AND STANDARD DEVIATIONS OF TEACHERS' PERCEPTIONS OF ARGUMENTATIVE WRITING CONCEPT

N	Paragraph	Mean	Standard Deviation	Rank
1	It is a written social linguistic activity practiced by individuals to fulfill some of their social demands	1.73	0.79	Moderate
2	A written process through which the writer provides reasons to justify an issue, by organizing information and ideas about this issue, with the aim of convincing the others.	1.62	0.75	Low
3	A genre of writing that adopts a debatable issue and presents it between the supporting and opposing opinions. With the aim of convincing the reader to take one side, while taking the opinions of the other side into consideration.	1.57	0.73	Low
The overall mean for the first axis		1.64	1.32	Low

As shown in Table 2, the average response of the Arabic language teachers at the middle school level regarding the concept of argumentative writing was low, with an arithmetic mean of 1.64. Specifically, one paragraph received a moderate rating with a mean of 1.73, while two items received low ratings with means of 1.57 and 1.62, respectively. This suggests that the Arabic language teachers have a limited perception of the concept of argumentative writing and a lack of awareness of its educational meaning, which they should aim to develop among their students. This is further evidenced by the statement of one teacher during the interviews, who reported that argumentative writing means the student's ability to provide justifications to the reader about the point of view the student adopts in the text, rather than having a clear and comprehensive definition of this style of writing.

To address the second research question regarding Arabic language teachers' perceptions towards developing argumentative writing skills, the participants' responses to the second section of the questionnaire were analyzed. This section focused on four main elements: skills, importance, requirements, and obstacles related to argumentative writing. The results are presented in Tables 3,4,5, and 6.

TABLE 3
MEANS AND STANDARD DEVIATIONS OF TEACHERS' PERCEPTIONS OF ARGUMENTATIVE WRITING SKILLS

N	Paragraph	Mean	Standard Deviation	Rank
1	Argumentative writing skills include: the skill of identifying claims and evidence supporting an argument, the skill of presenting arguments, the skill of constructing a personal argument, and the skill of formulating an argument.	1.62	0.74	Low
2	The skill of identifying claims includes identifying the main claim, identifying information and knowledge that supports this claim, identifying the ideas in the text, constructing arguments that are consistent with or contradict the ideas in the text, and presenting a clear claim supported by evidence.	1.63	0.75	Low
3	The skill of presenting arguments includes deciding on the quality of the arguments presented and determining the strength and weakness of the argument presented.	1.70	0.77	Moderate
4	The skill of constructing a personal argument includes identifying the opinions of others, presenting opinions in pro or con form, presenting an argument that supports one's position, and providing reasons that justify that position.	1.64	0.75	Low
5	Formulating an argument means being able to reach a conclusion	1.72	0.76	Moderate
The overall mean for the second axis		1.66	1.68	Low

As shown in Table 3, the average response of the Arabic language teachers at the middle school level regarding the sub-skills included in argumentative writing skills was low, with an arithmetic mean of 1.66. Specifically, two items received a moderate rating with means of 1.70 and 1.73, while three items received low ratings with means ranging between 1.62 and 1.64. This suggests that the Arabic language teachers have a limited perception of the specific skills involved in argumentative writing and a lack of awareness of these important skills that they should aim to develop among their students. This is further evidenced by the statement of one teacher during the interviews, who expressed that argumentative writing skills may mean the skills of identifying the ideas in the text and presenting a claim supported by evidence about these ideas. It became clear during the discussion that this teacher does not have a clear understanding of argumentative writing skills, claiming that they may be more appropriate to develop for high school students rather than middle school students.

TABLE 4
MEANS AND STANDARD DEVIATIONS OF TEACHERS' PERCEPTIONS OF THE IMPORTANCE OF DEVELOPING ARGUMENTATIVE WRITING SKILLS

N	Paragraph	Mean	Standard Deviation	Rank
1	The student is exposed to many different ideas and opinions	1.77	0.82	Moderate
2	It contributes to developing students' analytical and critical thinking abilities	1.73	0.81	Moderate
3	It helps students to provide the best means for discussing various claims, solving problems and then achieving.	1.74	0.82	Moderate
4	It helps students prove facts and investigate their validity in various fields	1.81	0.83	Moderate
5	It helps students to take effective roles to participate in political life and various social issues in society	1.80	0.82	Moderate
6	It helps students acquire the ability to present evidence that supports a particular claim, and to review his thinking logically	1.74	0.81	Moderate
7	The student uses it in all areas of knowledge, such as: debates that include judging historical, religious, social, and scientific events.	1.71	0.81	Moderate
8	It helps students discover whether his knowledge is sufficient or insufficient in some topics or issues.	1.70	0.82	Moderate
9	It helps students learn methods of free thinking, speaking, listening and expressing opinions	1.72	0.81	Moderate
The overall mean for the third axis		1.75	2.45	Moderate

Table 4 shows that the average responses of the middle school Arabic language teachers regarding the importance of developing argumentative writing skills among middle school students came with an arithmetic mean of 1.75. For the individual items, all nine items received an arithmetic mean rating of moderate, with values ranging between 1.70 and 1.80. This indicates that the level of perception of Arabic language teachers about the importance of developing argumentative writing skills is moderate, and they are aware of the importance of developing this type of writing among middle school students. One of the teachers also reported during the interview that despite the current Arabic language curricula not paying much attention to developing argumentative writing skills, they believe it is necessary to focus on it in the coming stage due to its significant effects on the level of students' thinking and the development of their linguistic skills: reading, writing, speaking, and listening, in general.

TABLE 5
MEANS AND STANDARD DEVIATIONS OF TEACHERS' PERCEPTIONS REGARDING THE REQUIREMENTS FOR DEVELOPING ARGUMENTATIVE WRITING SKILLS

N	Paragraph	Mean	Standard Deviation	Rank
1	It requires distinguishing between facts and opinions, making a claim, and gathering evidence and proof	1.82	0.81	Moderate
2	It requires awareness of the audience, and considering its characteristics and values, as the readers' reactions represent an essential element on which the student relies when writing the authentic text.	1.77	0.80	Moderate
3	It requires providing multiple reasons for an idea or point of view, evaluating it, and citing scientific facts, statistics, and aphorisms.	1.82	0.80	Moderate
4	Specific linguistic abilities, such as: the ability to express sophisticated language, and to generate and manage arguments effectively	1.78	0.81	Moderate
5	High levels of knowledge and construction of complex sentences to express ideas efficiently.	1.82	0.82	Moderate
The overall mean for the fourth axis		1.80	1.81	Moderate

Table 5 shows that the average responses of the middle school Arabic language teachers regarding the requirements for developing argumentative writing skills came with an arithmetic mean of 1.80. For the individual items, all five items received an arithmetic mean rating of moderate, with values ranging from 1.77 to 1.82. This indicates that the level of perception of Arabic language teachers about the requirements for developing argumentative writing skills is moderate, and that they are somewhat aware of what these requirements entail. One of the teachers also reported during the interview that the requirements for developing argumentative writing skills may be similar to the requirements for developing any type of functional writing, but with the addition of the higher-order thinking skills such as analysis, interpretation, and presenting evidence, due to the nature of argumentative writing.

TABLE 6
MEANS AND STANDARD DEVIATIONS OF TEACHERS' PERCEPTIONS REGARDING OBSTACLES TO DEVELOPING ARGUMENTATIVE WRITING SKILLS

N	Paragraph	Mean	Standard Deviation	Rank
1	Argumentative writing is complex in nature. Writing persuasively is more difficult than speaking persuasively	2.72	0.55	High
2	Argumentative writing represents a cognitive challenge because it requires students to transform knowledge into strong arguments to respond to counterarguments	2.63	0.68	High
3	Lack of basic language skills among middle school students	2.70	0.52	High
4	Students' weak ability to analyze and think critically about complex topics and analyze ideas in depth	2.70	0.56	High
5	Lack of practical training for students on argumentative writing	2.80	0.49	High
6	The teacher's inability to develop students' argumentative writing skills due to lack of knowledge	2.86	0.43	High
The overall mean for the fifth axis		2.73	1.34	High
The overall mean		1.78	5.36	Moderate

Table 6 shows that the average responses of the middle school Arabic language teachers regarding the obstacles to developing argumentative writing skills came with a high arithmetic mean of 2.73. For the individual items, all six items received a high arithmetic average rating, ranging from 2.63 to 2.86. This indicates that the level of perception of Arabic language teachers about the obstacles to developing argumentative writing skills is high, and they are aware of the nature of these obstacles, whether related to the inherent characteristics of argumentative writing itself or related to the students' abilities or teachers' skills, as one of the teachers reported during the interview. The obstacles to developing argumentative writing skills are clear to many teachers due to the nature of this type of writing, which they have not previously been trained on, and which is also not explicitly required by the current Arabic language curricula.

As for the overall result of the level of perception of Arabic language teachers at middle school for developing argumentative writing skills, it came with an arithmetic mean of (1.78) average. This indicates that the teachers' perceptions are moderate, that they have a good understanding of the skills of argumentative writing, especially in the field of its importance, requirements, and obstacles. As for its concept and skills, results were at a lower level due to the lack of knowledge of many of them about the nature of the concept of argumentative writing and its detailed skills.

To answer the third research question about the factors that affect the implementation of teaching argumentative writing skills for middle school students, semi-structured interviews were analyzed. Results revealed that there is a positive perception among middle school Arabic language teachers about developing argumentative writing skills, but they do not have a clear idea about the nature of the skills of this type of writing compared to descriptive writing and other types. The participants explained that one of the factors affecting the implementation of teaching argumentative writing is the students' weak ability to analyze and think critically. Students may have difficulty understanding complex topics and analyzing ideas in depth. This may be due to a lack of critical thinking training in the early stages of education.

One of the participants added another influential factor which is the lack of basic language skills among some students, particularly the difficulty in forming sentences properly or employing vocabulary accurately. Therefore, it becomes difficult to clearly and persuasively express ideas in writing. They also explained that the lack of practical training in argumentative writing is a very important factor, as not enough time may be allocated in the curriculum to teach and practice argumentative writing appropriately. The focus may be more on grammar or descriptive writing.

In addition to a lack of appropriate motivation and support, when teachers do not encourage students to develop argumentative writing skills and provide guidance and constructive feedback, they may not feel like improving this skill. Feeling a lack of self-confidence can be a major obstacle. If a student feels they are unable to write effectively, they may avoid practice and development.

They added that if students do not practice writing regularly outside the classroom, it may be difficult to improve their skills in this area. There are social and cultural factors, such as living conditions and personal challenges, which may affect students' ability to focus and develop their skills.

V. DISCUSSION

The results of this study agreed with the results of previous studies, including Zahran (2015), Salem & Al-Mutairi (2019), Abdulqader (2022), Al-Zahrani (2023), and Issa (2023), which emphasized the importance of developing argumentative writing skills at all school stages, since it enables learners to develop skills of argumentation as well as critical and deductive thinking, enabling students to express themselves and defend their points of view with argument and logic. Besides, students develop the skills of learning, research and communication which lead to reaching the higher levels of Arabic language mastery. Therefore, developing argumentative writing skills has become an urgent necessity in an era in which success and excellence are linked to the extent of the ability to think. Given that argumentative writing is one of the most complex cognitive activities, there were challenges and difficulties that affected the perceptions of middle school Arabic language teachers in the Riyadh region towards developing argumentative writing skills. These are cognitive and structural difficulties that accompany the process of argumentative writing and others related to the structure of argumentative writing, which teachers have not been prepared and trained to address. The literature indicates that any deficiencies in cognitive, perceptual, and linguistic functions affect the acquisition of argumentative writing skills (Salem & Al-Mutairi, 2019), which affects the roles of Arabic language teachers, representing the study sample, in teaching argumentative writing to middle school students.

VI. CONCLUSION

The current research examined Arabic language teachers' conception of argumentative writing and their perceptions towards developing argumentative writing skills among middle school students, aiming to help students develop their abilities to express opinions and construct proper arguments that support these opinions, providing students with the opportunity to learn methods of free thinking, self-expression, organizing ideas, drawing conclusions, and generating creative abilities and expressing them in a written form, as Saudi society needs prominent individuals who are distinguished by the ability to express their opinions, feelings and thoughts through written texts.

Although the research showed that the degree of perceptions of Arabic language teachers was between weak and moderate, their interviews confirmed their conviction of the necessity of developing argumentative writing skills as means for critical, analytical, and creative thinking and the production of meanings and ideas they require. Consequently, the research recommends the need to train Arabic language teachers to employ argumentative writing skills in their teaching and develop the linguistic argumentation included in the research instrument, which showcased the teachers' weakness in these skills.

The findings of this study have important pedagogical implications. There is a need for extensive professional development programs to equip Arabic language teachers with the knowledge and strategies to effectively teach argumentative writing skills. Additionally, the Arabic language curriculum should be revised to place greater emphasis on the development of argumentative writing skills at the middle school level.

Though the study reached key findings, it has two notable limitations. The research was limited to middle school Arabic language teachers, potentially limiting the generalizability to other grade levels. Additionally, the study relied on self-reported teacher data, which may be subject to bias. Future research could expand the sample to examine perceptions across grade levels and incorporate classroom observations and student data for a more comprehensive understanding of argumentative writing skill development.

ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

The author would like to thank the Arabic language teachers who generously participated in this study and shared their valuable insights and experiences. Thanking goes as well to Imam Mohammad Ibn Saud Islamic University.

REFERENCES

- [1] Abdulqader, M. (2022). Mustawa Tamakun Mo'almy Allogha Alarabya Bil Marhala Althanwaya Min Asalib Tanmyt Maharat Alketraba Aliqna'ya. [The Level of Mastery of Arabic Language Teachers at the Secondary Stage with Methods Develop Persuasive Writing Skills] *Journal of Scientific Research in Education*, Ain Shams University, 18(4), 202-224. <https://search.mandumah.com/Record/1351675>
- [2] Abdullah, A., Mohammed, M. & Nazir, W. (2022). *The Effect of Counterarguments Strategy on Developing Persuasive Writing Skills in the English language and Critical thinking Skills for Secondary School Students*. Master thesis. Helwan university, faculty of education.

- [3] Al Zahrany, M. (2023). Mahrat Alketaba Aliqna'ya Wa 'Elaqataha Bilhes Elloghawy Wa Atanzeem Alzaty Lada Talebat Asaf Althaleth Althanawy Bi Ta'ef. [Self-Regulation and Sense Linguistic the to its and Writing Persuasive Skills of third year secondary school students in Taif]. *Arab Bureau Education for Gulf States*, 44(167), 38-56.
- [4] Alnofal, A. I. (2003). *Arabic first language writing and English second language writing processes: a comparative study* (Doctoral dissertation, University of Kansas, Teaching and Leadership).
- [5] Alshammari, S. (2016). *Improving Saudi English Learners' Second-Language Acquisition in Argumentative Writing Through Self-Regulated Strategy Development*. (Doctoral dissertation, University of Kansas).
- [6] Anderson, S. (2010). *Gifted Voices: A Study of High School Students' Proficiency in Persuasive Writing and Their Perceptions of Personal Agency*. (Doctoral Dissertation, University of Denver).
- [7] Aziz, F. & Ahmad, U. (2017). Persuasive writing: How students argue. *Sains Humanika*, 9(4-2).
- [8] Aziz, F. Salam, S. & Said, S. (2023). Improving English Persuasive Writing in Malaysia: A Recommendation. *Asian Journal of Research in Education and Social Sciences*, 5(2), 63-72.
- [9] Baghbadorani, E. & Roohani, A. (2014). The impact of strategy-based instruction on L2 learners' persuasive writing. *Procedia-Social and Behavioral Sciences*, 98, 235-241.
- [10] Caulfield, J. (2020, September 4). The Four Main Types of Essay: Quick Guide with Examples
- [11] Creswell, J. (2009). *Research design qualitative, quantitative, and mix methods approaches* (3rd ed.). California, USA: SAGE Publication, Inc.
- [12] Dastjerdi, H. & Samian, S. H. (2011). Quality of Iranian EFL learners' argumentative essays: Cohesive devices in focus. *Mediterranean journal of social sciences*, 2(2), 65-76.
- [13] Davis, M. & Robinson, P. (2017). Written Communication and Professional Credibility. *Journal of Business Communication*, 40(5), 312-327.
- [14] Elgazzar, S. (2021). The impact of persuasive writing on students' self-confidence in the EFL context. *Journal of Language Teaching and Research*, 12(1), 1-14.
- [15] Foster, D. (2002). Making the transition to university: Student writers in Germany. In D. Foster & D. Russell (Eds.), *Writing and learning in cross-national perspective: Transitions from secondary to higher education* (pp. 192-241). Mahwah, NJ: Lawrence Erlbaum Associates.
- [16] Graham, S., Harris, K. R., & Santangelo, T. (2019). Research-based writing practices and the common core: Meta-analysis and meta-synthesis. *The Elementary School Journal*, 120(3), 436-461.
- [17] Güneş, F. (2013). *Türkçe öğretimi yaklaşımlar ve modeller*. [Approaches and Models in Teaching Turkish]. Ankara: Pegem Akademi Publishing.
- [18] Harris, K.R., Graham, S., & Mason, L. (2003). Self-regulated strategy development in the classroom: Part of a balanced approach to writing instruction for students with disabilities. *Focus on Exceptional Children*, 35, 1-16.
- [19] Huang, Y., & Liu, J. (2020). Developing EFL Students' Persuasive Writing Ability through Genre-based Instruction. *English Teaching & Learning*, 44(2), 187-213.
- [20] Kamal, S. (2023). Using Critical Literacy Approach for Developing Some EFL Persuasive Writing Skills among Student Teachers at Faculty of Education. *Benha Journal of Education*, 34(133), 1-26. <https://doi.org/10.21608/jfeb.2023.314121>
- [21] Ismail, S. (2010). *Arabic and English persuasive writing of Arabs from a contrastive rhetoric perspective* (Doctoral dissertation, Indiana University of Pennsylvania).
- [22] Issa, M. A. A. (2023). A Program in Extensive Reading Based on the Theory of Linguistic Argumentation to Develop the Skills of Analytical Argumentative Reading and Persuasive Writing for Non-Native Speakers of Arabic. *Journal of Scientific Research in Education*, 24(5), 224-294. doi: 10.21608/jsre.2023.217219.1577
- [23] Jacobson, L. & Reid, R. (2010). Improving the Persuasive Essay Writing of High School Students with ADHD. *Exceptional children*, 76(2), pp. 157-174.
- [24] Jusun, K. & Yunus, M. (2016). The effectiveness of using sentence makers in improving writing performance among pupils in Lubok Antu rural schools. *International Conference on Education (ICE2) 2018: Education and Innovation in Science in the Digital Era*, 469- 475.
- [25] Beyreli, L. & Konuk, S. (2018). A Research on The Improvement of Persuasive Writing Skill of Sixth Grade Students in Secondary School. *TED EĞİTİM VE BİLİM*, 43(193). 181-215. <https://doi.org/10.15390/EB.2018.7520k>
- [26] Mason, L. H., Kubina, R. M., Kostewicz, D. E., Cramer, A. M., & Datchuk, S. (2013). Improving quick writing performance of middle-school struggling learners. *Contemporary Educational Psychology*, 38(3), 236-246.
- [27] Muhammad, H. A. (2001) *Arabic composition: Theoretical studies and practical models*. Riyadh, Saudi Arabia: Obaikan Bookstore.
- [28] Myles, J. (2002). Second language writing and research: The writing process and error analysis in student texts. *TESL-EJ*, 6(2), 1-20.
- [29] Ostler, S. E. (1987). *A Study of the Contrastive Rhetoric of Arabic, English, Japanese, and Spanish: By Shirley Elaine Ostler* (Doctoral dissertation, University of Southern California).
- [30] Perin, D. (2013). Best practices in teaching writing for college and career readiness. In Graham, S., MacArthur, C. A., & Fitzgerald, J. (Eds.), *Best practices in writing instruction*. (pp. 48-70). New York, NY: Guilford Press.
- [31] Philippakos, Z. & MacArthur, C. (2016). The effects of giving feedback on the persuasive writing of fourth- and fifth-grade students. *Reading Research Quarterly*, 51(4), 419-433.
- [32] Razavi, A., Akbari, R., & Motallebzadeh, K. (2019). The Impact of Writing Selfregulation Strategy Development (SRSD) on Promoting EFL Learners' Argumentative Writing Performance. *International Journal of Instruction*, 12(2), 155-174.
- [33] Saeed, H. & Al-Omari, H. (2014). The effectiveness of a proposed program based on a mind mapping strategy in developing the writing achievement of eleventh grade EFL students in Jordan and their attitudes towards writing. *Journal of Education and Practice*, 5(18), 88-110.
- [34] Saleh, W., & Malibari, A. (2021). Saudi Women and Vision 2030: Bridging the Gap? *Behavioral. Sciences.*, 11(10), 132; <https://doi.org/10.3390/bs11100132>

- [35] Salem, M. & Al Matry, F. (2019). *Athr Altaqem Aldinamyky Altafa'uly Wa Atharuh Fi Tahseen Alketaba Aliqna'ya Lada Ghayer Nateqeen Bil Arabya Min Alkobbar*. [Interactive Dynamic Assessment and Its Impact on Improving Argumentative Writing among Non-Arabic Speaking Adults]. The Eighth International Conference of the International Council for the Arabic Language, Dubai, April 11-13, First conference book, 160-178.
- [36] Schulze, Joshua (2013). *Supporting the Persuasive Writing Practices of English Language Learners through Culturally Responsive Systemic Functional Pedagogy*. (Doctoral dissertation, University of Massachusetts).
- [37] Song, Y., & Ferretti, R. P. (2013). Teaching critical questions about argumentation through the revising process: effects of strategy instruction on college students' argumentative essays. *Reading and Writing*, 26(1), 67-90.
- [38] Teng, L.S., & Zhang, L.J. (2016). Fostering strategic learning: The development and validation of the writing strategies for motivational regulation questionnaire (WSMRQ). *Asia-Pacific Education Researcher*, 25, 123-134.
- [39] Uccelli, P., Dobbs, C. & Scott, J. (2013). Mastering academic language: Organization and stance in the persuasive writing of high school students. *Written Communication*, 30(1), 36-62.
- [40] Wijekumar, K. K., Harris, K. R., Graham, S., & Lei, P. (2022). A teacher technology tango shows strong results on 5th graders persuasive writing. *Educational technology research and development*, 70(4), 1415-1439.
- [41] Wolf, C.R., Britt, A., and Butler, J.A. (2009). Argumentation schema and the myside bias in written argumentation. *Written Communication*, 26(3), 183-207. doi: 10.1177/0741088309333019.
- [42] Zahran, N., Fahmy, I. & Abd El Azim, R. (2015). *Birnamij Qa'em Ala Ata'lom Alesteqsa'y Litanmyt Maharat 'Alketaba Aliqna'ya Lada Tolab Almarhala Althanawya* [An Inquiry-Based Learning Program for the Development of Persuasive Writing Skills among High School Students]. *Journal of Scientific Research in Education*, Ain Shams University, 16(1), 265-304. Doi: 10.21608/jsre.2015.13727
- [43] Zhang, Y. (2018). A contrastive study on the application of mind maps in argumentative writing instruction for EFL Learners. *English Language Teaching*, 11(12), 93-100.
- [44] He, Y. (2022). Using Genre-Based Approach to Teach Persuasive Netvertisement for English Learners in a Chinese Vocational College. *Arab World English Journal*, 13(1), 173-195; <https://dx.doi.org/10.24093/awej/vol13no1.12>
- [45] Zumbrunn, S., Bruning, R., & Hinton, C. (2017). The influence of a strategy-focused writing intervention on the argumentative writing performance of struggling adolescent writers. *Reading and Writing*, 30(2), 313-336.

Abeer Alsalem is currently an Associate Professor specializing in Curricula and methods of teaching Arabic language at the College of Education, Imam Mohamed Ibn Saud Islamic University. She obtained her MA degree in Curricula and teaching methods from the College of Education, Imam Mohamed Ibn Saud University in 2009. Her dedication to scholarly pursuits led her to successfully complete her doctoral studies in Philosophy, specializing in Curricula and teaching methods in Curriculum and Instruction, from the College of Education at Southern Illinois University in 2015. Throughout her career, Dr. Alsalem has held various significant positions at Imam University, including serving as the Assistant to the Deputy of the Female Student Study Centre from 2004 to 2005, as a Member of the Quality Committee of the Education Department at the Girls' Study Centre from 2009 to 2010, as the Vice Dean of University Development Deanship from 2017 to 2020, and as the Head of the writing team for university graduates' capabilities indicators (verbal part) in 2023. Her research interests include Arabic Language teaching, First Language teaching and learning, Curricula development, and Teacher Education. She actively participates in several professional associations, including the Saudi Society for Educational and Psychological Sciences, the Illinois Association of Teacher Educators, Kappa Alpha Psi, and the Golden Key International Honour Society. Her scholarly contributions are noteworthy, with ten research articles published in prestigious journals.

Dissenting Female Voices: A Comparative Reading of Nathaniel Hawthorne's *The Scarlet Letter* and Fadia Faqir's *My Name Is Salma*

Najah A. Alzoubi*

Department of English Language and Literature, Faculty of Arts, The Hashemite University, Zarqa, Jordan

Motasim O. Almwajeh

Department of English Language and Literature, Faculty of Arts, The Hashemite University, Zarqa, Jordan

Abdullah F. Al-Badarneh

Department of English Language and Literature, Faculty of Arts, The Hashemite University, Zarqa, Jordan

Haitham M. Talafha

Department of English Language and Literature, Faculty of Arts, The Hashemite University, Zarqa, Jordan

Abstract—The female protagonists in Nathaniel Hawthorne's *The Scarlet Letter* (1850) and Fadia Faqir's *My Name Is Salma* (2007) face similar themes and explore the effects of adultery on women. Despite their different temporal, geographical, and cultural contexts, the novels fight oppression and marginalization. The authors carefully and delicately place the stories in a framework of crimes, marginalization, and dissent. The researchers use feminist critical analysis of the two texts to build an innovative argument that highlights the texts' many dissents. Hester Prynne's and Salma Ibrahim El-Musa's internal and external battles about giving up their lives, identities, and daughters disrupt cultural and religious standards. Hester commits adultery, refuses to reveal her daughter's biological father, and is, therefore, punished. Likewise, an illegitimate premarital affair impregnates Salma, and thus she is at risk of an honor murder. Hester and Salma resist being hushed, abused, and marginalized.

Index Terms—adultery, alienation, dissent, gender, honor

I. INTRODUCTION

Across the globe, millions of women are victims of various forms of physical and psychological violence, which leaves permanent scars and limits their potential. According to Cixous (1981), women are compelled to embrace their subordination as depicted through the metaphor of “decapitation” within the realm of cultural education. Women are commonly portrayed as silenced individuals who severely experience the brunt of patriarchal society and religious constraints, regardless of temporal or geographical contexts. O'Malley (2015) mentions that “the speech of Hawthorne's self-motivated and articulate men is tied to their penchant for facility with governance, capital, and self-actualization, while his women, no matter how vibrant, eventually fall silent” (p. 657). In patriarchal societies, women are often seen as subservient and inferior to men.

Puritans severely prohibited extramarital sex and placed a high value on marriage and family. but they treated sinning men and women differently, as demonstrated in Hawthorne's *The Scarlet Letter* where Hester is punished, and Dimmesdale is left without questioning. Except in extreme circumstances of assault, adultery, and desertion, divorce was rare among the Puritans. This is a double-edged sword, as many women were denied of the most basic rights of happiness and liberty. Reading both texts, one can decipher the myriad of correspondences between them resulting from the analogous sociocultural contexts—the Puritans' treatment of women is much like some contemporary Arabs' perspectives on gender hierarchies. Culture and customs still impede Arab women's independence in the 21st century. Women's responsibilities to society have traditionally been confined to marriage, childbearing, and helping men cultivate and raise animals to support their families. In the Arab region, patriarchal societies prevent women from exercising their numerous social and political rights. Sisters, daughters, and wives are perceived as men's property. Both novels present very strong female figures who endorse revolutionary views on different aspects of life and liberty.

II. LITERATURE REVIEW

* Corresponding Author. Email: najaha@hu.edu.jo

Since its publication in 1850, Hawthorne's *The Scarlet Letter* has garnered significant attention and scrutiny from scholars and literary critics alike. While Wulansari (2017) focuses on adultery, Jayasimha (2014) deals with disloyalty and shame conflicts. Kilborne (2003) interprets the novel as a pure feminist piece. Wang (2010) prioritizes the Postmodern feminist aspects of the novel. Zayed (2023) demonstrates the influence of Puritan culture on American society, the concepts of self-sufficiency, independence, repentance, and penitence. Taylor (2005) tackles aspects of individuality and community.

Faqir's *My Name is Salam*, on the other hand, serves as a platform for exploring a range of cultural, socioeconomic, and feminist themes about Arab women, with a particular emphasis on Bedouin culture. Additionally, Sarnou (2015) and Sarnou (2017) delve into the analysis of various themes about Arab women, including their alienation, invisibility, marginalization, oppression, and lack of agency. Moreover, Lasri and Mouro (2019) and Aziz (2018) explore the concepts of identity and diaspora within the Arab context as well as the interplay between identity and modernity. Ghasemi et al. (2021) examine the theme of post-traumatic stress disorder. Hussein (2019) provides an analysis of Salma's predicament and her struggle to navigate the conflicting forces of her past and present circumstances. Salma endeavors to emancipate herself from the customs prevalent in her conservative neighborhood, exhibiting little assimilation into English culture and enduring a marginalized existence as a citizen of secondary status.

Although the novels' primary female characters have been analyzed from every conceivable angle, we have not found a single study demonstrating any intersections or conclusive relationships between both texts. Hester and Salma are stigmatized by society for engaging in adultery, which is in direct opposition to the rules and ideals of their respective traditional communities. As a result, they are labeled as sinners and face expulsion from their communities. Nevertheless, both characters demonstrate various forms and strategies of resistance to these imposed systems of oppression, which distinguishes them as symbols of powerful female figures.

III. RESULTS AND ANALYSIS

A. *Sinner Puritan Woman in The Scarlet Letter*

When Hester Prynne is first introduced in the novel, we know that she is the silenced object of gaze who endures profound emotional and physical turmoil from her community. She initiates the trajectory of her social alienation, commencing from the jail entrance and extending to the marketplace, as she traverses the lane that guides her towards the scaffold or "pedestal of ignominy." This ignominious platform is surrounded by a gathering of individuals, including children, women, and men. Pearl, a three-month-old neonate, is carried by Hester, who is wearing the scarlet stigmata of an adulteress on her chest. The rigidity of Puritan women's attitudes toward an adulteress is reflected in their conversation; a fifty-year-old woman believes that the magistrates' verdict against "the hussy" is insufficient to deter other women from committing sins. Another autumnal matriarch insults Hester by referring to her as "naughty baggage," implying that she is an immoral, dishonorable, and worthless woman (p. 38). She states that putting a hot iron on Hester's face is the very least that the judges of the town should do (p. 38). The ugliest and most merciless woman in this group believes that Hester should be executed because she disgraces all women in her community. She believes that there should be a law in "the Scripture and the statute book" to uphold her position (p. 39). A young wife with a child comments that shame will remain in Hester's heart whether she hides or displays the scarlet letter.

The townspeople are "stern enough to look upon her death" (p. 42). The solemn and serious assembly exhibits a callousness that compels them to advocate for Hester's execution, without considering the severity of their condemnation against her. Notable is the fact that Hester does not solicit pity from the crowd. She instead maintains her composure and does not shed a tear. The Puritan forefathers (Governor Bellingham, Reverend John Wilson, and Reverend Arthur Dimmesdale) consider Hester a sinner and press for her to confess the truth about the baby's father so that her earthly punishment can be alleviated. Despite their duress, Hester remains firm and silent regarding the identity of the baby's father. Instead of showing weakness, her silence renders her immune to the hostile environment around her.

Hester is compelled to withstand the cruelty of social judgment and to face the insults and of people in her town. Following her period of confinement and subsequent public humiliation, she experiences a profound deterioration in both her emotional and physical well-being. She expresses desire for death and prayed for it. Paradoxically, the Puritans' stringent laws, which chastise and restrict her, free Hester. Here, she is presented with the option of returning to her homeland or any country in Europe. Nevertheless, she decides to stay in the Puritan settlement due to her conviction that by staying in the very same town where she embodies "the figure, the body, the reality of sin" (p. 60), she atones for her sin. Hester thinks that the shame display would be as her punishment on the earth, and it should purify her soul.

An additional facet of social ostracism experienced by the protagonist Hester is her residence in a deserted, modest, and thatched hamlet situated on the periphery of the community. Under the scrutiny of the town's magistrates, she is granted permission to create a solitary dwelling for both her daughter and herself, as well as pursue a sewing profession. According to Tassi (1998), "even though the only restraint the Puritans in the romance impose on Hester is the necessity of wearing the scarlet letter, the author puts her in a figurative prison; the wilderness - ordinarily a symbol of freedom - becomes for Hester a form of confinement, banishment, and exile from society" (p. 28). The act of Hester being released from prison results in an increase in her level of differentiation of self. Her decision-making process is primarily influenced by her cognitive faculties rather than her emotional state. The peripheries of the town, arid landscapes, and

wooded areas are commonly associated with notions of liberation, yet for Hester, they serve as settings of alienation and psychological confinement.

Even in her needlework, her sole means of livelihood, Hester is excluded from making the pristine bridal veil. Hester is barred from the realm of womanhood, and her embroidery is displayed exclusively on the ruff worn by the Governor, as well as gloves, scarves worn by military personnel, and infants' caps. However, "the scarlet letter was her passport into regions where other women dared not tread" (p. 246). Hester is a rebellious female figure whose perseverance and resistance help her survive and resist community standards. Tassi (1998) affirms that "a prison, however, freely entered, is still a prison. Hester remains alive because she resists staying in every prison in which she is confined" (p. 35).

As a result of Hester's subtle resistance, benevolence, and altruism, particularly during the pandemic, the scarlet letter is no longer associated with *adultery* but rather with *ability*. The townspeople boast that "It is our Hester, the town's own Hester, who is kind to the poor, so helpful to the sick, so comfortable to the afflicted" (p. 121). Hester's view of the scarlet letter and her relationship to it are potent and distinct. The presence of the letter "A" on her breast has deeply affected her causing great self-distance and an emotional vacuum; it tortures her conscience, increases her guilt, dries up her love, and numbs her heart. Still and most importantly, it made her independent and self-reliant, making her "majestic and statue-like" (p. 122). Hester's life has "changed from passion and feeling to thought" (p. 122). Thus, the Puritans punished any thoughtful woman, not just infidelity. Jahan and Abidi (2016) explain that Hester's self-confidence and her absolute affection to her daughter and Dimmesdale help her to stand in front of the strict Puritan society.

B. *Adultery and Honor Killing in My Name Is Salma*

Salma, the protagonist of Faqir's *My Name is Salma*, is a little girl of Bedouin descent hailing from the region of Hima. She embarks on her narrative as a shepherdess who engages in the art of playing the reed pipe and resides in a state of profound contentment within her rural community. She develops romantic feelings for Hamdan, a youth from her local community. Upon her pregnancy, she discloses this information to Hamdan, who subsequently evades his obligations towards her. To avoid the potential harm posed by her brother Mahmoud, she solicits guidance from her teacher, who provides her counseling, suggesting that she approach the police authorities to request custody. Just like the Puritan forefathers attempt to take Hester's baby, Salma's infant Layla is taken from her mother. Layla's cries remain in her auditory system forever.

Salma escapes prison and goes to Lebanon and England with Miss Asher's adoption and renaming as Sally Asher. She asks the port detention officer for social, political, or religious asylum. She adapts to the new culture, adopts the traditions, becomes an English citizen, works as a tailoress, studies English at university, marries her English professor, has a son, and returns to Hima to find her daughter killed by her brother. Salma is exiled locally in Hima for being a sinner and physically in England for being an immigrant. Her relationship with Hamdan haunts her memory and life in exile. Her grandma Shahla tells her to follow her heart. Salma enslaves herself to Hamdan because she thinks he will be her husband and protect her from her family if they find out. Hamdan has always seen her as his concubine or prostitute, not his wife. He said, "Salma, you're a woman now ... you are mine, my slave girl" (Faqir, 2007, p. 36). He tells her, "You are my courtesan, my slave" (p. 50), and Salma calls him master.

Bedouin culture, as harsh as the Puritan townspeople, punishes adultery with death or honor killing. Viewing honor killing as domestic violence against women, Salma's father, siblings, family, and tribe follow her to erase her disgrace. Her family executes her in the name of honor, regardless of religion or law. Salma recalls giving birth to her daughter on the filthy floor of Islah prison where criminal, whores, and alcohol addicted women observe her.

Just like Hester, Salma works as a seamstress and maintains a minimum standard of living, showering every two weeks and eating legumes every morning and evening. The community calls Salma and the other prisoners, "whores" and "sluts". When they sang one night, the evening watch guard shouted, "You are all whores! No one cares about you. You are just cheap sluts so why don't you shut up?" [...] If I shoot one of you, your families would thank me" (p. 117). Salma's community is more traditional than religious. Her father consults with the mosque Imam on most life decisions before selling olive crates. However, he does not consult the Imam regarding the religious sentence of adultery. When she was six years old, her father encouraged her by requesting her mother to prepare "this clever girl" (p. 43) a special cup of tea with extra sugar. However, he is a tribal male who adheres to the traditional norms of his community. When Salma returns to Hima after seventeen years, Salma knows from her mother that her father "suddenly turned into an old man walking with difficulty and leaning on a stick" (p. 324). This indicates that Salma's father carries the burden of her shame on his shoulders to the extent that he appears as a very old man with a white beard. She saw once more her native village in Old England, as well as her father's house, a dilapidated grey-stone dwelling with a destitute appearance but retaining a half-obliterated coat of arms above the entrance as a sign of ancient gentility.

Like Hester, Salma finds herself emotional relief by remembering her kind mother at Hima. On the scaffold of the pillory, Hester creates "an instinctive device of her spirit, to relieve itself, by the exhibition of these phantasmagoric forms" of her infancy in Old England, her father's face with a reverend white beard, and her mother with the look of heedful and anxious love" (*The Scarlet Letter*, p. 43). Salma has a caring mother who teaches her Bedouin customs and conduct. Salma spends much time with her mother who calls every mistake shameful rather than forbidden (or Haram). Salma's mother balances her love for her with their customs. Salma's mother warns her against swimming in the spring: "If they see you, they will kill me ... Only loose women show off their clothes and swim in public. Men may see you, she warned, pulling up her black face mask, hesitating, then adding, Be quick!" (p. 287). After discovering Salma's pregnancy, her

mother encourages her to run since her brother “will shoot [Salma] between the eyes with his English rifle” (p. 91). She then “ran her rough fingers over [Salma’s] face, murmured Qur’an verses, kissed [her] then pushed [her] away” (p. 91). Salma’s mother tells her that she wants her to have a better life than she did. Salma’s “tuft of wool has always been different from the other girls of the tribe,” (p. 59) so she dyed it scarlet to draw attention. Salma’s crimson wool tuft contrasts Hester’s scarlet letter as the most vivid symbol of passion and sin.

Due to her unwed pregnancy, Salma, in parallel with Hester, is emotionally and socially exiled from her family and tribe. Salma’s reputation affects not only her father and sibling but also her entire tribe. Salma informs the Little Sister at the Ailiyya convent, Francoise, that she “stained [her] family’s name with mud” (p. 83). The family name is related to the name of the tribe. Consequently, the males of Salma’s tribe are responsible for her murder. She mentions that “My tribe had decided to kill me, they had spilt my blood among them, and all the young men were sniffing the earth” (p. 53). Salma is cast out by her brother, her father, and the young males in her tribe. Even Officer Salim, who represents legal regulations, knows Salma will be slain in front of the prison gates if released. Officer Salim informs Salma that she is in jail to protect her family. He does not break state law by releasing Salma because she is “innocent” under the law of offenses. Officer Salim said a conservative, traditional community cannot be judged by the law.

Salma recalls hearing whispers at a wedding celebration in Hima that her schoolmate Sabha had been shot. Then she hears whispers and hearsay that became a bullet to Sabha’s head. This bullet is intentional to clean the shame of the tribe with Sabha’s blood. The scene of honor killing in Hima is frequent, and it is traditionally inherited as “an old woman” believes that the tribe wash their disgrace with Sabha’s blood. There are no religious conceptions such as “washing shame” or “honor killing” because it is forbidden to kill an innocent soul. In addition, the washing shame bullet is aimed at women, not men: Although both Hamdan and Salma are guilty, Hamdan departs with relative ease, while Salma suffers for the remainder of her life.

Salma is liberated from prison with the assistance of Officer Salim and Sister Khairiyya so she can flee to Lebanon. Salma resides in a convent and works alongside the nuns in agriculture and handicrafts. She departs for England after learning that her brother Mahmoud is aware of her prison break. The English Miss Asher prepares the adoption paperwork for Salma. Salma enters a new phase of her existence as Sally. As an Arab Muslim woman with a head hijab, she is socially isolated. She believes the community will welcome her if she alters her appearance and removes her head covering. However, her olive complexion, large brown eyes, crooked nose, and long, thick, unkempt dark hair confirm her Eastern origin. In bars, she wears short skirts and requests a half cup of apple juice so that anyone who approaches her will believe she is “open-minded, not an inflexible Muslim immigrant” (p. 66). Sally requests membership at the Exeter Public Library, but the librarian determines, based on Sally’s appearance, that she is an “alien” without a national insurance number; therefore, Sally is denied membership. She informs the librarian that she is British citizen “not a temporary-visa holder” (p. 98). When Salma decides to return to Hima in quest of her daughter, her Pakistani friend reminds her to consider her skin tone and that she is a second-rate Briton. Accordingly, Salma is triply alienated from society—as a sinner, a woman, and a foreigner.

C. “Mother and Daughter Together in the Same Circle of Seclusion From Human Society” in *The Scarlet Letter*

Pearl is her mother’s companion, treasure, anguish, and blessing—the animated moving scarlet letter and Hester’s *raison d’être* is to guide and protect her daughter, Pearl. Pearl is her mother’s emotional guardian, reminding her of sin, while Hester is Pearl’s legal guardian. When the town magistrates determine to remove Pearl from her mother’s custody, Hester appeals: “God gave me the child! [...] she is my happiness! She is my torture [...] Pearl punishes me too! [...] I will not give her up!” (*The Scarlet Letter*, p. 84). Pearl is her mother’s retribution and restitution. Hester requests her spiritual Pastor Dimmesdale to defend her right as a mother, asking, “And what are a mother’s rights, and how much stronger are they when that mother has only her child and the scarlet letter?” (p. 85). Hester keeps the mother-daughter bond as a major emotional boundary. She fights to sustain this relationship in a community that humiliates her.

Hester’s emotional attachment to Pearl is reflected in the garment she creates for her. Even though Pearl’s attire is tailored to her attractiveness, in scarlet red garment that is embroidered with golden strings, it evokes the scarlet letter, as if Pearl is the token of torture and guilt. The three-year-old Pearl appears as a crimson vision, “little bird of scarlet plumage,” and golden rays at the old Governor Bellingham’s Hall. She responds to Minister Wilson “I am my mother’s child, and my name is Pearl” (p. 82). Judging her colors, the Minister responds, “Pearl? Ruby, rather! Or Coral! Or red rose” (p. 82). However, the Puritans consider her an elf child for her association with Hester and for she is the production of adultery. Pearl, Hester, and Salma are compelled to social exclusion and seclusion. In this regard, Cuddy (1986) argues that the conflicting forces within the mother are reflected in Pearl’s “identification with mother [as she] expresses all of Hester’s needs, desires, fears, anxiety, and rage” (p. 102). She is an exceptionally intelligent and perceptive child for her age. She comprehends her solitude and “the destiny that had drawn an inviolable circle round about her” (Hawthorne, 1850, p. 70). Her artistic ability enables her to become “spiritually adapted to whatever drama occupied the stage of her inner world” (71). Pearl prefers playing with objects such as grass, a bouquet, a pole, and rags to a large and diverse group of friends while she is at her mother’s home.

D. *Pulled Between Arab Salma and English Sally, Hima and England, and Layla and Herself*

Salma is caught between the unavoidable past and murky present, dark memories and light desires, Hima and England, and most crucially, Layla and herself. Her Hima memories torment her, compelling her to consult a therapist. The therapist

advises her to let go of the past, as she is now living in England and must adapt to its culture. She can never forget how her mother pulled her hair and yelled, “little slut, what have you done? ... You smeared our name with tar” (Faqr, 2007, pp. 36- 37). Salma’s mother tries to get rid of the baby by requesting an abortion from a midwife, but she claims that the baby “is still clinging to [Salma’s] womb like a real bastard. ... If [her] father or brother finds out they will kill [her]” (p. 47). She imagines Mahmoud, “the lone assassin” (p. 144) following her to Lord’s Tailor in Exeter, where she works.

Her imprisonment is both psychological and physical. She is placed in solitary confinement for five months for her security before being transferred to a cell with other inmates. Salma is employed as a seamstress in the penitentiary, and she acts like a sewing machine. She desires to correct the course of her life by telling herself she is “a slut” rather than being pure, jasmine, or transparent honey. Her mother gave her the name Salma, which signifies safety, disaster survivor, or soft-handed girl. However, she experiences neither safety nor survival. She could not evade her thoughts of Mahmoud shooting or dragging her to death. Despite being physically separated from her family, particularly her brother Mahmoud, Salma remains emotionally entrapped in the scene of being pursued and murdered. She projects the bloody scene as if she hears the bubbling of her warm blood, her mother’s screams and beatings on her bosom, and the “ululation” of washing away her humiliation.

The mother-daughter bond is Salma’s and Hester’s biggest link to life, as both state that their daughters keep them alive. Salma admires the features, fingers, and toes of the baby while holding her: “Her soft fingers curled around my forefinger like a tender vine that had just burst open” (p. 247), but the prison superintendent took her from her mother, preventing her from breastfeeding. Salma throws herself against the wall to protest her child’s removal, but her friends, Madam Lamaa and Noura, pay the prison warden Naima to promptly remove the child to the illegal children’s institution. Salma gives her the name Layla, sews her a prison dress, gives her a face, talks to her, and sends her phony letters explaining why she left. She thinks she “dressed her up, combed her hair, gave her a bath, and kissed her a thousand times goodnight” (p. 123). She imagines 3-year-old Layla chasing the hens. Layla arrives, afraid about her first day at school.

The pearl-encrusted white baby girl gown Salma spends hours making in prison and brings to Britain is precious. Salma envisions her daughter as a “white-water lily” draped in pearlescent dewdrops. She desires for her daughter’s life to be “happier and whiter” than her own. Just like Pearl, Layla is her mother’s most prized gift. In England, Salma is standing in front of an infant clothing store when she glances at a white garment glistening with pearls that “shone like tears of joy. It was a promise of a reunion” (p. 17). Whiteness and pearls remind Salma of her purity and her devotion to Layla, her only valuable asset. This white dress represents a pledge of reunion and return, a symbol of home. When Salma was a child, her mother would tell her, “Your tears are pearls, diamond, don’t let anyone see them” (p. 324).

Salma’s move to the UK, education, marriage to her English professor John Robson, the birth of her son Imran, car, large home, and friendships don’t make up for Layla’s loss. She leaves England to find Layla, but her elderly and newly blind mother states, “She was innocent. She filled our hearts with delight, so fresh, so beautiful” (p. 325). However, her uncle Mahmoud threw her into the well. Her grandfather and friend Jadaan buried her against the tribe’s wishes. Salma walks to her death to find Layla’s black-iris-surrounded graveyard burial. Her father has placed “a makeshift, rotting wooden box with ‘Died 1990’ carved into it” (p. 326). Then she hears Mahmoud say, “Dishonor can only be wiped off with blood” (p. 327) and feels his bullet strike her between the eyes.

IV. CONCLUSION

Hawthorne’s *The Scarlet Letter* and Faqr’s *My Name is Salma* depict two female victims of oppressive patriarchal societies. Yet, they undermine repressive systems imposed upon them and fight for equality and purpose in life. Thus, despite emanating from two completely different cultures, they represent strikingly comparable dissenting voices in their interpretations of their community codes and standards, particularly in defending their rights to be with their daughters against the constraints of their communities. Both socially and emotionally banished and restricted protagonists—Hester Prynne and Salma El-Musa—make great sacrifices in order to achieve freedom and stay with their daughters against the wishes of their patriarchal surroundings. Intriguingly, they both commit adultery, are imprisoned, have daughters, are estranged, ostracized, and stigmatized, remain silent about their lovers’ identities, face public contempt, work in sewing and embroidery, and barely adapt to their surroundings because, except for their feelings for their daughters, they are emotionless.

Hester is required by Puritan law and society to wear a badge of shame eternally. While the audience, particularly the women, demands that Hester be executed for bringing dishonor to everyone, Hester remains silent. Similarly, Salma’s affair with Hamdan and her pregnancy violate cultural and religious norms. Salma’s family and tribe intend to kill her for committing a sexual offense; therefore, she is imprisoned to prevent an honor killing. Her daughter Layla is born in captivity and taken to an unauthorized facility for children. Moving to Lebanon and England saves her from death.

Passion, determination, sagacity, and mental fortitude assist Hester in altering the perception of her within the community. The women who have ridiculed Hester find solace in her tenderness and compassion. She governs her life with wisdom and perseverance, even if she commits adultery out of emotion. Salma’s tribal community does not, however, afford her the same opportunity to reclaim her family and tribe and retain the guardianship of her daughter. Being separated from her daughter muddles her Hima and England life, so she continues to dread murder. While Hester never discloses the identity of Pearl’s father Arthur Dimmesdale out of love and discretion, Dimmesdale’s profound guilt imprisons him and exacerbates his illness. In contrast to Dimmesdale, Hamdan, Layla’s neglectful father who abandons

Salma instead of assisting her, accepts no responsibility. Both Hester and Salma are denied the aid of their lovers, which worsens their circumstances but makes them stronger. Hester's prudence allows her to confront society, particularly with her daughter by her side. Salma abandons her community and spends the remainder of her life living in fear far from her daughter. Hester remains in her community despite widespread condemnation because she has the fortitude to resist. However, Salma was unable to confront her transgression in a threatening traditional community. With her daughter on her side, Hester overcomes Puritan norms, but Salma's lack of self-confidence and her daughter's mortality leads to her self-destruction at the hands of society. In a rigid, patriarchal culture in which women are socially constrained but men are not, Hester and Salma are viewed as violators of societal norms. Hester dies emotionally and spiritually due to Puritan restrictions, whereas Salma dies emotionally and physically.

REFERENCES

- [1] Al-Ghammaz, S. (2021). "Estrangement in Fadia Faqir's 'My Name is Salma'." *Journal of Solid State Technology*, 64(2), 5696-5711.
- [2] Anastasova, M. (2021). "Puritan projections in Nathaniel Hawthorne's 'The Scarlet Letter' and Stephen King's 'Carrie'". *English Studies at NBU*, 7(1), 69-86. <https://doi.org/10.33919/esnbu.21.1.5>
- [3] Aziz, A. S. (2018). "Woman's struggle for identity and existence: A critical study of Fadia Faqir's *My Name is Salma*", *Lark Journal for Philosophy, Linguistics and Social Sciences*, 1(31), 1-12.
- [4] Cixous, H. (1981). "Castration or decapitation?", *trans. Annette Kuhn. Signs*, 7(1), 41-55. Retrieved September 1, 2023, from <http://www.jstor.org/stable/3173505>
- [5] Cuddy, L. A. (1986). "Mother-Daughter identification in *The Scarlet Letter*". *Mosaic: An Interdisciplinary Critical Journal*, 19(2), 101-115.
- [6] Faqir, F. (2007). *My Name is Salma*, Black Swan: London.
- [7] Ghasemi, Z., Peyma, N. D., & Shooshtari, S. M. A. (2021). "The aesthetics of trauma in Fadia Faqir's 'The Cry of the Dove'". *Journal of Language Horizons*, 5(2), 187-203.
- [8] Hawthorne, N. (1850). *The Scarlet Letter*. Boston: Ticknor, Reed & Fields.
- [9] Hussein, H. A. (2019). "Salma in Fadia Faqir's *My Name is Salma*". *International Journal of Research in Social Sciences and Humanities (IJRSSH)*, 10(1), 285 – 291.
- [10] Jahan, M., & Abidi, S. Z. H. (2016). "Individualism of Hester Prynne in the seventeenth century Puritan society: 'The Scarlet Letter'". *International Journal on Studies in English Language and Literature (IJSELL)*, 4(2), 100-106.
- [11] Jayasimha, P. (2014). "Between passion and sin: A postmodern feminist approach to Nathaniel Hawthorne's 'The Scarlet Letter'". *International Journal of English Literature and Culture*, 2(6), 68-72. Retrieved July 31, 2023, from <http://www.academicresearchjournals.org/IJELC/Index.ht>
- [12] Kilborne, B. (2005). "Shame conflicts and tragedy in 'The Scarlet Letter'". *Journal of the American Psychoanalytic Association*, 53(2), 465-83. DOI:10.1177/00030651050530021601
- [13] Lasri, W. K., & Mouro, W. (2019). "Fadia Faqir The Cry of the Dove (2007): Identity wandering between tradition and modernity." *AWEJ for Translation & Literary Studies*, 3(3), 113-122.
- [14] O'Malley, M. (2015). Taking the domestic view in Hawthorne's fiction. *The New England Quarterly*, 88(4), 657-680.
- [15] Sarnou, D. M. (2015). "Salma in 'My Name is Salma': The invisible alien Arab woman." *El-Tawassol: Langues et Littératures*, 41(March), 225- 234.
- [16] Sarnou, D. (2017). "Voicing liminal subjects in anglophone Arab narratives: A case study of Fadia Faqir's *My Name is Salma*." *Revista Canaria de Estudios Ingleses Journal of Humanities and Cultural Studies*, 74, 99-108.
- [17] Tassi, N. (1998). "Hester's prisons: Sex, intellect, and gender in 'The Scarlet Letter'". *The Johns Hopkins University Press*, 60(3), 23-36. Retrieved September 2, 2023, from <https://www.jstor.org/stable/44377290>.
- [18] Taylor, O. G. (2005). "Cultural confessions: Penance and penitence in Nathaniel Hawthorne's 'The Scarlet Letter' and 'The Marble Faun'". *Renascence: Essays on Values in Literature*, 58(2), 135-152. Retrieved October 10, 2023, from <https://link.gale.com/apps/doc/A143160471/AONE?u=anon-a00b7dd7&sid=googleScholar&xid=295543ce>
- [19] Wang, Y. (2010). "A Representative of the new female image—Analyzing Hester Prynne's feminist consciousness in 'The Scarlet Letter'". *Journal of Language Teaching and Research*, 1(6), 893-897.
- [20] Wulansari, A. (2017). "The Puritan law on adultery and its impacts on society: A sociological approach of literature in 'The Scarlet Letter'". *METATHESIS: Journal of English Language, Literature, and Teaching*, 1(1), 14- 29.
- [21] Zayed, E. K. M. (2023). "Self-Sufficiency and independence as a strategy of survival and co-existence: A study of Nathaniel Hawthorne's 'The Scarlet Letter'". *Journal for Educators, Teachers and Trainers*, 14(2), 257-264.

Najah A. Alzoubi is an Assistant Professor of English Literature and Criticism at the Department of English Language and Literature, Faculty of Arts, The Hashemite University, Zarqa, Jordan. She earned her Ph.D. in English Literature- American Literature from University of Leicester in 2016. Her research interests include cultural studies, feminism, gender studies, modern drama, American Literature, and World Literature.

Motasim O. Almwajeh is an assistant professor of English literature and criticism at the Department of English Language and Literature, Faculty of Arts, The Hashemite University, Zarqa, Jordan. He earned his Ph.D. in English Literature from Indiana University of Pennsylvania in 2010. His research interests include cultural studies, postcolonial cultural studies, Environmentalism, and comparative literature.

Abdullah F. Al-Badarnah is an Assistant Professor of English Literature and Criticism at the Department of English Language and Literature, Faculty of Arts, The Hashemite University, Zarqa, Jordan. He earned his Ph.D. in English Literature from Indiana University of Pennsylvania in 2012. His research interests include Ecocriticism, Postcolonial Literature, and Women's Studies.

Haitham M. Talafha is an Assistant Professor of English Literature and Criticism at the Department of English Language and Literature, Faculty of Arts, The Hashemite University, Zarqa, Jordan. He earned his Ph.D. in English Literature from Indiana University of Pennsylvania in 2011. His research interests include 19th & 20th Century English Literature, literary theory, Orientalism, cultural studies, and World Literature.

Empowering Adult EFL Learners: A Self-Directed, Process-Oriented Writing Program

Nouf Aljasir

English Language Institute, King Abdulaziz University, Jeddah, Saudi Arabia

Abstract—This quasi-experimental study aimed to empower adult learners of English as a foreign language (EFL) by designing a self-directed, process-oriented writing program to enhance their writing proficiency and address the challenges they face in improving their writing skills outside formal classroom settings. A total of 50 Saudi individuals participated in this 12-week program, which integrated self-directed learning (SDL) principles with the process writing approach. The participants engaged in various writing tasks, reflective activities, and peer feedback sessions. The instruments used for data collection included pre- and post-program writing assessments, weekly writing tasks, and reflective journals. The findings revealed significant improvements in the participants' writing skills across all of the assessed criteria, with the strongest gains in coherence, content and ideas, and cohesion. Additionally, the analysis of the demographic factors indicated that the participants' educational attainment significantly influenced their writing skills improvement. The participants' reflections highlighted several features of the program, such as its structured approach, focus on building self-awareness, opportunities for independent learning, and peer feedback, as key factors in their progress. The study concludes with recommendations for future self-directed writing programs and suggests avenues for further research.

Index Terms—self-directed learning (SDL), process-oriented writing, writing proficiency, adult EFL learners, autonomous learning

I. INTRODUCTION

In an increasingly globalized world, proficiency in English has become a vital skill for personal, academic, and professional success. For adult learners of English as a foreign language (EFL), writing proficiency is particularly crucial as it enables effective communication across various contexts, thereby facilitating better opportunities for career advancement and integration into English-speaking environments (Hinkel, 2011; Hyland, 2019; Weigle, 2002). However, many adult EFL learners encounter significant challenges in terms of improving their writing skills, especially when they are not enrolled in formal language classes. These challenges include limited access to structured learning environments, insufficient practice opportunities, and lack of feedback (Fernandez et al., 2017; Reinders & Benson, 2017). For these learners, self-directed learning (SDL) can provide the flexibility and autonomy needed to improve their writing skills outside of formal classroom settings. SDL is a learner-centered approach that empowers individuals to take control of their learning journey. It encourages learners to set their own objectives, identify pertinent resources, select and implement appropriate strategies, and assess their progress (Brookfield, 1985; Candy, 1991; Garrison, 1997; Knowles, 1975; Merriam & Baumgartner, 2020).

In conjunction with SDL, the process writing approach has emerged as a promising method for improving writing skills. This approach encourages learners to view writing not merely as a product but as a recursive activity that benefits from ongoing feedback and revision (Badger & White, 2000; White & Arndt, 1991; Zamel, 1983). By integrating SDL with the process writing approach, learners can tailor their writing practice to their personal goals and contexts, thus leading to more meaningful and sustained improvements.

Despite the potential benefits of SDL and the process writing approach, many adult EFL learners lack access to educational programs that integrate these methodologies. This gap highlights the need for a targeted intervention that can support these learners in developing their writing skills autonomously. Addressing this issue is significant for several reasons:

1. It can empower learners and foster autonomy by providing the necessary resources and tools to improve their writing independently, thereby encouraging a sense of ownership and responsibility for their learning.
2. It can increase accessibility by offering a flexible learning framework that adult learners can integrate into their busy schedules, regardless of their location.
3. It can enhance writing proficiency by improving learners' ability to express ideas clearly and effectively in written English.
4. It can promote lifelong learning through the encouragement of SDL skills, thereby equipping learners with the ability to continuously enhance their writing skills beyond the program's duration.

For more details on the benefits of SDL and the process writing approach, see Brookfield (1985), Candy (1991), Garrison (1997), White and Arndt (1991), and Badger and White (2000).

This study, therefore, sought to address a critical need in EFL education by designing a 12-week program aimed at empowering adult learners who were not enrolled in formal classes to improve their writing skills through self-directed, process-oriented learning. To the author's knowledge, this is the first study to combine the strengths of SDL and the process writing approach, which provides a flexible program to enhance learners' English writing proficiency outside formal educational settings. The specific objectives of the current study included:

1. Designing a comprehensive program: creating a structured yet flexible program that covers all stages of the writing process.
2. Recommending strategies and resources: providing guidance on suitable materials, online tools, and feedback mechanisms that learners can employ for independent learning.
3. Assessing learner outcomes: evaluating improvements in writing skills and analyzing learner perceptions to determine the program's effectiveness.

Three key research questions were investigated in this study:

1. How much and in what ways did the adult EFL learners' writing skills improve after participating in the 12-week self-directed, process-oriented program, as measured by the differences in their pre-program and post-program assessment scores?
2. How did demographic factors such as gender, age, educational attainment, and employment status influence the improvement in writing skills among the learners?
3. How did the learners perceive the effectiveness of the program, based on their reflections throughout the program?

II. LITERATURE REVIEW

There are four main types of paragraphs used in writing: descriptive, narrative, expository, and persuasive. Each type fulfills a distinct function and uses specific techniques to achieve its objective (see e.g., Hameed, 2024; Hwang et al., 2024; Jeong, 2017; Karasinski, 2023; Lee & Lee, 2024; Pourdana & Asghari, 2021). Descriptive writing aims to provide a detailed depiction of a person, place, thing, or event by engaging the reader's senses through detailed observations and sensory details. It uses rich, precise language, including metaphors, similes, and adjectives, to help readers visualize and emotionally experience the scene. Narrative writing tells a story or recounts events with a clear structure, including a beginning, middle, and end, by incorporating elements such as characters, setting, plot, and conflict. It aims to entertain, inform, or convey deeper meanings through engaging and relatable experiences. Expository writing explains, informs, or presents information clearly and concisely, often using definitions, instructions, comparisons, and analyses. It is commonly used in academic writing, journalism, and technical writing to help readers understand complex information by breaking it down into understandable parts. Persuasive writing aims to convince the reader to embrace a specific viewpoint or undertake a particular action through the use of logical reasoning, emotional appeals, and evidence. This type of writing is prevalent in opinion texts and speeches, where the goal is to influence the reader's beliefs or behaviors.

The integration of these various types of writing within educational programs highlights the importance of a comprehensive approach to writing instruction. Building on this foundation, the process writing approach has gained significant recognition in the field of language education for its effectiveness in enhancing writing skills (see e.g., Faraj, 2015; Jalaluddin, 2019; Kadmiry, 2021; Listyani, 2018; Martínez et al., 2020). This approach shifts the focus from producing a final written product to engaging in a series of iterative and reflective stages that enhance the overall writing process. Larsen-Freeman (2000) and Hyland (2019) explained that in the process approach, the writing task is not viewed as a linear sequence of steps but rather as a dynamic and recursive process. According to Tompkins and Goss (1987), this approach involves five key stages that support learners in developing their writing skills, as follows. First, the prewriting stage involves brainstorming and organizing ideas. Learners may use techniques such as mind mapping, listing, or free writing to generate and structure their thoughts. Second, in the drafting stage, learners begin to write their first draft by prioritizing the articulation of their ideas without concern for grammar or punctuation errors. In the revising stage, learners review and modify their drafts to improve content, clarity, and organization. This may involve adding new information, reorganizing paragraphs, and refining the overall structure of the text. The fourth stage, editing, addresses the correction of grammatical, spelling, and punctuation errors. Learners polish their drafts to ensure accuracy and readability. Finally, the publishing stage involves sharing the completed work, whether through peer review, submission to a teacher, or publication in a class anthology or online platform. Tompkins and Goss's (1987) five-stage classification was adopted in this research due to its comprehensive nature. Engaging learners in these stages can foster continual improvement and better mastery of the writing process.

The recursive nature of the process writing approach naturally aligns with the principles of SDL by encouraging learners to take charge of their learning. By promoting independence and critical thinking throughout the writing stages, students are better prepared to engage in SDL activities. Knowles (1975, p. 18) defined SDL as "a process in which individuals take the initiative, with or without the help of others, in diagnosing their learning needs, formulating learning goals, identifying human and material resources for learning, choosing and implementing appropriate learning strategies, and evaluating learning outcomes." Garrison (1997, p. 18) further described SDL as "an approach where learners are motivated to assume personal responsibility and collaborative control of the cognitive (self-monitoring) and contextual (self-management) processes in constructing and confirming meaningful and worthwhile learning outcomes." From these definitions, it is evident that SDL emphasizes the proactive role of learners in managing their own learning processes,

including setting goals, selecting resources, and evaluating outcomes. This approach fosters personal responsibility and autonomy, thereby enabling learners to tailor their learning experiences to their individual needs and contexts.

Garrison's SDL model, developed in 1997, is a comprehensive framework that highlights the active role of learners in their learning process. This model is built around the three key elements of motivation, self-management, and self-monitoring. First, motivation is the driving force behind the initiation and continuation of learning activities. It encompasses two additional elements, entering motivation and task motivation. Entering motivation refers to the initial drive that prompts an individual to engage in learning activities. It is influenced by personal goals, interests, and the perceived value of the learning outcomes. Task motivation focuses on the sustained engagement and effort required to complete specific learning tasks. It is critical for maintaining momentum throughout the learning process. Second, self-management (contextual control) refers to the ability of learners to manage and control the contextual and environmental factors that affect their learning. It involves setting clear learning goals, organizing resources, and managing time effectively. It also includes planning and prioritizing tasks to ensure consistent progress. Overall, self-management focuses on controlling the external factors that influence the learning process. The third element of Garrison's (1997) SDL model is self-monitoring (cognitive responsibility), which involves the cognitive processes by which learners take responsibility for monitoring and evaluating their own learning. It entails regularly assessing progress and reflecting on learning experiences to improve learning outcomes. This element focuses on the internal, cognitive aspects of learning by emphasizing continual evaluation and adjustment of learning approaches.

Garrison's model illustrates that motivation influences self-management by driving the learner to take control of the learning activities. A highly motivated learner is more likely to effectively plan and organize the learning process. Motivation also affects self-monitoring because motivated learners are more inclined to regularly evaluate their progress and seek improvements. Self-management and self-monitoring are closely linked, as effective self-management requires regular self-monitoring to ensure that the learning activities align with the set goals. Self-monitoring also provides the feedback necessary to adjust the management strategies, thus leading to a more controlled and efficient learning process. The interplay between motivation, self-management, and self-monitoring creates a dynamic process that defines SDL. Each element supports and enhances the others, thus fostering an environment where learners are proactive, reflective, and driven in their pursuit of knowledge (Garrison, 1997).

This model is particularly well-suited for the educational program proposed in this study, which aimed to improve writing proficiency among adult EFL learners outside formal educational settings through the process writing approach. The model's three key elements align closely with the needs and challenges faced by these learners. First, the model's focus on both entering and task motivation helps sustain learners' engagement throughout the writing process. Entering motivation encourages learners to initiate the learning journey, which is often driven by personal or professional goals, such as career advancement or effective communication in English-speaking environments. Task motivation keeps learners committed to completing writing tasks, which is essential for the iterative nature of the process writing approach. Additionally, self-management allows learners to set personal goals, select appropriate resources, and create an environment conducive to learning. This autonomy is vital in the process writing approach, in which learners need to manage multiple stages—prewriting, drafting, revising, editing, and publishing—each of which requires distinct strategies and resources. Effective self-management helps learners stay organized and focused and ensures that they progress through each stage methodically and effectively. Furthermore, self-monitoring involves continual evaluation and reflection on one's learning progress, which is integral to the process writing approach. Learners must regularly assess their writing, identify areas for improvement, and adjust their strategies accordingly. Garrison's model encourages this reflective practice by promoting responsibility and self-assessment.

It is also important to highlight the synergy between Garrison's SDL model and the process writing approach, which lies in their shared emphasis on iterative learning and autonomy. The process writing approach views writing as a dynamic activity that benefits from ongoing feedback and revision. Garrison's model provides the framework for learners to take charge of this process by leveraging their motivation, self-management, and self-monitoring capabilities. This alignment ensures that learners can independently navigate the complexities of writing, receive and act on feedback, and continually improve their skills.

A comprehensive review of the relevant literature revealed a notable scarcity of research on the impact of SDL on improving writing skills among EFL learners, with no studies having been conducted in the Arab world. However, the limited studies available consistently highlighted the positive effects of SDL and demonstrated significant improvements in learners' writing performance and increased learner autonomy. Coomber (2016), for instance, explored methods to encourage self-directed revision among Japanese EFL students. This study involved two classes: a control group and a treatment group that participated in a grammar workshop and oral presentations and used a 20-point checklist to guide the revision of their drafts. The treatment group made nearly three times as many self-directed revisions as the control group, with 80% improvement in their essays compared to 66% in the control group. Despite these gains, the second drafts still relied heavily on teacher feedback, which underscored the need for additional revision activities to further foster independence in the writing process. In a more recent study, Aghayani and Janfeshan (2020) investigated the impact of SDL on the writing achievements of Iranian EFL students at pre-intermediate and intermediate proficiency levels. Thirty male EFL learners were randomly selected to participate in the study, and posttest results were compared with pretest results to evaluate the effectiveness of the two approaches. The findings demonstrated that SDL significantly

enhanced the writing performance of the students at both proficiency levels. Around the same time, Ramadhani et al. (2020) conducted a quasi-experimental study to explore the impact of SDL on enhancing the academic writing skills of Indonesian university students, both independently and within traditional classroom settings. The findings revealed that SDL significantly enhanced the students' academic writing abilities and promoted greater autonomy in learning. Together, these research studies demonstrated that by engaging in SDL activities, learners developed responsibility for their learning, which led to greater autonomy and improved writing proficiency.

III. METHODS

This study employed a quasi-experimental design to evaluate the effectiveness of a 12-week self-directed, process-oriented writing program for adult EFL learners. The program (see Appendix A) was designed based on Garrison's SDL model and the process writing approach. It required the participants to devote five to six hours per week and covered four main types of writing: descriptive, narrative, expository, and persuasive. Each week was divided into specific tasks and activities to ensure a well-rounded approach. Additionally, the program ensured that learners had both the resources and tools needed for each task in the program. "Resources" refers to the educational content and materials that provided information, instructions, and examples to help the learners understand and complete each task. These included online articles, videos, guides, and prompts. Tools, on the other hand, are the systems that the learners used to practice or implement the tasks. These included applications, websites, and digital platforms that facilitate writing, editing, and collaboration.

A. Participants

The participants in this study were Saudi adult EFL learners who were not enrolled in formal English language classes or engaged in self-study through online learning platforms. This selection was made to ensure that any observed improvements in writing skills could be attributed solely to the program rather than to other forms of learning. A total of 50 participants were recruited through friends and acquaintances using a convenience sampling method. This method involved selecting participants who were readily available and willing to participate in the study (Johnson & Christensen, 2000). Arabic was the first language of all of the participants. The inclusion criteria were as follows.

- Aged 21 years or older
- Intermediate proficiency in English as determined by a reliable English test, such as the one offered by [efset.org](https://www.efset.org)
- Willingness to commit to the 12-week program and complete all of the required tasks

Table 1 presents the demographic information of the study participants.

TABLE 1
DEMOGRAPHIC INFORMATION OF THE PARTICIPANTS

Characteristic	Value	Frequency (n = 50)	Percentage (%)
Gender	Male	23	46.00
	Female	27	54.00
Age group	21-30	29	58.00
	31-40	21	42.00
Educational attainment	High school	14	28.00
	Bachelor's degree	26	52.00
	Master's degree	10	20.00
Employment status	Unemployed	9	18.00
	Employed part-time	15	30.00
	Employed full-time	26	52.00

B. Instruments and Data Collection Procedures

To comprehensively evaluate the effectiveness of the writing program, several instruments and data collection procedures were employed, commencing in March 2023. At the outset of the study, the participants were informed about the voluntary nature of their participation through an informed consent form, which clearly stated that they were not obligated to complete the program. They were also assured that they could withdraw from the study at any stage without facing any consequences. Furthermore, it was emphasized that their responses would remain confidential, ensuring their privacy and encouraging honest feedback. Following this initial step, the study proceeded with the implementation of the following data collection methods:

1. Demographic Information Questionnaire

This was administered to gather the participants' background information, as detailed in the "Participants" section.

2. Pre-program Writing Assessment

The participants completed this assessment to evaluate their initial writing skills. The following prompt was provided: "Describe a memorable experience from your life and explain why it was significant to you. In your paragraph, be sure to include specific details about the event, how it made you feel, and what you learned from the experience. Use descriptive language to help the reader visualize the scene and understand the importance of this event in your life".

This topic was chosen because it engages participants in descriptive writing by encouraging the use of vivid language and narrative elements. It allows them to express personal experiences and insights and demonstrate their ability to convey

emotions, details, and reflections. The prompt is broad enough to accommodate varying levels of language proficiency while challenging participants to organize their thoughts coherently and use a diverse vocabulary. The assessment was scored using a comprehensive rubric that assessed all of the key elements practiced in the program. This detailed evaluation of the learners' progress included the following eight criteria: paragraph structure, content and ideas, coherence, cohesion, vocabulary usage, sentence structure, grammar, and mechanics (see Appendix B).

3. Weekly Writing Tasks

The participants completed weekly writing tasks using various resources and tools provided in the program (see Appendix A).

4. Reflective Journal

The participants maintained a reflective journal throughout the program to document their learning experiences, challenges, and progress.

5. Post-program Writing Assessment

At the end of the 12-week program, the participants completed a writing assessment on the same topic as the pre-program assessment. This assessment was scored using the same rubric (in Appendix B) to evaluate improvements in their writing skills and to gather feedback on the program.

C. Data Analysis

The collected data were analyzed using both quantitative and qualitative methods. The pre- and post-program writing assessments were graded by two assessors using the rubric described in the previous section. The assessors were experienced EFL instructors with doctoral degrees in applied linguistics and more than 15 years of experience teaching and evaluating English writing skills. The scores were then compared to determine inter-rater reliability, and a high percentage of 85% was obtained, which indicated strong consistency between the raters. Subsequently, each participant's scores were compared statistically to determine the improvements in writing skills.

Additionally, the participants' reflective journals were translated from Arabic to English, and thematic analysis was conducted to identify common themes and insights regarding their learning experiences and the perceived effectiveness of the program. This analysis involved coding the data, grouping similar codes into themes, and interpreting these themes to obtain a deeper understanding of the learners' perspectives. By integrating quantitative and qualitative data, this study aimed to provide a comprehensive evaluation of the program's impact on the learners' writing skills and their perceptions of the program.

IV. RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

A. Research Question 1

To assess the improvement in the participants' writing skills, the means for the pre- and post-program writing assessment scores were computed, and a paired-sample t-test was conducted for comparison. The results are presented in Table 2.

TABLE 2
PRE- AND POST-PROGRAM WRITING ASSESSMENT MEAN SCORES AND PAIRED-SAMPLE T-TEST RESULTS

Criteria	Pre-program mean score (SD)	Post-program mean score (SD)	Mean difference	Improvement (%)	t-value
Paragraph structure	3.04 (0.78)	3.94 (0.65)	0.90	29.61	-7.37
Content and ideas	3.00 (0.81)	3.86 (0.78)	0.86	28.67	-10.03
Coherence	2.96 (0.81)	3.76 (0.74)	0.80	27.03	-10.58
Cohesion	3.02 (0.80)	3.90 (0.68)	0.88	29.14	-9.92
Vocabulary usage	2.98 (0.80)	3.72 (0.67)	0.74	24.83	-9.27
Sentence structure	3.04 (0.81)	3.72 (0.73)	0.68	22.37	-7.37
Grammar	2.98 (0.80)	3.74 (0.69)	0.76	25.50	-8.19
Mechanics	2.98 (0.80)	3.86 (0.81)	0.88	29.53	-8.67
Total score	24.00 (4.88)	30.50 (3.50)	6.50	27.08	-14.41

The results indicated that the participants showed notable improvements across all of the assessed criteria. The average total score increased from 24.00 to 30.50, which represented a 27.08% improvement. The strongest improvements in writing skills were observed in the criteria of paragraph structure (29.61%), cohesion (29.14%), and mechanics (29.53%). Figure 1 shows the changes in the pre- and post-program writing assessment scores, which illustrate the noticeable improvements in the writing skills of the participants.

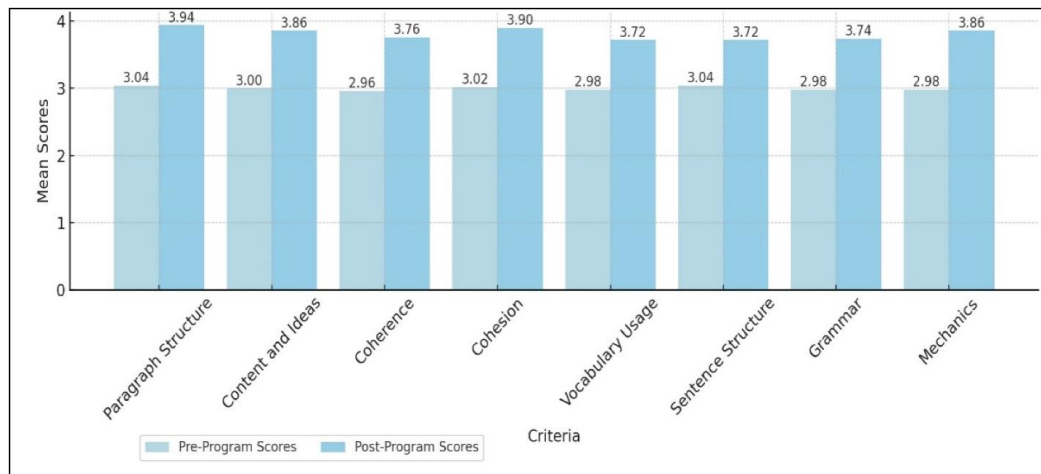


Figure 1. Pre- and Post-Program Writing Assessment Mean Scores

The paired-sample t-test results indicated that the differences in the pre- and post-program scores were statistically significant across all of the criteria ($p < 0.001$), which confirmed the efficacy of the program at enhancing various aspects of the participants' writing skills. The horizontal bar chart presented in Figure 2 shows the t-values for the paired-sample t-tests across the different writing skills criteria. The red dashed line represents the significance threshold. Because all of the t-values exceeded this threshold, the improvements in all of the criteria were considered statistically significant.

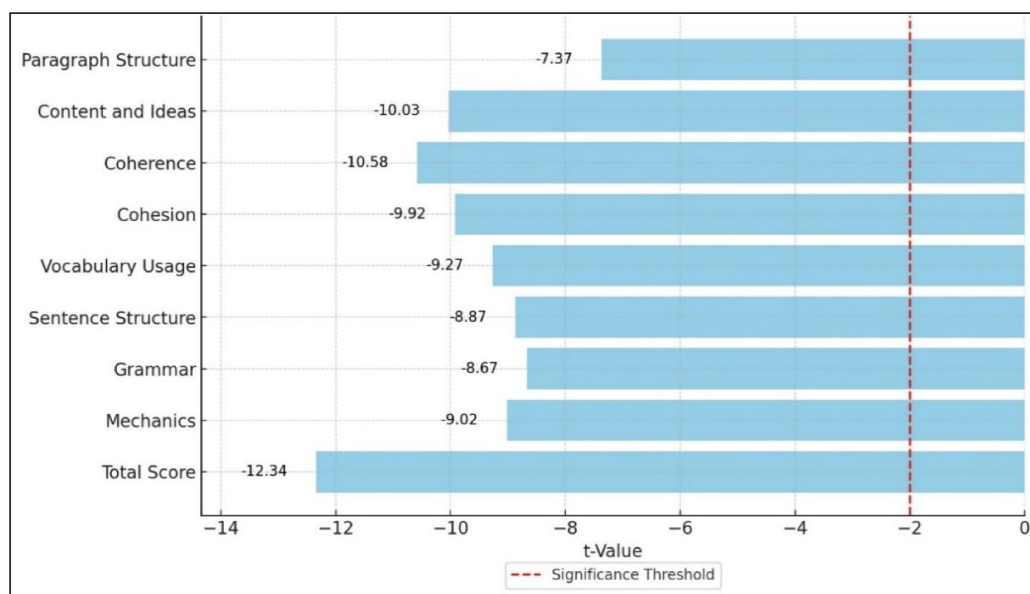


Figure 2. Paired-Sample T-Test Results for Writing Skills Improvement

The three criteria that showed the strongest improvements based on their t-values were coherence ($t = -10.58$), content and ideas ($t = -10.03$), and cohesion ($t = -9.92$). The notable improvement in coherence highlighted the program's success at helping learners logically connect ideas and create a smooth flow in their writing, which is crucial for producing clear and understandable written communication. As one participant reflected, "I learned to connect my ideas better, making my paragraphs clearer. The program's techniques for structuring paragraphs were very effective." The enhancement in content and ideas reflected the participants' ability to generate and develop insightful, engaging, and well-organized ideas and suggests that the program effectively encouraged learners to think critically and express their thoughts effectively. Additionally, the significant improvement in cohesion underscored the program's impact on helping learners use cohesive devices effectively to link sentences and paragraphs. As one participant remarked, "I now understand how to use transition words to connect my sentences. This has made my writing flow much better and clearer".

These findings underscored the program's effectiveness at enhancing critical aspects of writing, thereby enabling the learners to achieve significant progress. This is corroborated by the studies of Aghayani and Janfeshan (2020) and Ramadhani et al. (2020), which also demonstrated that SDL markedly improved their participants' writing performance. Furthermore, the importance of these results is highlighted by earlier research in formal EFL settings (e.g., Hassan et al., 2020; Huang & Zhang, 2020; Kadmiry, 2021; Martinez et al., 2020), which aimed to achieve similar advancements in students' writing through process writing instruction.

B. Research Question 2

To understand how various demographic factors influence the improvement in writing skills, an analysis of covariance (ANCOVA) was conducted. This analysis helped isolate the effects of these factors while controlling for baseline performance differences.

TABLE 3
ANCOVA RESULTS FOR WRITING SKILLS IMPROVEMENT

Variable	Type III sum of squares	df	Mean square	F	<i>p</i> value
Gender	4.55	1	4.55	0.98	0.33
Age group	0.38	1	0.38	0.08	0.78
Educational attainment	40.27	2	20.13	4.31	0.02
Employment status	1.18	2	0.59	0.13	0.88

The results of the ANCOVA indicated that only educational attainment had a statistically significant effect on the improvement in writing skills, as evidenced by its *p* value of 0.02, which was less than the conventional significance level of 0.05. This means that differences in educational attainment significantly affected how much the participants had improved their writing skills after completing the program. Participants with higher levels of education (e.g., master's degree) showed greater improvements compared to those with lower educational attainment (e.g., high school). This finding is corroborated by Guerra-Carrillo et al. (2017), who also reported that higher education enhanced cognitive functioning and learning efficacy. This could be attributed to several factors. First, individuals with higher educational attainment are likely to have more experience with academic writing and structured learning environments, which can enhance their ability to engage with and benefit from the self-directed, process-oriented writing program. As one participant reflected, "Having a master's degree, I found it easier to grasp the program's writing strategies, as I was already familiar with structured academic writing." These learners might also possess better-developed critical thinking and self-regulation skills that enable them to apply the program's strategies more effectively. As another participant noted, "Higher education has taught me to approach learning tasks more critically and systematically." Furthermore, higher education often provides greater exposure to a variety of writing styles, which can facilitate more substantial improvements when additional instruction and practice are provided.

The box plot in Figure 3 illustrates the improvement in writing skills across the different levels of educational attainment of the participants in the program. It shows that individuals with higher educational attainment (master's and bachelor's degrees) tended to have greater improvements compared to those with only a high school education.

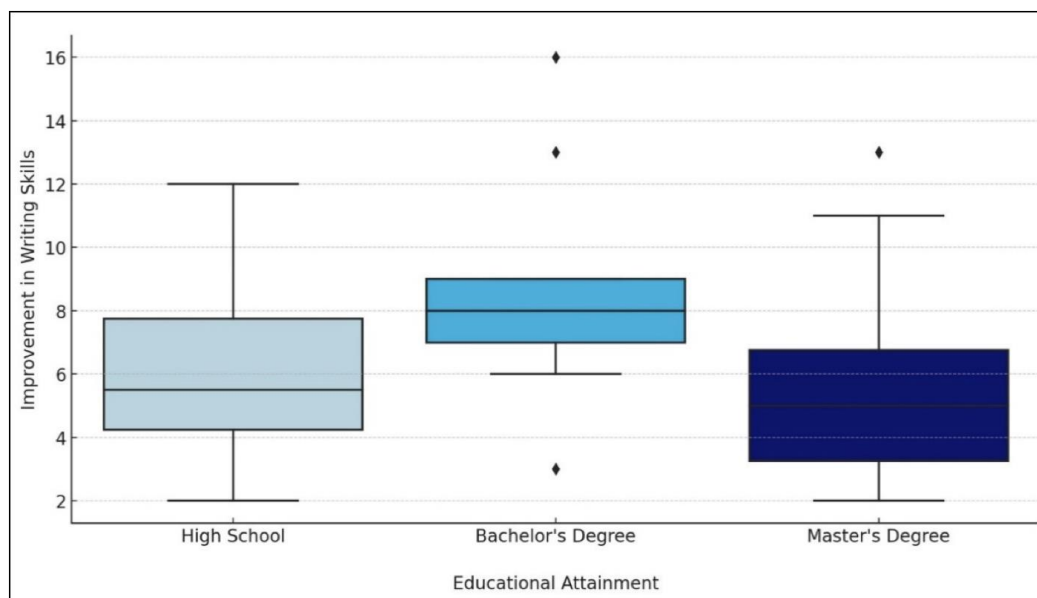


Figure 3. Impact of Educational Attainment on Writing Skills Improvement

C. Research Question 3

The participants maintained reflective journals throughout the program where they documented their learning experiences, challenges, and progress. The thematic analysis of these journals revealed several key themes, as detailed below.

1. Appreciation for the structured approach

The participants valued the program's structured yet flexible design, which offered clear guidelines and resources for each writing stage. As one participant remarked, "The step-by-step approach helped me a lot. Breaking down the writing process into smaller tasks made it more manageable and less overwhelming." Another participant commented, "Having

access to various resources and tools was very helpful. I learned new techniques that I could apply immediately to my writing.” This appreciation aligned with the findings of Cate and Dynan (2010) and Fisher and Frey (2021), who emphasized the importance of structured frameworks and support in enhancing learners’ skills. Their research highlighted how breaking down complex tasks into manageable steps aids learners in effectively navigating the learning process.

2. Increased self-awareness

Many participants noted that the program helped them become more aware of their writing process and areas needing improvement. The reflective activities, in particular, were highlighted for aiding this self-awareness. Self-monitoring, a key element of Garrison’s (1997) SDL model, played a significant role in this process. By regularly tracking their progress and identifying patterns in their writing, the participants were able to pinpoint specific areas for improvement and adjust their strategies accordingly. As one participant remarked, “At the beginning, I was unsure about my writing strengths and weaknesses, but the reflective tasks helped me see where I needed to improve.” Another participant noted, “Through regular reflection on my writing, I became more aware of my common mistakes and areas that needed improvement. This self-awareness was crucial in helping me focus on specific aspects of my writing that I needed to work on.” The role of reflective practice in increasing self-awareness among language learners was well documented by Moon (2013) and Chaika (2023), who discussed how reflective activities, such as journaling, help learners critically analyze their learning and identify areas for improvement.

3. Improvement in writing skills

The step-by-step progression through different writing stages and the focus on specific skills each week facilitated a comprehensive enhancement of the learners’ writing abilities. This gradual skill development aligned with the principles of the process writing approach, as detailed by Badger and White (2000) and Ferris and Hedgcock (2023), who emphasized the importance of iterative practice and continual feedback in developing writing proficiency. As one participant observed, “I noticed a significant improvement in my ability to organize my thoughts and use more varied styles. The weekly tasks really helped in building these skills gradually.” Additionally, participants frequently mentioned the benefits of the vocabulary exercises and grammar reviews, which significantly enhanced their ability to articulate ideas clearly and correctly. As one participant shared, “The vocabulary exercises were very beneficial. I started using more varied and precise words in my writing. This not only made my paragraphs more interesting but also helped me convey my ideas more effectively”.

4. Empowerment and autonomy

The program’s emphasis on SDL principles fostered a sense of autonomy among the participants. By taking control of their learning journeys, setting personal goals, and reflecting on their progress, the participants developed greater responsibility in terms of improving their writing skills. This empowerment is crucial for lifelong learning as it equips learners with the necessary tools to continue enhancing their skills beyond the program. As one participant expressed, “Being able to set my own goals and track my progress made me more committed to improving my writing. I felt more in control of my learning, which motivated me to work harder.” Another participant remarked, “Reflecting on my progress regularly helped me understand my strengths and areas for improvement. This process made me more responsible and proactive in my learning.” This perspective aligned with the views of Knowles (1975) and Garrison (1997), who emphasized the significance of SDL in fostering learner autonomy and empowering individuals to take control of their learning journeys. This ability to self-regulate not only enhances learning efficiency but also builds independence, which ultimately leads to more effective and sustainable learning outcomes.

5. Increased confidence and motivation

The reflective journal entries indicated a boost in confidence and motivation as the participants progressed through the program. Setting personal goals and tracking achievement played a crucial role in maintaining the participants’ motivation. The sense of accomplishment upon task completion reinforced their commitment to improving their writing skills. As one participant noted, “At the beginning of the program, I was hesitant to write because I was afraid of making mistakes. But, as I completed each task and received feedback, I felt more confident. Now, I enjoy writing and look forward to it.” Another participant shared, “Setting my own goals and seeing my progress motivated me to keep improving. I realized that I can write well if I put in the effort.” This finding aligned with Garrison’s (1997) emphasis on motivation as a critical component of SDL. As learners gain confidence, their intrinsic motivation to engage in and persist with challenging tasks increases, which further enhances their learning outcomes.

6. Value of peer feedback

The peer review component provided valuable feedback that enabled the participants to view their writing from different perspectives and incorporate constructive criticism into their revisions. As one participant mentioned, “Peer feedback was really insightful. It helped me see my writing from a different angle and make improvements that I had not thought of.” Another participant observed, “Reviewing others’ work also taught me a lot. I learned new ideas and techniques by seeing how others approached the same tasks.” The positive reception of peer feedback underscored its importance in the writing process. The participants valued the constructive criticism and different viewpoints provided by their peers, which enhanced their ability to revise and improve their drafts. This finding corroborated previous studies (e.g., Gao et al., 2023; Jin et al., 2024; Xu et al., 2023; Zhang et al., 2023), which highlighted the significance of collaborative learning and peer interactions in enhancing writing skills. Peer feedback not only provides immediate insights for improvement but also fosters a sense of community and shared learning.

7. Challenges with time management

Time management emerged as an occasional challenge among the participants, particularly those balancing work and study commitments. As one participant expressed, “Balancing work and study was tough. Sometimes I struggled to find time for the writing tasks, especially when work got busy.” Another participant shared a similar experience, “Balancing the writing tasks with my job was tough at times. I found it challenging to stick to the schedule, especially during busy weeks at work.” This highlighted the need for additional support mechanisms, such as time management workshops or more flexible deadlines, to help participants stay on track. This difficulty in balancing tasks supported the findings of Fernandez et al. (2017), who noted that adult EFL learners often face barriers related to time constraints and external responsibilities. Addressing these challenges is crucial for fostering sustained engagement in SDL programs.

V. CONCLUSION

The findings of this quasi-experimental research demonstrated that the self-directed, process-oriented writing program significantly enhanced the writing skills of the adult EFL learners. The participants exhibited notable improvements across all of the assessed criteria, with the strongest gains being achieved in the areas of coherence, content and ideas, and cohesion. These results underscore the efficacy of integrating SDL with the process writing approach, as it enables learners to take ownership of their learning and engage in continual practice and reflection. This suggests that EFL educators could consider incorporating SDL principles and the process writing approach into their instruction to foster autonomy and improve writing proficiency among learners. Providing structured yet flexible programs with clear guidelines, resources, and reflection opportunities can lead to meaningful and sustained improvements in writing skills.

The analysis of the demographic factors revealed that educational attainment significantly influenced the improvement in the writing skills of the participants, while gender, age, and employment status did not have a notable impact. The learners with higher educational attainment demonstrated greater improvements, likely due to their prior experience with academic writing and structured learning environments. This finding indicated that tailored support might be necessary for learners with lower levels of educational attainment to ensure equitable progress. Future self-directed writing programs could benefit from offering preliminary modules that focus on basic writing skills and foundational grammar for learners who may need extra support. Additionally, creating peer mentorship systems where more experienced learners guide those with less educational attainment could foster a collaborative learning environment.

The participants’ reflections on the program revealed several key themes, including appreciation for the structured approach, increased self-awareness, improvement in writing skills, empowerment and autonomy, increased confidence and motivation, the value of peer feedback, and challenges with time management. These insights emphasized the importance of a well-designed program that offers a clear structure, opportunities for reflection, and peer interaction. Pedagogically, this suggests that EFL writing programs should integrate reflective activities and peer feedback mechanisms to enhance self-awareness and foster a collaborative learning environment. Additionally, addressing time management challenges through flexible scheduling and time management workshops can support adult learners in balancing their commitments.

While this study offered valuable insights into the design and effectiveness of the self-directed, process-oriented writing program, it is important to recognize certain limitations to guide future research. The study’s focus on intermediate proficiency learners may not generalize to those with significantly lower or higher levels of English proficiency. Further research across different proficiency levels is recommended to ascertain the program’s efficacy for learners with varying language skills. Additionally, access to and familiarity with the digital tools and resources provided in the program may have varied among the learners, potentially influencing their ability to fully engage with the program. It is advisable for subsequent studies to assess participants’ technological proficiency at the outset and provide necessary training to ensure equitable engagement with the program’s digital components. Finally, the 12-week duration may not capture long-term improvements in writing proficiency. It is recommended to conduct studies with extended durations to provide more comprehensive conclusions regarding the sustained impact of self-directed, process-oriented programs on the development of writing skills over time.

APPENDIX A. 12-WEEK SELF-DIRECTED WRITING IMPROVEMENT PROGRAM

Week 1: Introduction and Goal Setting (SDL: Entering Motivation)

- Task 1: Complete a pre-program writing assessment provided by the researcher.
- Task 2: Watch a short video introduction to the SDL model and the process writing approach.
Resources/Tools: Video resources (e.g., YouTube videos on SDL and process writing), note-taking app (e.g., Evernote).
- Task 3: Set personal writing goals for the 12-week program.
Resources/Tools: Goal-setting guide (e.g., “SMART Goals: How to Make Your Goals Achievable” from mindtools.com), goal-setting worksheets, goal tracking app (e.g., Way of Life).

Week 2: Generating Content and Ideas (Writing Stage: Prewriting, SDL: Self-Management)

- Task 1: Learn about generating ideas.

Resources/Tools: Online articles and videos on idea generation (e.g., “Introduction to Prewriting (Invention)” from owl.purdue.edu, “Pre-Writing Strategies: Mind Mapping” on YouTube).

- Task 2: Practice generating ideas for a descriptive paragraph on a chosen topic.

Resources/Tools: Writing prompt (e.g., “40 Topics to Help with Descriptive Writing Assignments” from thoughtco.com), brainstorming worksheet or mind mapping tool (e.g., mindmeister.com)

- Task 3: Reflect on the effectiveness of the techniques used.

Resources/Tools: Reflection journal or journal app (e.g., Day One).

Week 3: Organization and Structure (Writing Stages: Prewriting and Drafting, SDL: Task Motivation)

- Task 1: Understand the importance of clear organization and structure in writing.

Resources/Tools: Online articles and videos on paragraph structure (e.g., “Writing: Building up paragraphs” from BBC.com, “Basic Paragraph Structure” on YouTube).

- Task 2: Outline and structure your descriptive paragraph.

Resources/Tools: Paragraph outline template.

- Task 3: Write the first draft of the paragraph using the outline.

Week 4: Grammar and Sentence Structure (Writing Stage: Drafting, SDL: Self-Management)

- Task 1: Review common grammar rules and sentence structures.

Resources/Tools: Grammar guides and websites (e.g., “English Grammar in Use” by Raymond Murphy, “Grammar” from owl.purdue.edu).

- Task 2: Complete grammar and sentence structure exercises.

Resources/Tools: Online grammar exercises (e.g., Englishpage.com).

- Task 3: Apply grammar and sentence structure knowledge to your draft.

Resources/Tools: Online grammar checking tool (e.g., grammarly.com)

Week 5: Vocabulary Usage (Writing Stage: Drafting, SDL: Self-Management)

- Task 1: Learn techniques for improving vocabulary.

Resources/Tools: Vocabulary building books and websites (e.g., “Word Power Made Easy” by Norman Lewis, vocabulary.com)

- Task 2: Engage in vocabulary exercises and apply new words in sentences.

Resources/Tools: Vocabulary exercise app (e.g., Quizlet).

- Task 3: Enhance your draft of the descriptive paragraph by adding a variety of vocabulary.

Resources/Tools: Vocabulary websites (e.g., vocabulary.com, thesaurus.com).

Week 6: Descriptive Language and Narrative Elements (Writing Stages: Revising, SDL: Task Motivation, Self-Monitoring)

- Task 1: Study the use of descriptive language and narrative elements.

Resources/Tools: Online articles and videos on descriptive writing (e.g., “Descriptive Writing” from writersdigest.com, “Improve your Descriptive Writing” on YouTube).

- Task 2: Complete practice exercises to apply descriptive language and narrative elements.

Resources/Tools: Descriptive writing exercises (e.g., “8 ESL Descriptive Writing Activities” from fluentu.com).

- Task 3: Enhance your draft of the descriptive paragraph by applying what you have learned about descriptive language and narrative elements.

Week 7: Coherence and Cohesion (Writing Stage: Revising, SDL: Self-Monitoring)

- Task 1: Learn techniques for improving coherence and cohesion in writing.

Resources/Tools: Online articles and videos on coherence and cohesion (e.g., “Methodology: Coherence and Cohesion” from onestopenglish.com, “Coherence and Cohesion – What Does it REALLY Mean?” on YouTube).

- Task 2: Revise your draft focusing on coherence and cohesion.

Resources/Tools: Revision checklist (e.g., “Revision Checklist” from owl.excelsior.edu, “An Essay Revision Checklist” from thoughtco.com).

- Task 3: Reflect on the changes made to improve coherence and cohesion.

Week 8: Editing and Mechanics (Writing Stage: Editing and Publishing, SDL: Task Motivation, Self-Monitoring)

- Task 1: Review editing techniques and mechanics (spelling, punctuation, formatting).

Resources/Tools: Online articles and videos on editing techniques (e.g., “Editing and Proofreading” from writingcenter.unc.edu, “How to edit an essay - 6 editing tips” on YouTube).

- Task 2: Edit the final draft of the descriptive paragraph for mechanics.

Resources/Tools: Editing tool (e.g., grammarly.com).

- Task 3: Peer-review the paragraph.

Resources/Tools: Online platform for peer review (e.g., scribophile.com, wattpad.com, medium.com).

Week 9: Writing Practice: Narrative Paragraph (Writing Stages: Prewriting, Drafting, Revising, Editing, and Publishing, SDL: Task Motivation, Self-Monitoring)

- Task 1: Select a topic for a narrative paragraph and conduct prewriting activities.

Resources/Tools: Paragraph topic list (e.g., “500 Prompts for Narrative and Personal Writing” from topscholars.oregonstate.edu).

- Task 2: Learn about narrative paragraph structure and techniques.

Resources/Tools: Online articles and videos on narrative paragraph writing (e.g., “How to Write a Narrative Paragraph” on YouTube).

- Task 3: Write the first draft of the paragraph
- Task 4: Revise and edit the paragraph using the techniques you have learned in the previous weeks.
- Task 5: Peer-review the paragraph.

Week 10: Writing Practice: Expository Paragraph (Writing Stages: Prewriting, Drafting, Revising, Editing, and Publishing, SDL: Task Motivation, Self-Monitoring)

- Task 1: Select a topic for an expository paragraph and conduct prewriting activities.

Resources/Tools: Paragraph topic list (e.g., “61 General Expository Essay Topic Ideas to Practice Academic Writing” from thoughtco.com).

- Task 2: Learn about expository paragraph structure and techniques.

Resources/Tools: Online articles and videos on expository paragraph writing (e.g., “Expository Writing: Writing to Explain” on YouTube).

- Task 3: Write the first draft of the paragraph
- Task 4: Revise and edit the paragraph using the techniques you have learned in the previous weeks.
- Task 5: Peer-review the paragraph.

Week 11: Writing Practice: Persuasive Paragraph (Writing Stages: Prewriting, Drafting, Revising, Editing, and Publishing, SDL: Task Motivation, Self-Monitoring)

- Task 1: Select a topic for a persuasive paragraph and conduct prewriting activities.

Resources/Tools: Paragraph topic list (e.g., “100 Persuasive Essay Topics” from thoughtco.com).

- Task 2: Learn about persuasive paragraph structure and techniques.

Resources/Tools: Online articles and videos on persuasive paragraph writing (e.g., “How to Structure a Persuasive Paragraph” on YouTube).

- Task 3: Write the first draft of the paragraph
- Task 4: Revise and edit the paragraph using the techniques you have learned in the previous weeks.
- Task 5: Peer-review the paragraph.

Week 12: Reflection (SDL: Self-Monitoring)

- Task 1: Complete a post-program writing assessment provided by the researcher.
- Task 2: Reflect on the 12-week journey, evaluating progress and identifying areas for improvement.
- Task 3: Set future writing goals based on the reflection and assessment.

APPENDIX B. WRITING ASSESSMENT RUBRIC AND RATING SCALE

Criteria	Excellent (5)	Good (4)	Satisfactory (3)	Needs Improvement (2)	Poor (1)
Paragraph Structure	Follows the structure appropriate for the paragraph type precisely.	Follows the structure appropriate for the paragraph type well.	Adequately follows the structure appropriate for the paragraph type.	Limited adherence to the structure appropriate for the paragraph type.	Poor adherence to the structure appropriate for the paragraph type.
Content and Ideas	Clear, insightful, and well-developed ideas. Very engaging.	Clear and developed ideas. Interesting.	Adequately developed ideas. Some engagement.	Somewhat developed ideas. Lacks engagement.	Unclear and poorly developed ideas. Not engaging.
Coherence	Ideas are logically connected and text flows smoothly.	Good logical connections and flow.	Adequate connections and flow.	Limited logical connections and flow.	Poor logical connections and flow.
Cohesion	Uses cohesive devices effectively to connect ideas.	Good use of cohesive devices.	Adequate use of cohesive devices.	Limited use of cohesive devices.	Poor use of cohesive devices.
Vocabulary Usage	Rich, precise, and varied vocabulary.	Good range and appropriate use of vocabulary.	Adequate range and mostly appropriate vocabulary.	Limited range and some inappropriate vocabulary.	Very limited range and frequent inappropriate vocabulary.
Sentence Structure	Uses complex and varied sentence structures effectively.	Good use of varied sentence structures.	Adequate use of varied sentence structures.	Mostly uses basic sentence structures.	Predominantly uses basic sentence structures.
Grammar	No errors in grammar.	Few errors in grammar.	Some errors in grammar.	Many errors in grammar.	Frequent errors in grammar.
Mechanics	No errors in spelling, punctuation, and capitalization.	Few errors in mechanics.	Some errors in mechanics.	Many errors in mechanics.	Frequent errors in mechanics.

Total Score: ____ / 40

Rating Scale:

36-40: Excellent

32-35: Very Good

28-31: Good

24-27: Satisfactory

8-23: Needs Improvement

REFERENCES

- [1] Aghayani, B., & Janfeshan, K. (2020). The effect of self-directed learning on EFL learners' writing performance. *International Journal of Research in English Education*, 5(3), 78–89. Retrieved February 4, 2023, from <http://ijreeonline.com/article-1-366-en.html>
- [2] Badger, R., & White, G. (2000). A process genre approach to teaching writing. *ELT journal*, 54(2), 153–160. <https://doi.org/10.1093/elt/54.2.153>
- [3] Brookfield, S. D. (1985). *Self-directed learning: From theory to practice. New directions for adult and continuing education*. Jossey-Bass.
- [4] Candy, P. C. (1991). *Self-direction for lifelong learning: A comprehensive guide to theory and practice*. Jossey-Bass.
- [5] Cate, T., & Dynan, L. (2010). Structured writing assignments as pedagogy: Teaching content, enhancing skills. *Journal of Applied Economics & Policy*, 29(1), 47–60. Retrieved January 16, 2023, from <https://kentuckyeconomicassociation.org/journalofappliedeconomicsandpolicy/wp-content/uploads/2021/01/JAEP-Spring-2010-Publication-29-1.pdf>
- [6] Chaika, O. (2023). Role of reflective practice in foreign language teaching and learning via multicultural education. *International Journal of Social Science and Human Research*, 6(2), 1343–1350. <https://doi.org/10.47191/ijsshr/v6-i2-74>
- [7] Coomber, M. (2016). Promoting self-directed revision in EFL writing classes. *The Electronic Journal for English as a Second Language*, 20(3), 1–19. Retrieved January 7, 2023, from <https://eric.ed.gov/?id=EJ1122809>
- [8] Faraj, A. K. A. (2015). Scaffolding EFL students' writing through the writing process approach. *Journal of Education and Practice*, 6(13), 131–141. Retrieved February 9, 2023, from <https://eric.ed.gov/?id=EJ1080494>
- [9] Fernandez, R., Peyton, J. K., & Schaetzel, K. (2017). A survey of writing instruction in adult ESL programs: Are teaching practices meeting adult learner needs? *Journal of Research and Practice for Adult Literacy, Secondary, and Basic Education*, 6(2), 5–20.
- [10] Ferris, D. R., & Hedgcock, J. S. (2023). *Teaching L2 composition: Purpose, process, and practice*. Routledge.
- [11] Fisher, D., & Frey, N. (2021). *Better learning through structured teaching: A framework for the gradual release of responsibility*. ASCD.
- [12] Gao, Y., An, Q., & Schunn, C. D. (2023). The bilateral benefits of providing and receiving peer feedback in academic writing across varying L2 proficiency. *Studies in Educational Evaluation*, 77, 101252. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.stueduc.2023.101252>
- [13] Garrison, D. R. (1997). Self-directed learning: Toward a comprehensive model. *Adult Education Quarterly*, 48(1), 18–33. <https://doi.org/10.1177/074171369704800103>
- [14] Guerra-Carrillo, B., Katovich, K., & Bunge, S. A. (2017). Does higher education hone cognitive functioning and learning efficacy? Findings from a large and diverse sample. *PLOS One*, 12(8), e0182276. <https://doi.org/10.1371/journal.pone.0182276>

- [15] Hameed, B. A. (2024). Assessing the quality of complexity, accuracy and fluency in expository writing for EFL university students. *Journal of Language Studies*, 8(1), 397–417. <https://doi.org/10.25130/lang.8.1.18>
- [16] Hassan, A., Kazi, A. S., & Asmara Shafqat, Z. A. (2020). The impact of process writing on the language and attitude of Pakistani English learners. *Asian EFL Journal*, 27(4.3), 260–277.
- [17] Hinkel, E. (2011). What research on second language writing tells us and what it doesn't. In E. Hinkel (Ed.), *Handbook of research in second language teaching and learning* (pp. 523–538). Routledge.
- [18] Huang, Y., & Zhang, L. J. (2020). Does a process-genre approach help improve students' argumentative writing in English as a foreign language? Findings from an intervention study. *Reading & Writing Quarterly*, 36(4), 339–364. <https://doi.org/10.1080/10573569.2019.1649223>
- [19] Hwang, W.-Y., Van Giap, N., & Chin, C.-C. (2024). Affordances and influences of multiple technologically-stimulated recognitions for EFL descriptive writing in authentic contextual learning. *Educational Technology & Society*, 27(2), 165–182. Retrieved May 1, 2024, from <https://www.jstor.org/stable/48766169>
- [20] Hyland, K. (2019). *Second Language Writing*. Cambridge University Press.
- [21] Jalaluddin, I. (2019). Process approach in teaching of ESL writing: Teacher's assistance and its practicality in real classroom. *Journal of Research, Policy & Practice of Teachers and Teacher Education*, 9(2), 66–78. <https://doi.org/10.37134/jrppte.vol9.no2.6.2019>
- [22] Jeong, H. (2017). Narrative and expository genre effects on students, raters, and performance criteria. *Assessing Writing*, 31, 113–125. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.asw.2016.08.006>
- [23] Jin, X., Jiang, Q., Xiong, W., Feng, Y., & Zhao, W. (2024). Effects of student engagement in peer feedback on writing performance in higher education. *Interactive Learning Environments*, 32(1), 128–143. <https://doi.org/10.1080/10494820.2022.2081209>
- [24] Johnson, B., & Christensen, L. (2000). *Educational research: Quantitative and qualitative approaches*. Allyn & Bacon.
- [25] Kadmiry, M. (2021). The comparison between the process-oriented approach and the product-oriented approach in teaching writing: The case of Moroccan EFL students in preparatory classes for the grandes ecoles. *Arab World English Journal*, 12(1), 198–214. <https://dx.doi.org/10.24093/awej/vol12no1.14>
- [26] Karasinski, C. M. (2023). Microstructure and macrostructure measures of written narrative, expository, and persuasive language samples. *Communication Disorders Quarterly*, 44(3), 152–162. <https://doi.org/10.1177/15257401221111334>
- [27] Knowles, M. S. (1975). *Self-directed learning: A guide for learners and teachers*. Prentice Hall.
- [28] Larsen-Freeman, D. (2000). *Techniques and principles in language teaching*. Oxford University Press.
- [29] Lee, J., & Lee, J. (2024). Development of argumentative writing ability in EFL middle school students. *Reading & Writing Quarterly*, 40(1), 36–53. <https://doi.org/10.1080/10573569.2022.2161438>
- [30] Listyani. (2018). Promoting academic writing students' skills through "process writing" strategy. *Advances in Language and Literary Studies*, 9(4), 173–179. <https://doi.org/10.7575/aiac.all.v.9n.4p.173>
- [31] Martínez, J., López-Díaz, A., & Pérez, E. (2020). Using process writing in the teaching of English as a foreign language. *Online Submission*, 4(1), 49–61. Retrieved January 29, 2023, from <https://eric.ed.gov/?id=ED603410>
- [32] Merriam, S. B., & Baumgartner, L. M. (2020). *Learning in adulthood: A comprehensive guide*. John Wiley & Sons.
- [33] Moon, J. A. (2013). *A Handbook of reflective and experiential learning: Theory and practice*. Routledge.
- [34] Pourdana, N., & Asghari, S. (2021). Different dimensions of teacher and peer assessment of EFL learners' writing: Descriptive and narrative genres in focus. *Language Testing in Asia*, 11(1), 6. <https://doi.org/10.1186/s40468-021-00122-9>
- [35] Ramadhani, Y. R., Safriyani, R., Siregar, R. K., Tambunan, E. E., & Harputra, Y. (2020). *Investigating the influence of self-directed e-learning toward students' academic writing ability*. In International Conference on English Language Teaching (ICONELT 2019) (pp. 143–147). Atlantis Press.
- [36] Reinders, H., & Benson, P. (2017). Research agenda: Language learning beyond the classroom. *Language Teaching*, 50(4), 561–578. <https://doi.org/10.1017/S0261444817000192>
- [37] Tompkins, G. E., & Goss, C. (1987). *Write angles: Strategies for teaching composition*. The University of Oklahoma.
- [38] Weigle, S. C. (2002). *Assessing writing*. Cambridge University Press.
- [39] White, R., & Arndt, V. (1991). *Process writing: Longman handbook for language teachers*. ASCD.
- [40] Xu, Z., Zhang, L. J., & Parr, J. M. (2023). Incorporating peer feedback in writing instruction: Examining its effects on Chinese English-as-a-foreign-language (EFL) learners' writing performance. *International Review of Applied Linguistics in Language Teaching*, 61(4), 1337–1364. <https://doi.org/10.1515/iral-2021-0078>
- [41] Zamel, V. (1983). The composing processes of advanced ESL students: Six case studies. *TESOL Quarterly*, 17(2), 165–188. <https://doi.org/10.2307/3586647>
- [42] Zhang, F., Schunn, C., Chen, S., Li, W., & Li, R. (2023). EFL student engagement with giving peer feedback in academic writing: A longitudinal study. *Journal of English for Academic Purposes*, 64, 101255. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jeap.2023.101255>

Nouf Aljasir has earned her PhD from the University of Birmingham in the United Kingdom. She is currently an Associate Professor of Applied Linguistics at the English Language Institute, King Abdulaziz University, Jeddah, Saudi Arabia. Her research interests include the psycholinguistic, sociolinguistic, and pragmatic aspects of second language learning. She is specifically interested in individual differences in learning second languages.

Analysis of Japanese Learners' Mother Tongue Interferences in Speaking English Language

I Nyoman Muliana*

Department of Linguistics, Warmadewa University, Denpasar, Bali 80239, Indonesia

Julius Faozanolo Sarumaha

Department of Linguistics, Warmadewa University, Denpasar, Bali 80239, Indonesia

Rahmat Gaho

Department of Linguistics, Warmadewa University, Denpasar, Bali 80239, Indonesia

Abstract—the use of the mother tongue can influence the production of spoken English, which covers the phonological, grammatical, and lexical aspects. This study aims to find out the interferences of the mother tongue with the result of a second language, which in this case is English. The method used in this study is qualitative descriptive, and the data is collected by observing and recording the data in the field. The data is students' utterances in English whose mother tongue is Japanese. The results show that the three aspects, which consist of the phonological aspect, grammatical aspect, and lexical aspect in the mother tongue, interfere with the speaking ability, which, in this case, speaking English ability.

Index Terms—mother tongue, second language, language interference, Japanese learner

I. INTRODUCTION

English, one of the most widely spoken languages, serves as a lingua franca in various domains, including business, science, academia, and international communication (see Ethnologue, 2023; United Nations, 2023). As a result, non-native English speakers strive to attain proficiency in spoken English to excel in diverse social and professional contexts by acquiring the language in various ways, such as formal and informal situations (Krashen, 2009). In learning a new language, it has been widely recognized that students heavily rely on their mother tongue (Gass & Selinker, 2008). This phenomenon could not be separated from its process because people are already used to the sounds of their mother tongue and how they pronounce the words. Moreover, language acquisition and communication are complex processes involving various linguistic influences (Krashen, 1981). In the context of second language acquisition, learners often encounter challenges when transitioning from their native language to the target language.

English is the most used language in the world (See Table 1), and this condition influences information and science available on the internet, technologies that run in English, tourism, commercial, etc. Crystal (2003, p. 29) stated that English is a global language because of its geographical, historical, and social-cultural position. Meanwhile, achieving fluency and naturalness in spoken English can be a challenging process, primarily due to the phenomenon of mother-tongue interference.

*Corresponding Author. Email: inyomanmulianabali@gmail.com

TABLE 1
TOP 20 MOST SPOKEN LANGUAGES, 2023

No	Spoken Languages	Number
1	English	1.5 B
2	Mandarin Chinese	1.1 B
3	Hindi	609.5 M
4	Spanish	559.1 M
5	French	309.8 M
6	Standard Arabic	274.0 M
7	Bengali	272.8 M
8	Portuguese	263.6 M
9	Russian	255.0 M
10	Urdu	231.7 M
11	Indonesian	199.1 M
12	Standard German	133.2 M
13	Japanese	123.4 M
14	Nigerian Pidgin	120.7 M
15	Egyptian Spoken Arabic	102.4 M
16	Marathi	99.2 M
17	Telugu	96.0 M
18	Turkish	90.0 M
19	Tamil	86.6 M
20	Yue Chinese	86.6 M

Source: Ethnologue (2023)

Mother tongue interference refers to the transfer of linguistic patterns, structures, and pronunciation from the native language into the second language, in this case, English (see Obilade, 1984). Such interference can manifest at various linguistic levels, such as phonetics, phonology, syntax, vocabulary, and pragmatics, leading to miscommunication and misunderstandings. These interferences not only impact the accuracy of spoken English but also influence the speaker's confidence and communicative effectiveness (see de Bruin et al., 2023; Nazarenko, 2013; Vavilova et al., 2015; Wolfsturn et al., 2021). According to Selinker (1972), mother tongue interference refers to the influence of a person's native language (mother tongue) on their acquisition and use of a second language (target language). Mother tongue interference, also known as cross-linguistic influence, refers to the influence that a person's first language (L1) may have on their second language (L2) when learning or using it (Cummins, 1979). This influence can occur at various linguistic levels, such as phonological, grammatical, lexical, and pragmatic.

Mother tongue interference is a common phenomenon that impacts second language learners in encountering challenges when transitioning from their mother tongue to the target language (see Marita & Jufrizal, 2021; Adnyani et al., 2021; Carrió-Pastor & Vallés, 2015; Cerban, 2013; Gimenez, 2015; Ino et al., 2023; Sarfraz et al., 2016). In this case, Japanese learner also encounters the same situation when they study a new language. Moreover, as a prominent economic and technological powerhouse, Japan recognizes the importance of English proficiency for its citizens to participate in the global arena actively. However, English and Japanese belong to vastly different language families with distinct linguistic structures, posing challenges for Japanese students learning English (see Adnyani et al., 2021; Noviyenty & Putri, 2021; Peaci, 2016).

In connection with the above, this research aims to comprehensively analyze mother tongue interference in spoken English for Japanese, exploring its different forms, the factors contributing to its occurrence, and its implications for language learners and educators. By delving into the intricacies of this phenomenon, the researcher hopes to shed light on the challenges of non-native English speakers and propose effective strategies to minimize the impact of mother tongue interference on spoken English fluency. Thus, this research analyzes how Japanese learners' mother tongue interferes with the spoken English language.

II. RESEARCH FOCUS

- A. **Error analysis perspective:** This research will adopt an error analysis perspective by analyzing the errors made by Japanese students in their spoken English. The focus will be on identifying the recurring errors and understanding their underlying causes, whether they are attributable to mother tongue (Japanese) transfer, overgeneralization, or other factors.
- B. **Sociolinguistic perspective:** The research will also consider the sociolinguistic aspect of language learning. Factors such as language contact, exposure to English in different settings, and attitudes towards the English language may influence the extent of mother tongue interference. By considering these sociolinguistic factors, the research aims to provide a more comprehensive analysis of the phenomenon.
- C. **Pedagogical perspective:** This research aims to offer practical implications for English language teaching in Japan. By examining the areas of mother tongue interference, the study will contribute to developing targeted pedagogical approaches and instructional materials that address the specific linguistic challenges Japanese learners of English face.

III. CONCEPT AND THEORY

The primary objective of this research is to investigate the influence of the Japanese language on the spoken English language production of Japanese learners. The research aims to identify the specific areas where mother tongue interference occurs and analyze the types of errors that arise due to this interference. Additionally, the study seeks to explore the linguistic factors contributing to these errors and propose effective pedagogical strategies to address and minimize such interference.

Mother tongue effects could be negative and positive in acquiring the target language. Grammatical, lexical, and phonological errors in the target language may be negatively impacted by L1 effects on L2/FL learning (Kecskes, 2008), but L1 habits also help people acquire all of their foreign language habits in beneficial ways (Hakuta, 1993) interference of first language divides into three types; phonological, grammatical and lexical interference (Weinreich, 2011).

A. Phonological Aspect

Phonology examines how speech sounds are arranged into a system or the sound system of a particular language. In addition to explaining pronunciations, phonology also seeks to account for what is essential in pronunciations, what facilitates communication, and what distinguishes one utterance from another (Kreidler, 2004). Moreover, Phonology describes the system and patterns of sounds that occur in a language. Phonology deals with the phonemes and sequences of phonemes (Nurhayati, 2018). It means each language has its own phonology and its own particular sound systems, either in English or Japanese (see Saito, 2013; Yi et al., 2023).

	/a/	/i/	/u/	/e/	/o/	/ja/	/ju/	/jo/
0	あ ア [a]	い イ [i]	う ウ [u]	え エ [e]	お オ [o]	や ヤ [ja]	ゆ ユ [ju]	よ ヨ [jo]
/k/	か カ [ka]	き キ [k'i]	く ク [kw]	け ケ [ke]	こ コ [ko]	きゃ キヤ [k'a]	きゅ キュ [k'i]	きょ キョ [k'o]
/g/°	が ガ [ga]	ぎ ギ [g'i]	ぐ グ [gw]	げ ゲ [ge]	ご コ [go]	ぎゃ ギヤ [g'a]	ぎゅ ギュ [g'i]	ぎょ ギョ [g'o]
/s/	さ サ [sa]	し シ [ci]	す ス [si]	せ セ [se]	そ ソ [so]	しゃ シヤ [ca]	しゅ シュ [ci]	しょ ショ [co]
/z/¹	ざ ザ [za]	じ ジ [zi]	ず ズ [zi]	ぜ ゼ [ze]	ぞ ゾ [zo]	じゃ ジャ [za]	じゅ ジュ [zi]	じょ ジョ [zo]
/t/²	た タ [ta]	ち チ [ci]	つ ツ [tsi]	て テ [te]	と ト [to]	ちゃ チャ [tca]	ちゅ チュ [ci]	ちょ チョ [co]
/d/¹²	だ ダ [da]	ち チ [zi]	つ ツ [zi]	で デ [de]	ど ド [do]	ぢゃ チャ [za]	ぢゅ チュ [zi]	ぢょ チョ [zo]
/n/²	な ナ [na]	に ニ [ni]	ぬ ヌ [nu]	ね ネ [ne]	の ノ [no]	にゃ ニヤ [na]	にゅ ニュ [ni]	にょ ニョ [no]
/h/	は ハ [ha]	ひ ヒ [ci]	ふ フ [fu]	へ ヘ [he]	ほ ホ [ho]	ひゃ ヒヤ [ca]	ひゅ ヒュ [ci]	ひょ ヒョ [co]
/b/³	ば バ [ba]	び ビ [bi]	ぶ ブ [bu]	べ ベ [be]	ぼ ボ [bo]	びゃ ビヤ [ba]	びゅ ビュ [bi]	びょ ビョ [bo]
/p/	ぱ パ [pa]	ぴ ピ [pi]	ぷ プ [pu]	ぺ ペ [pe]	ぽ ポ [po]	ぴゃ ピヤ [pa]	ぴゅ ピュ [pi]	ぴょ ピョ [po]
/m/	ま マ [ma]	み ミ [mi]	む ム [mu]	め メ [me]	も モ [mo]	みゃ ミヤ [ma]	みゅ ミュ [mi]	みょ ミョ [mo]
/r/⁴	ら ラ [ra]	り リ [ri]	る ル [ru]	れ レ [re]	ろ ロ [ro]	りゃ リヤ [ra]	りゅ リュ [ri]	りょ リョ [ro]
/w/	わ ワ [wa]	あ ア [i]		ゑ エ [e]	を ヲ [o]			

°g can become ŋ in the middle of words or y in fast speech

¹z and ʒ may be affricates dʒ and ʒʒ

²t, d and n are laminal denti-alveolar

³b can become θ in fast speech

⁴r can also be ɹ

/N/ ん ン

[w] At the end of utterances

[m] Before [b, p, m]

[n] Before [d, t, ts, n] (apical before [r, l])

[ɲ] Before [t͡ʃ, d͡ʒ, ɲ]

[ŋ] Before [k, g, ŋ]

[ɥ] Before vowels, [i, u], [r, l], [ɸ, s, ɕ, ʑ, ɕ, h]

Figure 1. Japanese Phonology Chart
Source: WaniKani Community (2021)

	monophthongs				diphthongs		Phonemic Chart voiced unvoiced
	i: sheep	I ship	ʊ good	u: shoot	Iə here	eɪ wait	
VOWELS	e bed	ə teacher	ɜ: bird	ɔ: door	ʊə tourist	ɔɪ boy	əʊ show
	æ cat	ʌ up	ɑ: far	ɒ on	eə hair	aɪ my	aʊ cow
	p pea	b boat	t tea	d dog	tʃ cheese	dʒ June	k car
CONSONANTS	f fly	v video	θ think	ð this	s see	z zoo	ʃ shall
	m man	n now	ŋ sing	h hat	l love	r red	w wet
							j yes

The 44 phonemes of Received Pronunciation based on the popular Adrian Underhill layout. extracted by EnglishClub.com

Figure 2. English Phonology Chart
Source: <https://www.englishclub.com/pronunciation/phonemic-chart.php>

B. Grammatical Aspect

Grammatical interference is a natural phenomenon that occurs when the elements of the first language are included in the use of the second language step by step in the grammar of the second language, such as word order, pronoun, subject-verb agreement, conjunction, singular-plural agreement, tense, and so on (Martanti, 2011; see also Aka, 2020; Kurata, 2014; Muroya, 2022; Sakamoto & Furukawa, 2022). This phenomenon could be found in Japanese learners learning English because the Japanese structure and English differ. Japanese sentences generally have an S-O-V structure, and it is also the basic transitive sentence structure (Subject-Object-Verb), which differs from English grammar (see Lianna et al., 2020).

C. Lexical Aspect

According to Weinreich (2011), lexical interference is the situation when one vocabulary interferes with another. Furthermore, acquiring a foreign language has a variety of effects on our own language. It could pertain to multilingual phonology and lexicon (Pavlenko, 2000). In conclusion, lexical interference occurs while learning a new language (Cf. Akhavan et al., 2023; Aldaberdikzy, 2013; Ivanova & Hernandez, 2021; Sari & Gaho, 2020).

IV. METHODS

This research was conducted in Bali-Bali English. Bali-Bali English is a language course institution located in Jimbaran, South Kuta, Badung, Bali, Indonesia (<https://balibali-english.com/>). The study employed a qualitative-descriptive. Qualitative research was applied to explore and provide deeper insights into real-world problems (see Tenny et al., 2022). Instead of collecting numerical data points or intervening or introducing treatments just like in quantitative research, qualitative research helps generate hypotheses as well as further investigate and understand quantitative data (Creswell & Creswell, 2018; Krug & Schlüter, 2013; Miles et al., 2014).

The data was collected using observation by using a tape recorder, especially the Japanese utterances during English production in a classroom at Bali-Bali English. The analytical data was obtained from Japanese learners with different levels, namely beginner low, beginner medium, beginner high, and intermediate low. The data collection process took one month and two weeks.

The data was first analyzed using error analysis theory (Corder, 1982) and contrastive analysis theory (Lado, 1957). Identifying and categorizing errors in the spoken English of Japanese students will be a crucial step, and a comparison between Japanese and English will be conducted to reveal areas of potential interference and highlight the contrasting linguistic structures. This will involve a systematic analysis of the linguistic features that are prone to mother-tongue interference. The steps of error analysis specified by Corder (1982) are as follows: collection of data, identification errors, quantification errors, and explanation of errors.

V. RESULT AND DISCUSSION

A. Phonological Aspects

The following data is collected based on the actual condition of Japanese learners' utterances while speaking English from any level through observation in the classroom. It can be found that most Japanese students have difficulties pronouncing some sounds in English, as revealed in Table 2. It is based on the student's level of English, which was assessed by the teacher when they entered the school.

TABLE 2
PHONOLOGICAL ERROR DONE BY JAPANESE LEARNER DURING SPEAKING ENGLISH

Level	Sounds in L2	Sounds interfere by L1	Example in words
IM, IL, BH, BL, BM	R = /r/	/l/	Very /veri/ → /veli/ Rice /rais/ → /lais/
IL, BH, BL, BM	Th = /ð/ /θ/	/t/ /dθ/	Think / θɪŋk/ → / tɪŋk/ Through /θru/ → /dθru/ This / ðis/ → /θdis/
IL, BH, BL, BM	V = /v/	/b/	Favorite /feɪ.vər.ət/ → /feɪ.bər.ət/ Curvy /kɜ:(r)vi/ → /kɜ:(r)bi/

Note: IM (Intermediate Medium), IL (Intermediate Low), BH (Beginner High), BM (Beginner Medium), BL (Beginner Low).

Based on the table above, some Japanese learners still need to correct their pronouncing some words in English. This situation is happening because Japanese and English phonology sounds are different. The phonetic sounds that mostly interfere with the Japanese mother tongue are /l/ and /r/ because in Japanese, the sound /l/ is strongly used, and the sound /r/ is soft, almost like /l/ sounds. The phenomenon of /l/ and /r/ sound interference happens for students already in Intermediate Medium to Beginner. Then the following sounds are / to /b/. This case does not occur much as /l/ sounds, but this sound is a common mistake pronounced by some Japanese because the /sound is powerful and familiar in the Japanese language. Meanwhile, there are no /v/ sounds in Japanese. The last one is the /th/ sound. Japanese students sometimes find it difficult to pronounce /th/ because this sound is unfamiliar. As a result, they usually use /t/, which sounds familiar to them, to substitute them. Moreover, some Japanese students also are difficult to differentiate between the /ð/ and /θ/ sounds in English (see Aka, 2020; Kobayashi, 2023; Kubota, 2017; Kurata, 2014; Muroya, 2022; Naderpour, 2022; Saito, 2013; Sakamoto & Furukawa, 2022; Yi et al., 2023).

B. Grammatical Aspects

Grammatical interference refers to the phenomenon where speakers tend to use their mother tongue (L1) structure when they produce the target language (L2), which happens naturally. The following data is grammatical interference done by Japanese learners.

Data 1:

L2: I English study
CL: I study English

As seen in Data 1 above, it shows grammatical interferences. The grammatical errors occurred because the mother tongue's structure interfered with the speaker. In this case, the Japanese mother tongue structure is S-O-V. The speaker uses her L1 structure in producing L2, which shows grammatical interference. The correct grammar is "I study English" (see CL = Correct language).

Data 2

L2: I ate toastto and banana and pineapple and drink orange juice and coffee.
CL: I ate toast, banana, and pineapple and drank orange juice and coffee.

The sentence L2 above shows redundancy "and" in spoken English, which is grammatically incorrect. The redundancy "and" in the sentence above is due to the influence of L1 structures because "and" means "to" in Japanese. They usually put the conjunction "to" between each word and come after every noun except the last one, which is used in connecting multiple items. If compared with the use of conjunctions in English, it is certainly different (see Sutasoma et al., 2022), for example in Japanese:

Japanese language	: コーヒーと チーズケーキを おねがいします
	(Kōhī to chīzukēki o onegai shimasu)
Meaning	: Coffee and cheesecake please

Data 3

L2: I have two pen
CL: I have two pens

Data 3 shows the error grammar in processing nouns from singular to plural. This phenomenon is a common grammar mistake because there is no pluralization form in Japanese; meanwhile, in English, there is a pluralization (adding s/es). In Japanese, the way of processing nouns to the singular is by adding suffixes next to the word, such as the suffixes *-tachi*, *-ora*, and *-domo*, which indicate a plurality of [+human] nouns (Martin, 1975), for example in Japanese:

Japanese language	: 男の子は	男の子たちは
	(otonoko)	(otonoko-tachi)
Meaning	: boy	boys

Data 4

L2: Mr. Jul yesterday night how did you do?
CL: What did you do yesterday night Mr. Jul?

Data 4 above shows grammatical mistakes in producing questions in English. The structure of the speaker's utterances was influenced by the question structure of her mother tongue. Usually, in the Japanese language, the structure for making questions is (noun or noun phrase) + が + (question word) + (verb) + か. So, from the structure, it is seen that the speaker follows the mother tongue structure in making interrogative sentences in English. This phenomenon is considered as grammatical interference.

C. Lexical Aspects

Lexical interference tends to the use of L2 vocabulary, which L1 still influences; this phenomenon usually happens when a person uses L1 elements while speaking in L2. Some of the phenomena exist for Japanese students while producing English.

Data 5

L2: I ate **etto** Hawaiian **pancakekio** and to *malasadas* like a donuts

CL: I ate Hawaiian pancakes and *malasadas* like donuts

Data 5 above found that the speaker follows the structure of his mother tongue. The speaker uses the word “**pancakekio**”, which actually has the same meaning as pancakes in English, but the way of pronouncing it is similar to his mother tongue because the word “**pancakekio**” is an absorption language from English that is recognized in Japanese with their own language style.

Then, in this sentence also, it can be recognized that the speaker uses the filler word “etto”, which is a Japanese filler word that only helps the speaker to recall their idea in English instead of using English filler words such as “umm, hmm” which has no meaning at all in this sentence. Fillers serve a communication function, having a place in the speakers’ vocabulary. Fillers are not the main message; they just help to have meaning in sentences (Clark & Tree, 2002). Besides that, this phenomenon shows language interference when the speaker uses Japanese words to express themselves.

Data 6

L2: He is beautiful **to** smart

CL: She is beautiful and smart

Data 6 found that the speaker uses the word “to” as a conjunction, which is in the Japanese language. The word “to” is a conjunction that has the meaning of “and” (cf. Sutasoma et al., 2022). The L2 shows the wrong conjunction because the borrowing system from the mother tongue so that the target language indicates lexical interferences.

Data 7

L2: I like drink *kohi*

CL: I like drink coffee

Data 7 above shows that the speaker uses the term “*kohi*”, which is originally a word from Japanese that means coffee. *Kohi* is the absorption word from Dutch, namely *koffie*. This phenomenon happens because the Japanese already familiar with the word “*kohi*”, which refers to “coffee”. In this case, they used to pronounce the word *kohi*. So, it indicates lexical interference. Similar to the data 8 below.

Data 8

L2: I love dancesu

CL: I love dance

The word “dancesu” is also the Japanese word “ダンス” (*dansu*), which means “dance”. As mentioned in the previous data, this word is also an absorption word from England, and the L2 indicates lexical interferences.

VI. CONCLUSION

In conclusion, the phenomenon of mother tongue interference is a prevalent issue that affects language learners as they strive to acquire a new language (see Aziz et al., 2019; Kaushanskaya et al., 2011; Madriñan, 2014; Popa, 2016; Wang, 2014; Wong & Dras, 2009). This interference is particularly evident in Japanese learners of English, as they grapple with various challenges, such as transitioning from their mother tongue to the target language. These challenges encompass difficulties in structuring sentences correctly, selecting appropriate words in the target language, and accurately pronouncing English words. Notably, mispronunciations often occur due to the influence of Japanese phonetic sounds. However, as students’ English proficiency increases over time, the impact of mother tongue interference gradually diminishes. It underscores the dynamic nature of language acquisition and the potential for learners to overcome initial obstacles with dedicated effort and continued language development. Therefore, further research is needed to explore the dynamic of mother tongue interference in the Japanese language or another language to reveal other phenomena in languages.

ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

The authors extend gratitude to Warmadewa University for the financial support that has facilitated the successful execution of this research endeavour.

REFERENCES

- [1] Adnyani, K. E. K., Puspawati, N. W. N., & Suwastini, N. K. A. (2021). 'Makam' Nasi: Language Interference of a Japanese Young Learner in Indonesia. *Jurnal Pendidikan Dan Pengajaran*, 54(3), 548–563. doi:10.23887/jpp.v54i3.41023
- [2] Aka, N. (2020). Incidental Learning of a Grammatical Feature from Reading by Japanese Learners of English as a Foreign Language. *System*, 91, 102250. doi:10.1016/j.system.2020.102250
- [3] Akhavan, N., Blumenfeld, H. K., Shapiro, L., & Love, T. (2023). Using Lexical Semantic cues to Mitigate Interference Effects During Real-Time Sentence Processing in Aphasia. *Journal of Neurolinguistics*, 68(October), 101159. doi:10.1016/j.jneuroling.2023.101159
- [4] Aldaberdikzy, A. (2013). Lexical Interferences of Kazakh-Russian Bilingual Children of Preschool Age: A Sociolinguistic Survey. *Procedia - Social and Behavioral Sciences*, 93, 1885–1888. doi:10.1016/j.sbspro.2013.10.134
- [5] Aziz, Z. A., Daud, B., & Yunidar, S. (2019). Second Language Interference towards First Language Use of Japanese Learners. *Indonesian Journal of English Language Teaching and Applied Linguistics*, 4(1), 159–176.
- [6] Carrió-Pastor, M. L., & Vallés, I. T. (2015). A Comparative Study of the Influence of the Mother Tongue in LSP and CLIL. *Procedia - Social and Behavioral Sciences*, 178(November 2014), 38–42. doi:10.1016/j.sbspro.2015.03.143
- [7] Cerban, M. (2013). Rehabilitation of the Mother Tongue in Teaching EFL to Adult Learners. *Procedia - Social and Behavioral Sciences*, 70, 1696–1702. doi:10.1016/j.sbspro.2013.01.243
- [8] Corder, S. P. (1982). *Error Analysis and Interlanguage*. Oxford: Oxford University Press.
- [9] Creswell, J. W., & Creswell, J. D. (2018). *Research Design: Qualitative, Quantitative, and Mixed Methods Approaches* (5th ed.). London: SAGE Publications, Inc. doi:10.1017/CBO9781107415324.004
- [10] Crystal, D. (2003). *English as a Global Language* (2nd ed.). Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.
- [11] Cummins, J. (1979). Linguistic Interdependence and the Educational Development of Bilingual Children. *Review of Educational Research*, 49(2), 222–251. doi:10.3102/0034654304900222
- [12] de Bruin, A., Hoversten, L. J., & Martin, C. D. (2023). Interference between Non-Native Languages During Trilingual Language Production. *Journal of Memory and Language*, 128(October), 104386. doi:10.1016/j.jml.2022.104386
- [13] Ethnologue. (2023). *What are the Top 200 Most Spoken Languages?* Retrieved 1 September 2023, from <https://www.ethnologue.com/insights/ethnologue200/>
- [14] Gass, S. M., & Selinker, L. (2008). *Second Language Acquisition: An Introductory Course* (3rd ed.). New York: Routledge Taylor & Francis Group.
- [15] Gimenez, S. L. (2015). A Case Study on Oral Corpus: The Use of Mother Tongue in Class by Brazilian Teachers of Spanish as Foreign Language. *Procedia - Social and Behavioral Sciences*, 198(Cilc), 242–248. doi:10.1016/j.sbspro.2015.07.442
- [16] Hakuta, K. (1993). *Second-Language Acquisition, Bilingual Education, and Prospects for a Language-Rich Nation. Restructuring Learning: 1990 Summer Institute Papers and Recommendations by the Council of Chief State School Officers*. Washington, DC: Council of Chief State School Officers.
- [17] Ino, L., Marhadi, A., Arman, Masri, F. A., Maliudin, Rasiyah, ... Gaho, R. (2023). 'Good Morning, Fokoamau': An Analysis of the Addressing Terms in Pancana Language. *Theory and Practice in Language Studies*, 13(10), 2544–2556. doi:https://doi.org/10.17507/tpls.1310.13
- [18] Ivanova, I., & Hernandez, D. C. (2021). Within-Language Lexical Interference Can be Resolved in a Similar Way to Between-Language Interference. *Cognition*, 214, 104760. doi:10.1016/j.cognition.2021.104760
- [19] Kaushanskaya, M., Yoo, J., & Marian, V. (2011). The Effect of Second-Language Experience on Native-Language Processing. *Vigo International Journal of Applied Linguistics*, 8, 54–77.
- [20] Kecskes, I. (2008). The Effect of the Second Language on the First Language. *Babylonia*, 31–34. Retrieved 1 September 2023, from www.babylonia.ch
- [21] Kobayashi, Y. (2023). Japanese Female English Learners' Two-Stage Learning from Filipino and Western English Teachers to Acquire "accent-free" English. *Language & Communication*, 91, 46–54. doi:https://doi.org/10.1016/j.langcom.2023.05.004
- [22] Krashen, S. D. (1981). *Second Language Acquisition and Second Language Learning*. Oxford: Pergamon Press.
- [23] Krashen, S. D. (2009). *Principles and Practice in Second Language Acquisition*. Portsmouth: Pergamon Press Inc.
- [24] Kreidler, C. W. (2004). *The Pronunciation of English: A Course Book* (2nd ed.). Oxford: Blackwell Publishing.
- [25] Krug, M. G., & Schlüter, J. (2013). *Research Methods in Language Variation and Change*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press. doi:10.1017/CBO9781107415324.004
- [26] Kubota, M. (2017). Post Study Abroad Investigation of Kanji Knowledge in Japanese as a Second Language Learners. *System*, 69, 1–10. doi:10.1016/j.system.2017.07.006
- [27] Kurata, N. (2014). Construction of L1/L2 Use in Informal Social Networks: A Study of Learners of Japanese in Australia. *Linguistics and Education*, 27(1), 14–29. doi:10.1016/j.linged.2014.06.003
- [28] Lado, R. (1957). *Linguistics Across Cultures*. Ann Arbor: University of Michigan Press.
- [29] Lianna, L., Sutedi, D., & Herniwati. (2020). Contrastive Analysis of Japanese and Indonesian Inversion Sentences. In *Proceedings of the 4th International Conference on Language, Literature, Culture, and Education (ICOLLITE 2020)* (Vol. 509, pp. 400–406). Atlantis Press. doi:https://doi.org/10.2991/assehr.k.201215.063
- [30] Madriñan, M. S. (2014). The Use of First Language in the Second-Language Classroom: A Support for Second Language Acquisition. *Gist Education and Learning Research Journal*, 9(9), 50–66.
- [31] Marita, T., & Jufrizal. (2021). L1 Syntactic Interference in ESP Students' Writing Assignments. In *Proceedings of the Eighth International Conference on English Language and Teaching (ICOELT-8 2020)* (Vol. 579, pp. 166–171). Atlantis Press. doi:https://doi.org/10.2991/assehr.k.210914.032
- [32] Martanti, P. (2011). *An Analysis of Grammatical Interference in Article of Berani Newspaper*. State Islamic University Syarif Hidayatullah.
- [33] Miles, M. B., Huberman, A. M., & Saldaña, J. (2014). *Qualitative Data Analysis: A Methods Sourcebook* (3rd ed.). United States of America: SAGE Publications, Inc.

- [34] Muroya, A. (2022). A Bidirectional Comparison of English and Japanese Learners' Willingness to Communicate in Their Foreign Language. *Ampersand*, 9(December), 100081. doi:10.1016/j.amper.2021.100081
- [35] Naderpour, Z. (2022). A Contribution of Fanfiction Writing to Improving Voice and Fluency of Learners of Japanese from An Agentive Perspective. *System*, 105, 102723. doi:https://doi.org/10.1016/j.system.2022.102723
- [36] Nazarenko, L. (2013). Methods of Overcoming the Language Interference in the Speech of Russian-speaking Immigrants in the Czech Republic. *Procedia - Social and Behavioral Sciences*, 93(1953), 1630–1633. doi:10.1016/j.sbspro.2013.10.092
- [37] Noviyenty, L., & Putri, M. I. (2021). Mother Tongue Interference Towards Students' English Pronunciation: A Case Study in IAIN Curup. *Proceedings of the International Conference on Educational Sciences and Teacher Profession (ICETeP 2020)*, 532(532), 283–290. doi:10.2991/assehr.k.210227.049
- [38] Nurhayati, D. A. W. (2018). *English Phonetics: Theory and Practices*. Tulungagung: Akademia Pustaka.
- [39] Obilade, T. (1984). Mother Tongue Influence on Polite Communication in A Second Language. *Language and Communication*, 4(4), 295–299. doi:10.1016/0271-5309(84)90013-2
- [40] Pavlenko, A. (2000). L2 Influence on L1 in Late Bilingualism. *Issues in Applied Linguistics*, 11(2), 175–205. doi:10.5070/14112005033
- [41] Peaci, D. (2016). The Problematic Interaction between the Mother Tongues, the National Language and Foreign Language Instruction in Turkish Education. *Procedia - Social and Behavioral Sciences*, 232(April), 479–485. doi:10.1016/j.sbspro.2016.10.065
- [42] Popa, S. (2016). Language Transfer in Second Language Acquisition. *Some Effects of L1 Instruction (Romanian) on L2/L3 Learning (Catalan/Spanish)*. Universitat de Lleida.
- [43] Saito, K. (2013). Age Effects on Late Bilingualism: The Production Development of /ɹ/ by high-proficiency Japanese learners of English. *Journal of Memory and Language*, 69(4), 546–562. doi:10.1016/j.jml.2013.07.003
- [44] Sakamoto, M., & Furukawa, G. (2022). Native Speakers Aren't Perfect': Japanese English Learners' Identity Transformation as English Users. *System*, 110, 102921. doi:https://doi.org/10.1016/j.system.2022.102921
- [45] Sarfraz, S., Mansoor, Z., & Tariq, R. (2016). Analysis of Grammatical Interference and its Social Acceptability in Pakistani Context. *Procedia - Social and Behavioral Sciences*, 232(April), 684–688. doi:10.1016/j.sbspro.2016.10.093
- [46] Sari, R. P., & Gaho, R. (2020). Indonesian Interference in the Students' Writing of Recount Text at SMA Negeri 1 Toma. *Retorika: Jurnal Ilmu Bahasa*, 6(2), 98–104. doi:10.22225/jr.6.2.2526.98-104
- [47] Selinker, L. (1972). Interlanguage. *International Review of Applied Linguistics in Language Teaching*, X(3), 209–231. doi:https://doi.org/10.1515/iral.1972.10.1-4.209
- [48] Sutasoma, I. M., Bagus, I. G., Nugraha, W., & Sulatra, I. K. (2022). Conjunctions Found in Short Story 'Mr. and Mrs. Elliot'. *Austronesian: Journal of Language Science & Literature*, 1(3), 142–149. https://doi.org/10.59011/austronesian.1.3.2022.141-147
- [49] Tenny, S., Brannan, J. M., & Brannan, G. D. (2022). *Qualitative Study*. StatPearls Publishing.
- [50] United Nations. (2023). *Official Languages*. Retrieved 1 September 2023, from https://www.un.org/en/our-work/official-languages
- [51] Vavilova, E. N., Korneeva, M. A., & Quy, N. N. (2015). Genre Interference in the Process of Foreign Language Speaking Training. *Procedia - Social and Behavioral Sciences*, 215(June), 225–230. doi:10.1016/j.sbspro.2015.11.626
- [52] Wang, X. (2014). Effects of the Second Language on the First: A Study of ESL Students in China. *Theory and Practice in Language Studies*, 4(4), 725–729. doi:10.4304/tpls.4.4.725-729
- [53] WaniKani Community. (2021). *Japanese Phonology Chart (with IPA)*. Retrieved 1 September 2023, from https://community.wanikani.com/t/japanese-phonology-chart-with-ipa/48255
- [54] Weinreich, U. (2011). *Languages in Contact: Finding and Problems*. The Hague: Mouton Publishers.
- [55] Wolfsturn, S. von G. zu, Robles, L. P., & Schiller, N. O. (2021). Cross-Linguistic Interference in Late Language Learners: An ERP Study. *Brain and Language*, 221(June), 104993. doi:10.1016/j.bandl.2021.104993
- [56] Wong, S. J., & Dras, M. (2009). Contrastive Analysis and Native Language Identification. In L. A. Pizzato & R. Schwitter (Eds.), *Proceedings of the Australasian Language Technology Association Workshop 2009* (pp. 53–61). Sydney: ACL Anthology. Retrieved from https://aclanthology.org/U09-1008.
- [57] Yi, X., Han, X., Cao, S., Zhou, T., & Wu, W. W. (2023). Chinese JSL/JFL Learners' Online Perception of Japanese Verb Conjugations: Evidence from a Behavioral Study. *Heliyon*, 9(5), e15820. doi:10.1016/j.heliyon.2023.e15820



I Nyoman Muliana was born in Denpasar, on March 26, 1968. Since 1993 he has been working as a lecturer of English and Linguistics at Universitas Warmadewa. He obtained his doctoral degree of linguistics in 2014 and has also been active in researches, publications, and seminars on linguistics. Some of the publications are *Ideologi di Balik Iklan Komersial Berbahasa Bali* in *Jurnal Kajian Bali Journal of Bali Studies* in 2020 and *The Dynamics of Language Attitudes of the Teenagers at Desa Buduk, Kecamatan Mengwi, Badung* (2021). I Nyoman Muliana can be contacted by WhatsApp on 08123981609 and email on inyomanmulianabali@gmail.com



Julius Faozanolo Sarumaha is a postgraduate student at Warmadewa University, Denpasar, Indonesia. He is concentrating on linguistics course at Linguistics Department, Warmadewa University, Denpasar. He graduated at Nias Raya University in Faculty of Teacher Training and Education and took English Language Education Program in 2021. Now, he is teaching English subject at PT. Bali-Bali English, Kuta, Bali which is mostly the English learners are Japanese. Besides that, he also actives to do research in linguistics subject. One of his works that has been published entitled “Adjective Phrases in Initial Burst of Small Talk Influence Purchasing Decisions?” by Journal of Language Teaching and Research (JLTR) in 2023.



Rahmat Gaho is a scientific article editor. He obtained his master’s degree in Department of Linguistics, Warmadewa University, Bali. His several recent works namely “A Bibliometric Analysis of Publication on Novel as Literacy Source,” published in Journal of Language Teaching and Research (2024). Then, “Good Morning, Fokoamau”: An Analysis of the Addressing Terms in Pancana Language” published in the Theory and Practice in Language Studies (2023). The last, “Linguistics Landscape: A theoretical review”, is published by KnE Publishing (2022). He can be contacted with email: rahmatgaho27des@gmail.com

Film Subtitling's Challenges and Solutions: An Empirical Study of Saudi Translation Learners' Perceptions and Attitudes

Talal Musaed Alghizzi

Department of English Language and Literature, College of Languages and Translation, Imam Mohammad Ibn Saud Islamic University (IMISU), Riyadh, Saudi Arabia

Anwar Alharbi

College of Languages, Princess Nourah Bint Abdulrahman University, Saudi Arabia

Tariq Elyas

Faculty of Arts and Humanities, King Abdulaziz University, Jeddah 21589, Saudi Arabia

Abstract—The growing cultural consciousness and other needs emerging due to rapid globalization in contemporary times have led to an addition to the available literature in the translation subfield of film subtitling. This has created new challenges for the learners enrolled in translation courses. However, the problem specific to the subtitling of films is relatively less researched, especially concerning learners' perceptions and attitudes towards it. This study aimed to bridge this gap, investigate the problems encountered by Saudi EFL learners in subtitling film content, and chronicle their suggestions for dealing with them. The study used a validated questionnaire to gather perceptions and attitude data from a large sample of 583 translation students across four Saudi universities in the second semester of the academic year 2021-2022. This phase lasted for almost four months. All the items in the questionnaire were loaded onto five factors. The findings showed a significant positive correlation between the number of translation courses/credited hours and participants' knowledge, attitudes, applied practice, and suggestions for improving learning outcomes in their universities. The findings also established that Saudi EFL students face several challenges in subtitling, including linguistic, cultural, and technical problems, of which technical issues, followed by cultural issues, were perceived to top the list. Finally, there were no significant differences in the participants' perceptions attributable to the alma mater, indicating that the challenges are universal and that changes in policy, curricular, and pedagogical levels are needed in all participating universities.

Index Terms—subtitling, Saudi students, translation, attitudes, practice

I. INTRODUCTION

In a world with over 7000 spoken languages and increasing globalization and technological advancements, translation has paved the way for intercultural communication. According to Ghazala (1995), "translation generally refers to all processes and methods used to render and/or transfer the meaning of the source language [SL] to the target language [TL] as closely, completely, and accurately as possible" (p. 1). There are many types of translation, but generally, they fall into three categories: written translation, oral translation, and subtitling. Shuttleworth and Cowie (1997, p. 161) define subtitling as "the process of providing synchronized captions for film and television dialogue". In today's globalized world, where audio-visual content is widely distributed across various platforms, subtitling is crucial for ensuring that content is accessible to everyone. It is a powerful tool for breaking down language barriers and promoting cultural exchange, allowing viewers to access content in the language that they understand. Moreover, subtitling can provide additional information, such as sound effects or music lyrics, and enhance the viewing experience.

Teaching subtitling at universities is crucial for several reasons. First, it provides students with the skills and knowledge needed to create high-quality, accurate, timely, and culturally appropriate subtitles. Second, teaching subtitling at universities can help students develop their language skills, especially in languages other than their native languages. This is particularly valuable for students pursuing careers in translation, interpretation, and localization, as subtitling is a crucial element in these fields. Third, teaching subtitling at universities can help students develop critical thinking and problem-solving skills and deep understanding, proficiency, and fluency in both the SL and TL. Subtitling requires students to make decisions about timing, length, and formatting, among other things, which requires them to develop analytical and creative skills. It also requires students to work collaboratively and communicate effectively, with essential skills in many professions. Finally, teaching subtitling at universities can help students understand audiovisual content's cultural and social implications. Subtitles can significantly affect how a film or video is perceived by different audiences, and

understanding the cultural nuances and sensitivities involved in subtitling is essential for creating accurate and appropriate subtitles.

Universities that provide subtitling courses help students develop both practical skills and a broader understanding of the challenges of intercultural communication and the importance of translation in today's globalized world. The following are some further arguments for the need to teach subtitles:

Cultural Sensitivity: When subtitling, pupils must understand the subtleties of many cultures, including idioms, humor, and sociocultural allusions. As a result of this process, students develop greater cultural awareness, which is crucial for promoting respect and understanding across cultures.

Teaching subtitling allows students to become critical consumers of audio-visual content when the media is oversaturated. To promote media literacy and a critical attitude toward material consumption, they studied how subtitles could affect audience perception and interpretation.

multimodal communication

Subtitling combines text with visual and audible aspects beyond simple linguistic translations. University courses in subtitling aid students in understanding the complexities of multimodal communication and preparing them for employment in which efficient communication across many media is crucial.

opportunities for employment abroad

Subtitlers are in high demand because of the global expansion of entertainment and media industries. Offering subtitling courses can give students access to a wide range of job options, including localization, foreign marketing, cinema, and television.

cultural exchange and diversity

Subtitling exchanges multiple narratives, enabling viewers from various linguistic backgrounds to access and enjoy worldwide content. Universities actively support the promotion of cultural diversity and inclusiveness through teaching subtitles.

Universities that teach subtitling foster a broader perspective on language, culture, and communication in addition to teaching students practical skills. This prepares students to meet the demands of a globalized world, where successful communication and meaningful cross-cultural discourse depend on good translation and intercultural understanding.

problem statement

In a more globalized world, translation education is crucial for overcoming linguistic and cultural divides. Saudi Arabia has increasingly emphasized developing translation abilities due to the growing need for efficient communication with other countries. However, the efficiency of translation education in Saudi Arabia is hampered by several issues that affect Saudi translation students' learning processes and results (Al-Ghurbani et al., 2022). Understanding the unique challenges Saudi translation learners face and looking into potential solutions that fit their perceptions and attitudes are essential for ensuring the quality of translation education and learners' readiness for the demands of a diverse and interconnected world.

Despite the enormous investments made in language education programs throughout Saudi Arabia, little is known about the complex difficulties and obstacles translation learners face while pursuing their education. Numerous elements, including teaching strategies, curriculum layout, linguistic skill levels, and sociocultural settings, may affect these difficulties (Al-Ghurbani et al., 2022). Furthermore, nothing is known about the attitudes and perspectives of Saudi translation students towards these issues and the suggested fixes.

To address these problems, a thorough analysis of Saudi Arabia's barriers to effective translation learning and an investigation into Saudi language learners' attitudes and views of potential remedies is necessary. We hope this study will help improve educational practices and policies in this sector by addressing the crucial facets of translation education in Saudi Arabia. The study's conclusions will ultimately offer insightful information to educators, decision-makers, and other stakeholders involved in creating translation education programs, promoting the development of qualified translators who can effectively support Saudi Arabia's engagement with the rest of the world.

significance of the study

This study aims to embark on the demands and suggestions of many researchers (e.g., Al-Jarf, 2021; Alotaibi & Salamah, 2023) to improve the translation industry in Saudi Arabia and mainly shed light on subtitling by understanding the challenges and opportunities faced by students and their attitudes towards these difficulties. It provides valuable insights for policymakers, students, and educational programs to enhance the quality of translation education programs, improve learner results, and create competent translators for international trade, diplomacy, tourism, and cultural exchanges. This study also helps Saudi Arabian policymakers make informed decisions about spending on translation education, allocate resources, and create relevant policies. Effective translation is crucial for promoting cross-cultural understanding and diplomacy. Saudi Arabia could benefit significantly from a team of qualified translators to improve its intercultural communication. Ultimately, the study has great potential to improve Saudi Arabia's translation education system, empower students, and strengthen the nation's international interactions.

research questions

Given the gap in the literature available on the subtitling and statement of the problem, this study aims to answer the following questions:

1. Is there a correlation between participants' amount of exposure to subtitling and their attitudes, knowledge, practices, and suggestions toward it?

2. Is there a correlation between the scope of translation courses taught at universities and participants' attitudes, knowledge, practice, and suggestions?
3. Is there a correlation between the duration of translation programs/track total hours and participants' attitudes, knowledge, practice, and suggestions towards it?
4. Are there differences between participants' attitudes, practices, problems, and suggestions regarding subtitling across the four universities included in this study?

II. LITERATURE REVIEW

defining subtitling

Subtitling has been defined by various scholars in a relatively similar manner. Gambier (1993) explained it as 'one of two possible methods for providing the translation of a movie dialogue, where the original dialogue soundtrack is left in place, and the translation is printed along the bottom of the film' (p. 276). On the other hand, Gottlieb (2004) defined subtitling as "a process that entails technically transferring an SL movie or audio-visual media to a TL movie or audio-visual media, synchronized with the original verbal message" (cited in Abdelaal, 2019). Similarly, O'Connell (2007) viewed subtitling as "supplementing the original voice soundtrack by adding written text on screen" (p. 169). In a detailed manner, Díaz Cintas and Remael (2007) explained it as "a translation practice that consists of presenting a written text, generally on the lower part of the screen, that endeavors to recount the original dialogue of the speakers, as well as the discursive elements that appear in the image (letters, inserts, graffiti, inscriptions, placards, and the like), and the information that is contained in the soundtrack (songs, voices off)" (p. 8). According to Gottlieb's (1997) classification, subtitling falls into two categories: interlingual and intralingual. Gottlieb (1997) defined interlingual subtitling as "the subtitling between two languages" (as cited in Dayan, 2014, p. 1105) and defined intralingual subtitling as "the subtitling within the same language" (cited in Dayan, 2014, p. 1105).

The definitions of subtitling offered by various academics demonstrate their fundamental attributes and functions, illuminating the complexity of this translation practice. These definitions provide a basic grasp of subtitling and help it grow as an academic topic of study and a valuable area of specialization. Gambier (1993) defined subtitling as a technique that keeps the original music while offering a written translation. This definition strongly emphasizes maintaining a conversation in the original language (SL), which is crucial for capturing sincerity and feelings of performance. Like Gottlieb (2004), who emphasized the synchronization of the translated text with the original spoken message, other authors have also drawn attention to the technical aspects of subtitling. A crucial component of subtitles is synchronization, which ensures that viewers can read the translated dialogue while watching audio-visual material.

A further dimension is added by O'Connell's (2007) definition, which describes subtitles as additions to the original soundtrack. This emphasizes the usefulness of subtitles, which improve the viewing experience by conveying dialogue and extra information, such as sound effects or song lyrics. In their thorough explanation from 2007, Díaz Cintas and Remael broadened the definition of subtitles to include various extraneous visual and aural features, such as letters, inserts, tunes, and voices. This definition highlights the difficulty of subtitling and the requirement that translators consider many layers of information when producing subtitles. Our comprehension of subtitling practices is further supported by Gottlieb's (1997) classification of subtitling into intralingual and interlingual subtitling. Translation between two languages is a part of interlingual subtitling, highlighting the cross-cultural and linguistic difficulties subtitlers must overcome. Intralingual subtitling, however, concentrates on subtitling within the same language and is sometimes employed for accessibility or instructional objectives.

Together, these definitions highlight the significance of subtitling in audio-visual translation and its function in opening content to a global audience. They also draw attention to various abilities and factors translators must possess, from language precision to cultural sensitivity and technical competence. These fundamental concepts will continue to be essential for directing both practitioners and academics in the field of subtitling as subtitling continues to change in response to technological developments and the rising demand for multilingual materials.

related studies

The theme of worldwide subtitling has incited immense research interest in the contemporary world. Given its importance, we can classify the studies that were conducted in the field of subtitling into those that discussed the definition of subtitling (Matkivska, 2014); those that discussed the types of subtitling (Gottlieb, 1997; Dayan, 2014); those that discussed the teaching of subtitling (Al-Dabbagh, 2017; Batrina, 2009; Cintas & Díaz, 2001), and those that discussed students' attitudes toward subtitling (Al-Dabbagh, 2017; Kendenan, 2019; McKenzie, 2018; Rundle, 2008; Talaván & Rodríguez-Arancón, 2014). However, subtitling has not received adequate attention at most universities worldwide, where it is taught per se or under translation courses. According to Cintas and Díaz (2001), "Very few educational institutions in the UK have taken up the challenge to teach dedicated modules on any of the translation modes implemented generally in the world of audio-visual products, be it subtitling, dubbing or voice-over," (p. 3). Al-Dabbagh (2017) is one of the few studies investigating subtitling teaching at Jordanian universities. This study examined the importance of integrating subtitling courses in translation curricula at Jordanian universities by giving 20 undergraduate students a brief introduction to the technicalities of subtitling and practical subtitling activities. After completing the theoretical and practical sections, the students were asked to answer a questionnaire consisting of 12 statements. The results showed that 20 students (100%) agreed that subtitling improved language and listening skills and enhanced cultural

awareness and vocabulary acquisition. Eighteen students (90%) agreed that subtitling exercises could help "fine-tune" their translation skills; the remaining two students (10%) said that they did not know whether this mode of translation was rewarding (Al-Dabbagh, 2017, pp. 2, 21). Conversely, 15 students (75%) supported integrating subtitling courses into translation curricula at Jordanian universities.

McKenzie (2018) conducted a study on a subtitling project by 23 second-year Italian students at the Victoria University of Wellington. The students were tasked with subtitling the Italian comedy classic, *Il Secondo Tragico Fantozzi*, into English. After completing the project, students were asked to answer a questionnaire on their overall benefits. The questionnaire's results were generally positive and showed that all participants found the project interesting. The results also indicated that 88% of students found the project efficient in enhancing their translation ability. Most importantly, most students viewed subtitling as a valuable tool for language learning.

Talaván and Rodríguez-Arancón (2014) investigated the potential usefulness of collaborative reverse subtitling in foreign language education to determine whether using reverse subtitling as a collaborative language learning tool could develop general translation and writing skills. The study was conducted with 20 Spanish undergraduate students who worked together online and within a distance learning framework on subtitling two brief Spanish film clips of nearly two minutes each in English. All students were enrolled at the Universidad Nacional de Educación a Distancia (UNED). The participants were divided into four groups of five students each. All participants answered two questionnaires: one before and one after the project. The most important results "were obtained from the average mark distribution (from skills assessment tests) and analysis of the responses given to the questionnaires" (Talaván & Rodríguez-Arancón, 2014, p. 90). The students' answers to the post-questionnaire showed that collaborative reverse subtitling was valuable in enhancing writing skills, vocabulary acquisition, grammar development, and raising confidence in using a foreign language. The final marks obtained by the students in writing were 7/10 in the pre-tests as opposed to 7,7/10 in the post-tests, improving by 0.7 in only two-and-a-half months. The improvement in translation was 1.2, increasing from 6.4/10 on the pre-test to 7.6/10 on the post-test. The results suggest a positive development of students' subtitling abilities after the project.

Diaz Cintas and Remael (2020) rightly observed subtitling challenges in films that a plethora of verbal and visual sign systems together create semiotics that convey the meaning or story in a film, a complex phenomenon indeed. This was borne out by Barrera-Rioja (2023), who reported that swearwords are often dropped in Spanish-English subtitling because of "the interaction between swearwords and non-verbal elements. Alfaify and Pinto (2022) noted in the specific context of subtitling into Arabic that "when the domestication method is used, participants not only seem to have a higher level of understanding of the cultural reference, but they also seem to be more aware of that understanding as there is a higher level of correspondence between participants' perceived understanding and actual understanding of the cultural references" (p. 122), thus bursting the belief that the complexity of the film material directly affects viewers' understanding when subtitling or dubbing is employed.

III. METHODOLOGY

research design and settings

Given the large sample in this study, it takes a quantitative research approach (Creswell & Creswell, 2017), adopting the theoretical framework of creative subtitles (Foerster, 2010) and the notion of creativity proposed by Bruner's (1962) and Boden's (1994) framework. This was deemed appropriate, as subtitling is a creative endeavor; therefore, beginning with the notion of creativity itself is natural. The study was conducted across four Saudi universities in the second semester of the academic year 2021-2022 and lasted almost four months.

participants

The population of EFL learners who graduated from translation programs/tracks in Saudi universities is heterogeneous. Therefore, a stratified sampling method (Parsons, 2017) based on the following inclusion criteria was used to prevent extra variables from distorting the results: a) graduate student a) had to be a female who graduated recently (no more than a year ago) from a translation program in one of the four Saudi universities included here; b) had to be of an age range between 21 and 26 years; and c) did not fail in any translation courses or drop any semester during her bachelor's degree duration. The number of respondents and credited hours for the prevalent program and translation course are presented in Table 1.

TABLE 1
PARTICIPANTS' NUMBERS, PREVALENT PROGRAM AND TRANSLATION COURSE CREDITED HOURS

University	Translation Courses Number and Credited Hours	Subtitling Courses' Credited Hours	Translation Program Credited Hours	Number of Respondents
Qassim University	Eight courses (24 hours)	2	133	153
King Saud University	18 courses (47 hours)	4	137	111
Electronic University	11 course (33 hours)	3	127	116
Princess Nourah University	18 course (63 hours)	7	186	203

instruments

This study used a single instrument, a questionnaire, to gather data. The questionnaire (see Appendix) consisted of six sections: practice (three evaluation tasks on subtitled videos by famous Arab translators to be watched and statements to be responded to), knowledge (four statements), attitudes (15 statements), problems (seven statements), and suggestions (five statements). A Likert scale gradient (strongly agree, agree, neutral, disagree, strongly disagree) was used to elicit the responses. Apart from these multiple-choice statements, one question was included at the end for participants to share any other relevant information.

data collection procedures and analysis

Once the questionnaire was prepared using previous literature and the research questions in mind, it was sent to three Assistant Professors of Translation to ensure the face validity of the tool. The corrections, comments, and suggestions have been incorporated. The questionnaire was posted on Google Forms and piloted with a participant group (n=20), similar to the survey respondents, but was not included in the final study. The results showed that the alpha value of the overall scale (34 items) was 0.948, and Cronbach's alpha (Feldt, 1980) values for the five constructs ranged from 0.820 to 0.931, suggesting high internal consistency of the questionnaire items. After that, the link to the questionnaire was sent to the respondent group, which had open access for four months. Data were statistically analyzed using professional assistance.

IV. RESULTS

The first research question was, **is there a correlation between participants' amount of exposure to subtitling and their attitudes, knowledge, practices, and suggestions toward it?** To answer this question, Pearson's correlation coefficient (r) was computed, and the results are summarized in Table 2.

TABLE 2
CORRELATIONS BETWEEN (KN, AT, PC, AND SG) AND TRANSLATION COURSE NUMBER AND CREDITED HOURS

Pearson Correlation Coefficients			
	TCCH (Translation Course Number & Credited Hours)	Sig. (2-tailed)	Supported
KN: Knowledge	0.16**	.000	Significant
AT: Attitudes	0.35**	.000	Significant
PC: Practice	0.12**	.006	Significant
SG: Suggestions	0.22**	.000	Significant

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

The results presented above indicate a significant positive correlation between Knowledge (KN) and Translation Courses Number and Credited Hours (TCCH) as per the value (r) at 0.16; between AT toward subtitling and TCCH as per the value (r) at 0.35; subtitling PC and TCCH as per the value (r) at 0.12; and finally, between SG and TCCH as per the value (r) at 0.22.

The second research question was: **Is there a correlation between the scope of translation courses taught at universities and participants' attitudes, knowledge, practices, and suggestions?** To answer this question, correlation analysis was performed to identify the relationships among these dimensions, and the results are presented in Table 3.

TABLE 3
CORRELATIONS BETWEEN KN, AT, PC, AND SG AND SUBTITLING HOURS

Pearson Correlation Coefficients			
	SBTH (Subtitling Hours)	Sig. (2-tailed)	Supported
KN: Knowledge	0.16**	.000	Significant
AT: Attitudes	0.32**	.000	Significant
PC: Practice	0.15**	.000	Significant
SG: Suggestions	0.20**	.000	Significant

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

The results presented above indicate a significant positive correlation between the KN of subtitling and titling hours (SBTH) as per the value (r) at 0.16, between AT toward subtitling and SBTH as per the value (r) at 0.32, between PC and SBTH as per the value (r) at 0.15, and finally, between SG and SBTH as per the value (r) at 0.20.

The third research question was: **Is there a correlation between the duration of translation programs/track total hours and participants' attitudes, knowledge, practice, and suggestions towards it?** To answer this question, correlation analysis was performed to identify the aspects of the relationships among these dimensions, and the results are presented in Table 4.

TABLE 4
CORRELATIONS BETWEEN KN, AT, PC, AND SG AND TRANSLATION PROGRAM CREDITED HOURS

	Pearson Correlation Coefficients		
	TPCH (Translation Program Credited Hours)	Sig. (2-tailed)	Supported
KN: Knowledge	0.07	.095	Not Significant
AT: Attitudes	0.26**	.000	Significant
PC: Practice	0.19**	.000	Significant
SG: Suggestions	0.10*	.019	Significant

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

*Correlation is significant at the 0.05 Level (2-tailed)

Results, as presented above, indicate a 'not significant' or slight positive correlation between KN and TPCH as per the value (r) at 0.07; a significant positive correlation between AT and TPCH as per the value (r) at 0.26; between PC and TPCH as per the value (r) at 0.19; between SG and TPCH as per the value (r) at 0.10.

The fourth and final research question was: **Are there differences between participants' attitudes, practices, problems, and suggestions regarding subtitling across the four universities included in this study?** To answer this question, the overall mean, standard deviation, and percentage were calculated, and the results are presented in Table 5.

TABLE 5
THE DIFFERENCE BETWEEN THE PARTICIPANTS' RESPONSES IN THE FOUR UNIVERSITIES IN TERMS OF THEIR KNOWLEDGE, ATTITUDES, PROBLEMS, PRACTICE, AND SUGGESTIONS TOWARD SUBTITLING

Construct	Overall Mean	Std. Deviation	Percent (%)	Response
Knowledge				
Qassim University	3.34	1.325	66.9%	Neutral
King Saud University	3.22	1.361	64.3%	Neutral
Electronic University	3.45	1.261	69.0%	Neutral
Princess Nourah University	3.33	1.250	66.5%	Neutral
Attitudes				
Qassim University	3.74	0.950	74.8%	Agree
King Saud University	3.73	0.920	74.7%	Agree
Electronic University	3.83	0.870	76.6%	Agree
Princess Nourah University	3.79	0.932	75.8%	Agree
Subtitling problems				
Qassim University	3.69	1.080	73.8%	Agree
King Saud University	3.69	1.085	73.9%	Agree
Electronic University	3.81	1.034	76.2%	Agree
Princess Nourah University	3.74	1.058	74.9%	Agree
Practice				
Qassim University	4.19	0.671	83.8%	Excellent
King Saud University	4.03	0.701	80.6%	Excellent
Electronic University	4.21	0.728	84.2%	Excellent
Princess Nourah University	4.23	0.670	84.5%	Excellent
Suggestions				
Qassim University	3.46	1.142	69.2%	Agree
King Saud University	3.39	1.179	67.9%	Agree
Electronic University	3.52	1.107	70.4%	Agree
Princess Nourah University	3.46	1.095	69.1%	Agree

The results above show no differences between participants' attitudes, practices, problems, and suggestions regarding subtitling across the four universities. These findings are graphically depicted in Figure 1.

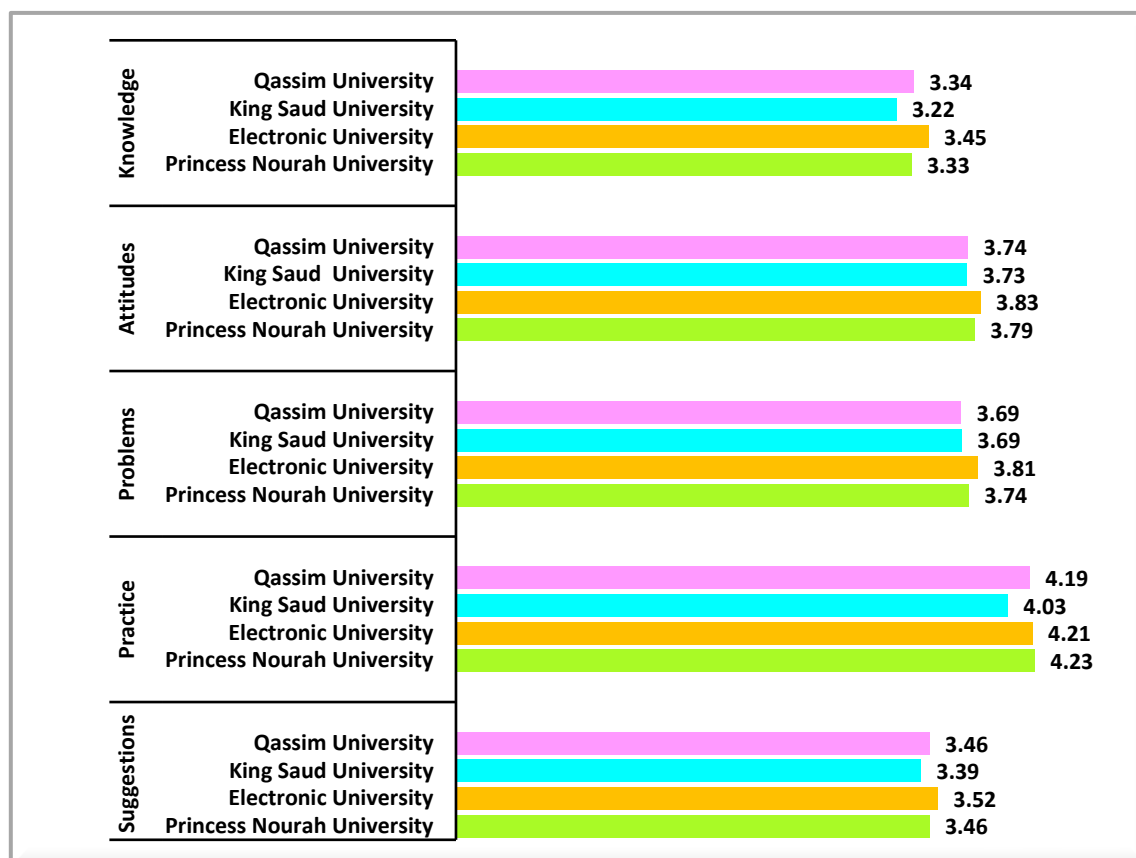


Figure 1. Comparison Between the Means of Responses of the Participants in the Four Universities in Terms of Their Knowledge, Attitudes, Problems, Practice, and Suggestions Toward Subtitling

V. DISCUSSION

The field of subtitling has gained traction in recent years due to shifting geopolitical dynamics. However, the literature on subtitling available thus far is fragmented, unfocused, and limited in scope. Therefore, some may argue that there is still some ambiguity surrounding the theory and practice of subtitling. Many foreign programs and films use subtitles to make dialogue accessible to speakers of other languages. Hence, the quality of subtitles has become increasingly necessary to comprehend foreign language audio-visual programs and bridge the gap between different languages and cultures.

This firmly establishes the relevance of the current study and the results it arrived at. The first aim of this study was to assess Saudi EFL learners' subtitling knowledge. This included their understanding of its meaning, its elements, the software utilized, and the differences between translation, subtitling, and localization. Our first finding relates to the differences among Saudi EFL learners chosen from four specific Saudi universities regarding the subtitling knowledge level.

The responses on the Likert scale showed that two-thirds of the students in the study (66.7%) did not know enough about subtitling, its elements, and software and were unsure that they could distinguish between translation, subtitling, and localization, with an overall average response of 3.34 and a difference in opinions estimated at 1.292 (see Table 4.4). The results also showed that the general average responses from students in the four Saudi universities (Al-Qassim, King Saud, Electronic, and Princess Nourah) were similar, where $M = 3.34, 3.22, 3.45,$ and 3.33 , respectively (see Table 4.16). In brief, this finding suggests no notable differences between the participants from the four Saudi universities regarding their knowledge of subtitling.

Our second research aim was to explore Saudi EFL learners' views on subtitling and its potential impact on their reading, listening, writing, and speaking skills. The micro-investigations focused on whether subtitling could improve their vocabulary and grammar, assist them in translation and critique, and enhance their understanding of specialized programs. Additionally, we examined whether subtitling could help learners comprehend the differences between the SL and TL and increase their awareness of audience identification and cultural diversity. We also investigated whether subtitling could boost learners' motivation to learn a language, provide initial workplace training, and increase their confidence in their mother tongue and second language.

The responses on the Likert scale showed that three-quarters of the students (75.5%) in the study sample believed that subtitling had a positive impact on improving their overall English language skills and developing their translation skills

and critical skills in particular, as well as helping their understanding of specialized programs/software, with an average response of 3.77, and a slight difference in opinions ($SD = 0.924$). The results also showed that students in the four Saudi universities (74.8% in Al-Qassim University, 74.7% in King Saud University, 76.6%, and 75.8% in Princess Nourah University) had similar positive attitudes toward subtitling, with convergent general average responses of 3.74, 3.73, 3.83, and 3.79, respectively. These findings indicate no marked differences in learners' attitudes toward the importance of subtitling among the participants of the four Saudi universities.

Subtitling is a form of audio-visual translation requiring specialized skills to tackle the translator's complex challenges. These challenges can be verbal or nonverbal and may involve semantic, lexical, and structural obstacles. The challenges encountered can vary depending on the medium and nature of the film or TV program being subtitled. Moreover, subtitling caters to a wide range of viewers with varying levels of linguistic proficiency, from those who may be fluent in the SL but prefer to read subtitles to those unfamiliar with the language. Additionally, some may require additional support to understand the narrative. The translators' responsibility is to ensure that the film or program's core message and meaning are preserved while still meeting the needs of all viewers. Therefore, subtitling is a complex and vital task that requires a deep understanding of both language and cultural nuances and a commitment to ensuring that every viewer has an equally rich and fulfilling experience.

In this study, our third aim pertained to the problems/challenges Saudi translators may encounter when it comes to film translation. The analysis showed that students (EFL learners/Saudi translators) face several linguistic, cultural, and technical problems/obstacles while subtitling. These include selecting the appropriate material or content, knowledge of suitable programs, and difficulties in their usage. In addition, cultural differences between the two languages, differences in the levels of the two languages, and the time and effort required are involved.

The responses on the Likert scale show a convergence among Saudi students concerning their level of agreement with the seven subtitling-determined problems, where the average responses ranged from 3.63 to 3.90, with a slight difference in opinions from 0.901 to 1.204. The results also showed that the majority of Saudi translators (78.1%) in the study sample agreed that technical issues are the most problematic of difficulties, including the difficulty of using subtitling programs and knowledge of suitable programs (75%), followed by cultural issues including cultural differences between the two languages (75%). Furthermore, the time and effort requirements (72% and 75%, respectively) were considered third among the obstacles. Finally, linguistic issues, including the difference in language levels between the two languages (nearly 73%), came in fourth place regarding obstacles.

Most Saudi translators in the study sample agreed on all seven proposed subtitling problems they may face when translating the films. On the other hand, the results also showed that there were similar approval percentages of students in the four Saudi universities (73.8% in Al-Qassim University, 73.9% in King Saud University, 76.2%, and 74.9% in Princess Nourah University), with convergent general averages of students' responses ranging between 3.69% and 3.81%. The difficulty of subtitling programs was the biggest obstacle faced when translating the films, followed by the cultural differences between the two languages. These results suggest no significant differences in participants' perceptions of the *alma mater* factors.

Various explanations support these findings. First, the practicality and simplicity of the tool and software in the subtitling task are principal considerations for Saudi EFL translators, and students often avoid subtitling programs that are difficult to use. Second, English and Arabic are two distinct languages with diverse cultural expressions; hence, what has a particular meaning in the source language (SL) does not necessarily have an equivalent in the TL, making cultural expressions a difficult task for EFL translators. Another reason is the lack of research skills of Saudi EFL translators, which impedes their access to the needed information and knowledge of suitable subtitling programs, appropriate material, and expression. Shunnaq (1993) also noted that Arabic and English are languages that may be said to have sharply contrasting cultural backgrounds. Hence, translators dealing with these languages should be bilingual and bicultural. Furthermore, finding an appropriate equivalence, or even any equivalence, can be incredibly challenging in many cases. The current results are consistent with those of Newmark (1988), who stated that most cultural expressions are complex to detect because they are associated with a particular language and cannot be translated literally.

Our fourth aim was to investigate Saudi EFL students' feedback on three videos after watching them and assess the subtitling quality. The videos are titled "Enjoy the Journey, not the Destination," "Fall Forward," and "How Do You Become a Critical Thinker?" Responses on the Likert scale showed that most of the participants (83.6%) in the study agreed that the subtitling of the three videos met the desired level of quality and was excellent, with almost identical average responses, where $M = 4.30, 4.17, \text{ and } 4.07$, respectively. On the other hand, the results also showed that Saudi EFL students' feedback was overwhelmingly positive regarding subtitling. The four Saudi universities had convergent percentages of participants' approval that the subtitling of the three videos was excellent and met their expectations (83.8% at Al-Qassim University, 80.6% at King Saud University, and 84.2% and 84.5% at Princess Nourah University), with almost identical averages of responses ranged from 4.03 to 4.23, and a slight difference in their opinions ($SD = 0.671, 0.701, 0.728, \text{ and } 0.670$, respectively). These findings suggest that feedback from Saudi EFL translators (EFL learners) in all four universities was similar and positive, indicating no significant differences in their opinions on the three videos.

One explanation for this finding is that the accuracy of the subtitles in the three movies could be due to the effective methods and subtitling strategies used by the subtitlers/translators. These strategies likely helped to retain the original language SL features in the TL while preserving the sense of humor and thematic significance of these movies for a wider

audience (i.e., with a general audience, not specialized or specific in mind). However, this is a difficult task that requires considerable care and attention.

Our fifth aim was to understand the perceptions of Saudi EFL translators regarding suggestions for improving subtitling at Saudi universities. The findings showed that more than two-thirds of Saudi EFL subtitling students (69.2%) agreed with the suggested measures for improving the subtitling course in Saudi universities, with an overall average response of 3.46 and a slight variation in opinions ($SD = 1.125$) that did not affect the results.

The responses on the Likert scale showed that 78.4% of the participants believed that competitions organized by the Literature, Publishing, and Translation Commission for subtitling and placing awards for it would be beneficial. This could make the learning of subtitling more enjoyable and more engaging. Additionally, 73.3% of the translators saw the importance of adding independent subtitling courses at more than one level in undergraduate programs at Saudi universities. This would help EFL student translators enhance their subtitling skills and competence. However, more than two-thirds of the translators (69.8%) preferred holding live meetings with subtitling pioneers in the Kingdom of Saudi Arabia and the Arab world to avail the opportunity to learn from their peers' experiences and be in touch with different cultures (as a source language), as well as to work as a team. It is important to note that the quality of translation is a teamwork effort rather than individual accomplishment.

In addition, the results also showed that the Saudi EFL subtitling students in the four Saudi universities agreed with the suggested improvement for the subtitling course, with similar approval percentages (69.2% in Al-Qassim University, 67.9% in King Saud University, 70.4%, and 69.1% in Princess Nourah University), and almost identical averages of responses ranged from 3.39 to 3.52. According to the alma mater, these results suggest no significant differences in the participants' perceptions.

VI. CONCLUSIONS

This investigation helped to conclude that Saudi EFL subtitling students face several challenges, including linguistic, cultural, and technical problems, with technical issues representing the most problematic, followed by cultural issues.

Furthermore, the study also established that the exposure of Saudi English as a Foreign Language (EFL) learners to subtitling, the number of translation courses they take, and the total duration of hours they spend on translation programs/tracks have a direct impact on their attitudes toward film translation, level of knowledge about subtitling, their practical abilities, and suggestions they provide to enhance and improve subtitling courses in their respective universities. The current study findings also suggest no significant differences between participants from the four Saudi universities regarding their knowledge level of subtitling, attitudes toward subtitling importance, the type of problems they face, their opinion on the quality of the three videos, and their suggestions to develop subtitling courses in their universities.

recommendations

This study addressed EFL students' perceptions of subtitling and the problems they faced when submitting their films. Based on our research results, the following recommendations are made:

1. More in-depth research is needed to expand the literature on subtitling to bring forth the challenges subtitling course learners in different settings.
2. Policies should be directed toward establishing standardized translation programs across all universities and translation training centers.
3. Teachers should encourage undergraduate students to watch documentaries and read books on other cultures. Additionally, they should receive training to be aware of the different cultural expressions and strategies used to convey them.
4. Translation methods and techniques should be the primary part of any subtitling training and should be updated with technological advancements.
5. Subtitlers need to become familiar with the content they will be subtitling by watching the films rather than relying solely on transcripts.

limitations

Although this was a unique study in terms of its aims and scope, we hope that future research in this field overcomes certain limitations. The questionnaire used in the study focused solely on the students' perceptions of the seven determinant problems they may face during film subtitling. It should be noted that the research did not address linguistic, cultural, or technical issues in greater detail or provide any specific treatment to students regarding these matters. The limitations of this study should be acknowledged. Also, this research focused solely on subtitling American films from English to Arabic. This was done because American movies are the most popular and viewed by Arab audiences, making them the dominant choice for this study. Future research should consider a broader range of film origins and languages to provide a more comprehensive understanding of the subtitling challenges faced by students.

APPENDIX

The questionnaire

Dear Respondents,

The aim of this questionnaire was to determine Saudi learners' attitudes, perceptions, and preferences regarding subtitling. The questionnaire also attempted to determine the practices and suggestions for better inclusion of subtitling courses in English programs.

You can fill out the questionnaire below only if you meet the following criteria:

1. You are a female who graduated no more than a year recently from a translation program in one of four specific Saudi universities: QU, KSU, EU, or PNU
2. You have ages ranging from 21 to 26 years.
3. You did not fail in any translation course or drop out of any semester during your bachelor's degree.

Your participation is totally voluntary. We assure the confidentiality of the collected demographic information and the anonymity of your identities.

Thank you so much for your participation!

Regards,

The Research Team

Demographics

University-College:

- 1- Qassim University
- 2- King Saud University
- 3- Electronic University
- 4- Princess Nourah University

Knowledge

1. I know what is meant by subtitling
totally agree, agree, don't know, disagree, totally disagree
2. I know the elements of subtitling
totally agree, agree, don't know, disagree, totally disagree
3. I know the programs used in subtitling
totally agree, agree, don't know, disagree, totally disagree
4. I know the differences between translation, subtitling, and localization
totally agree, agree, don't know, disagree, totally disagree

Attitudes

1. I have a positive attitude toward subtitling and its specialized course
totally agree, agree, don't know, disagree, totally disagree
2. Subtitling develops the four language skills (reading, listening, writing, speaking)
totally agree, agree, don't know, disagree, totally disagree
3. Subtitling helps to know its specialized programs
totally agree, agree, don't know, disagree, totally disagree
4. Subtitling helps to expand vocabulary
totally agree, agree, don't know, disagree, totally disagree
5. Subtitling helps to master grammar
totally agree, agree, don't know, disagree, totally disagree
6. Subtitling helps to realize the differences between the two languages (source and target)
totally agree, agree, don't know, disagree, totally disagree
7. Subtitling helps differentiate between language levels (formal, informal)
totally agree, agree, don't know, disagree, totally disagree
8. Subtitling helps to develop the translation skills

- totally agree, agree, don't know, disagree, totally disagree
9. Subtitling helps to develop the skill of translation criticism
totally agree, agree, don't know, disagree, totally disagree
 10. Subtitling enhances the understanding of the notion of audience identification
totally agree, agree, don't know, disagree, totally disagree
 11. Subtitling helps to motivate individuals to learn the language
totally agree, agree, don't know, disagree, totally disagree
 12. Subtitling provides initial training for the workplace
totally agree, agree, don't know, disagree, totally disagree
 13. Subtitling enhances cultural awareness
totally agree, agree, don't know, disagree, totally disagree
 14. Subtitling helps to raise the subtitler's confidence in their mother tongue
totally agree, agree, don't know, disagree, totally disagree
 15. Subtitling helps to raise the subtitler's confidence in their second language
totally agree, agree, don't know, disagree, totally disagree

Problems

Subtitling problems

1. Choosing the right material
totally agree, agree, don't know, disagree, totally disagree
2. Knowledge of suitable programs
totally agree, agree, don't know, disagree, totally disagree
3. The difficulty of using subtitling programs
totally agree, agree, don't know, disagree, totally disagree
4. Cultural differences between the two languages
totally agree, agree, don't know, disagree, totally disagree
5. The difference in language levels between the two languages
totally agree, agree, don't know, disagree, totally disagree
6. It consumes a lot of time
to totally agree, agree, don't know, disagree, totally disagree
7. It consumes a lot of effort
to totally agree, agree, don't know, disagree, totally disagree

Practice

- 1 - Watch the video, rate its translation, and write your feedback

<https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=343aJkJSUy0>

- 1 - rate the translation

Excellent- Very good- Good- Fair- Poor

2. Your feedback:

- 2 - Watch the video, rate its translation, and write your feedback

<https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=wkSDM9Uxgq8>

- 1 - rate the translation

Excellent- Very good- Good- Fair- Poor

2. Your feedback:

- 3 - Watch the video, rate its translation, and write your feedback

https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=PaN_5Vz7kXA

- 2 - rate the translation

Excellent- Very good- Good- Fair- Poor

2. Your feedback:

Suggestions

The following suggestions will help in the development of subtitling courses in universities:

1. Adding independent subtitling courses at more than one level in Bachelor's programs at Saudi universities
totally agree, agree, don't know, disagree, totally disagree
2. Appointing a specialized supervisor in subtitling theater and has experience in it to supervise students' work and direct it in the best possible way
totally agree, agree, don't know, disagree, totally disagree
3. Holding training and practical courses for students on subtitling
totally agree, agree, don't know, disagree, totally disagree
4. Holding live meetings with subtitling pioneers in the Kingdom of Saudi Arabia and the Arab world.
totally agree, agree, don't know, disagree, totally disagree.
5. Organizing competitions by the Literature, Publishing, and Translation Commission for subtitling and placing awards for it
totally agree, agree, don't know, disagree, totally disagree

Is there anything you would like to add?

ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

This study was funded by the Literature, Publishing, and Translation Commission, Ministry of Culture, Kingdom of Saudi Arabia, under [54/2022], as part of the Arabic Observatory of Translation.

REFERENCES

- [1] Abdelaal, N. M. (2019). Subtitling of culture-bound terms: Strategies and quality assessment. *Heliyon*, 5(4), e01411. doi:10.1016/j.heliyon.2019.e01411
- [2] Al-Dabbagh, U. K. (2017). Teaching subtitling at Jordanian universities: An untapped territory. *Journal of Language Teaching and Research*, 8(1), 44–52. doi:10.17507/jltr.0801.06
- [3] Al-Ghurbani, A. M., Jazim, F., Abdulrab, M., Al-Mamary, Y. H. S., & Khan, I. (2022). The impact of internal factors on the use of technology in higher education in Saudi Arabia during the COVID-19 pandemic. *Human Systems Management*, 41(2), 283–302.
- [4] Al-Jarf, R. (2021). Feasibility of digital multimedia language labs for interpreting instruction as perceived by interpreting instructors in Saudi Arabia. *International Journal of Linguistics, Literature and Translation, IJLLT*, 4(4), 70–79.
- [5] Alfaify, A., & Pinto, S. R. (2022). Cultural references in films: An audience reception study of subtitling into Arabic. *The Translator*, 28(1), 112–131. https://doi.org/10.1080/13556509.2021.1898714
- [6] Alotaibi, H., & Salamah, D. (2023). The impact of translation apps on translation students' performance. *Education and Information Technologies*, 28(8), 10709–10729. https://doi.org/10.1007/s10639-023-11578-y
- [7] Ayoub, Y. (1994). *Some linguistic and cultural problems in translating idiomatic expressions from Arabic into English and vice versa*. (Unpublished master's thesis). Yarmouk University: Irbid, Jordan.
- [8] Barrera-Rioja, N. (2023). The rendering of foul language in Spanish-English subtitling: A case study of El Vecino. *Íkala, Revista de Lenguaje y Cultura*, 28(2), 1–20. https://doi.org/10.17533/udea.ikala.v28n2a10
- [9] Bartrina, F. (2009). Teaching subtitling in a virtual environment. In *Audiovisual translation*. Springer.
- [10] Boden, M. A. (1994). *Dimensions of creativity*. Cambridge, MA: MIT Press.
- [11] Bruner, J. S. (1962). The conditions of creativity. In H. E. Gruber, G. Terrell, & M. Wertheimer (Eds.), *Contemporary approaches to creative thinking* (pp. 1–30). New York, NY: Atherton.
- [12] Cintas, J. D., & Diaz, J. (2001). *Teaching subtitling: Challenges and perspectives*. St. Jerome Publishing.
- [13] Creswell, J. W., & Creswell, J. D. (2017). *Research design: Qualitative, quantitative, and mixed methods approaches*. Sage publications.
- [14] Dayan, L. (2014). On the classification of subtitling. *Journal of Language Teaching and Research*, 5(5), 1103–1109. https://doi.org/10.4304/jltr.5.5.1103-1109
- [15] Díaz Cintas, J., & Remael, A. (2007). *Audiovisual translation: Subtitling*. St. Jerome Publishing.
- [16] Díaz Cintas, J., & Remael, A. (2020). *Subtitling: Concepts and Practices* (1st ed.). Routledge. https://doi.org/10.4324/9781315674278
- [17] Feldt, L. S. (1980). A test of the hypothesis that Cronbach's alpha reliability coefficient is the same for two tests administered to the same sample. *Psychometrika*, 45, 99–105.
- [18] Foerster, A. (2010). Towards a creative approach in subtitling: A case study. In J. Díaz Cintas, A., Matamala, & J. Neves (Eds.), *New insights into audio-visual translation and media accessibility: Media for all 2* (pp. 81–98). Amsterdam: Rodopi.
- [19] Gambier, Y. (1993). Audiovisual communication: Typological detour. In C. Dollerup & A. Lindegaard (Eds.), *Teaching translation and interpreting* (pp. 171–179). John Benjamins.
- [20] Ghazala, H. (1995). *Translation as problems and solutions*. Dar El-Ilm Lilmalayin.
- [21] Ghazala, H. (2002a). Cross-cultural link in translation (English- Arabic). *International Journal of Translation*, 14(1), 138–162.
- [22] Gottlieb, H. (2004). Language-political implications of subtitling. *Benjamins Translation Library*, 56, 83–100.

- [23] Kendenan, E. S. (2019). A Study of Students' Subtitling Project on "Ambilkan Bulan" Movie. *Langkawi: Journal of The Association for Arabic and English*, 5(1), 26-44.
- [24] Liu, D. (2014). On the classification of subtitling. *Journal of Language Teaching and Research*, 5(5), 1103–1109. doi:10.4304/jltr.5.5.1103-1109
- [25] Matkivska, N. (2014). Audiovisual translation: Conception, types, characters' speech and translation strategies applied. *Studies about Languages*, 25, 38-44. <http://dx.doi.org/10.5755/j01.sal.0.25.8516>
- [26] McKenzie, R. (2018). Subtitling in the classroom: Il secondo tragico Fantozzi. *Neke The New Zealand Journal of Translation Studies*, 1(1), 1–16. <https://doi.org/10.26686/neke.v1i1.5160>
- [27] Newmark, P. (1988). *A textbook of translation*. London: Longman.
- [28] O'Connell, E. (2008). The Kings' Irish: Dialogue, Dialect and Subtitles in Kings (2007). *Estudios Irlandeses-Journal of Irish Studies*, (3), 226-229.
- [29] Parsons, V. L. (2017). *Stratified sampling*. Wiley StatsRef: Statistics Reference Online, 1–11. <https://doi.org/10.1002/9781118445112.stat05999.pub2>
- [30] Rundt, C. (2008). The subtitle project: A vocational education initiative. *The Interpreter and Translator Trainer*, 2(1), 93–114. doi:10.1080/1750399x.2008.10798768
- [31] Shunnaq, A. (1993). Lexical Incongruence in Arabic –English Translation Due to Emotiveness in Arabic. *Turjuman*, 2(2), 37-63.
- [32] Shuttleworth, M., & Cowie, M. (1997). *Dictionary of translation studies*. Manchester: St. Jerome Publishing.
- [33] Talaván, N., & Rodríguez-Arancón, P. (2014). The use of reverse subtitling as an online collaborative language learning tool. *The Interpreter and Translator Trainer*, 8(1), 84-101. <https://doi.org/10.1080/1750399X.2014.908559>

Talal Musaed Alghizzi is an associate professor of applied linguistics at Imam Mohammad Ibn Saud Islamic University (IMSIU), Saudi Arabia. He completed his PhD at the University College Cork, Republic of Ireland. He has published in WoS- and Scopus-indexed journals.

Anwar Salah Alharbi is an English-Arabic translator and researcher. She has obtained her BA in English Language and Translation from Qassim University and has completed her MA in Specialized Translation at Princess Nourah bint Abdulrahman University. Currently, she works as a translator at the Saudi Heritage Preservation Society. Her research interests focus on translation and interpretation pedagogy, localization, translation technologies, EFL students' perceptions, subtitling, and corpus linguistics.

Tariq Elyas is a full-tenured professor of Applied Linguistics at King Abdulaziz University, KAU (Saudi Arabia). He holds an MA in English Literature (USA) and a PhD in Applied Linguistics (Australia), an LLM in International Law and Human Rights (UK), and a Post-Doctorate in Applied Linguistics from Newcastle University via the British Commonwealth Council (UK). Prof. Elyas's areas of interest include global English, teacher identity, policy reform, the media, and female studies in the Middle East. His research papers have appeared in top-tier research journals, such as the British Journal of Middle Eastern Studies, Digest of Middle East Studies, Contemporary Review of the Middle East, Journal of Arab and Muslim Media Research, Semiotica, International Journal for Semiotics of Law, World Englishes, Asian Englishes, Journal of Psycholinguistic Research, Journal of Neurolinguistics, Cambridge Journal of Education, and ELT Journal. Prof. Elyas has been awarded the Bunday Prize for English Verse (Australia), Travel Writing Fellowship (USA), Cambridge Gulf Research Award (UK), Year-Emerald Publisher (UK), Chevening Fellowship (UK), EU-GCC Relations Project Award (Belgium), Post-doctoral Summer Research (PDSR) Program-British Council Award (UK), and Best Supervisor Award in the Humanities & Social Sciences Track-KAU in 2018 and 2020 (Saudi Arabia). Prof. Elyas has been the top-cited researcher in Saudi Arabia in the fields of Applied Linguistics and Education since 2014.

Politeness Strategies in Arabic-Scripted Friday *Khutbah* (“Sermons”)

Fathi Migdadi

Jordan University of Science and Technology, Irbid, Jordan

Kawakib Al-Momani

Jordan University of Science and Technology, Irbid, Jordan

Ibrahim Hammouri

Jordan University of Science and Technology, Irbid, Jordan

Abstract—This study examines politeness strategies employed by Muslim preachers in Arabic-scripted Friday *Khutbah* “sermons”, especially those available on the Internet. The data consist of four sermons delivered by renowned Saudi preachers in Mecca’s Haram, Muslims’ holiest mosque, and published on verified sites on the web. Findings reveal that the preachers have employed twelve distinct politeness strategies, based on Brown and Levinson’s (1987) four major types of politeness: positive face, negative face, off-record, and bald-on record. Positive politeness was found to be the most predominant. This suggests that the preachers tend to promote collective identity and mutual respect, in line with the principle of acceptance inherent in positive politeness. In addition, negative politeness, which emphasizes the listener’s autonomy, ranked second in frequency, consistent with the cultural norms, communicative intentions, and socio-religious sensitivities prevalent in Muslim communities. Through examining these sermons, this study contributes to broader research in politeness in religious discourse, providing data for comparison with earlier studies.

Index Terms—sermon, preacher, politeness, positive face, negative face

I. INTRODUCTION

Politeness is an essential component of verbal and nonverbal interactions where speakers take into account the feelings and appropriate behavior of others (Lakoff, 1973; Leech, 1983; Wolfson, 1983; Brown & Levinson, 1987; House & Kádár, 2021; Zakaria et al., 2022). In the domain of language and communication, politeness is essential for building, maintaining, and fostering relationships because it allows people to show each other humility, respect, and reverence (Brown & Levinson, 1987; Leech, 1983; Sifianou, 2019). Its significance has motivated numerous inquiries and investigations within politeness theories such as Leech’s (1983) politeness maxims theory and Brown and Levinson’s (1987) politeness model. Many researchers (e.g., Terkourafi, 2008; Wolfson, 1983; Holmes, 1995; Migdadi et al., 2012; Junaidi, 2018) have investigated how people’s speech conforms to social norms and expectations and demonstrates regard, decency, and respect. They also investigated if politeness is likely to promote peaceful and productive relationships, resolve disputes, and exhibit consideration for others’ feelings.

In Arabic, many studies (e.g., Atawneh, 1991; Al-Khatib, 2001; Migdadi, 2003; Migdadi, 2021) have investigated politeness phenomena in different genres and contexts within Arab-Islamic cultures. Contrary to other areas of sociolinguistic research, religious discourse has received little attention, despite the role this kind of discourse plays in social interaction and its influence on the thinking and actions of the hearers, particularly in Muslim societies. For example, in Islamic culture, the Friday *Khutbah* ‘sermon’ is noteworthy, and the way in which preachers address their audience can impact the effectiveness of the message. This study examines politeness strategies employed in Friday *Khutbah* in Arabic, drawing on Brown and Levinson’s (1987) politeness theory. The study specifically attempts to answer the following questions:

- 1- What are the politeness strategies used in Friday *Khutbah* ‘sermons’?
- 2- What are the frequencies and percentages of these strategies?
- 3- To what extent are the results of the study significant to research on politeness in religious discourse?

This study holds significance for two major reasons. First, it aims to enhance a better understanding of politeness theory in religious discourse by developing an analytical framework of politeness strategies in scripted Friday *Khutbah* ‘sermons’ in Arabic. In addition, it provides data for comparison with earlier studies (e.g., Al-Khatib, 2012; Fayad, 2014; Al-Momani et al., 2018; Kareem, 2019) of politeness in Islamic discourse.

The Friday *khutbah* is translated into English as ‘sermon/s’, referring to a preaching that precedes the Friday Zuhr (i.e., noon) prayer (Mahmoud & Kasim, 2019). The content of the sermon can vary, with many focusing on the nourishment of the soul and the believers’ dependence on Allah. The Friday sermon is delivered as two smaller sermons with an *istiğfār* (i.e., seeking forgiveness from Allah) gap in between (Saddhono et al., 2016). It is often delivered by an

eloquent preacher who attempts to affect the congregation's thinking and behavior on different religious issues (Robinson, 1980; Mahmoud & Kasim, 2019).

The Friday sermon has a major impact on the congregation by offering spiritual advice, addressing social issues, and fostering community cohesion. According to Ali and Khan (2017), it is a key method for spreading Islamic knowledge and fostering and reinforcing Muslims' faith. As argued by Madanat (2016), the Islamic Friday sermon is important in raising awareness of social issues, stimulating benevolence, and promoting social reform. Kamali (2008) points out that the Friday sermon fosters inter-group concord and strengthens the bonds of brotherhood among the members of the Muslim community.

II. LITERATURE REVIEW

Many scholars have examined politeness in different contexts, using various methodologies. Their interest in politeness derives from its essential role in interpersonal interactions. As a result, they have studied various aspects of politeness, developing models and hypotheses to understand it.

Lakoff (1973) and Leech (1983) were pioneers in studying politeness and its role in interpersonal communication. Lakoff's theory emphasizes reducing conflict through clarity and politeness, while Leech introduced a model grounded on Grice's cooperative principle and conversational maxims. Leech's politeness principle encompasses maxims like tact, approbation, generosity, sympathy, modesty, and agreement. Violating these maxims can result in being labeled as an "invader" and displaying a lack of cooperation in conversation (Al-Momani et al., 2018).

However, despite criticism, Brown and Levinson's (1987) politeness theory, based on Goffman's (1967) notion of face, is the preferred theoretical framework for the present study. In this model, the term 'face' refers to an individual's self-image, influenced by expressions like 'losing face' and 'saving face'. It encompasses positive and negative aspects, influencing social interactions (Brown & Levinson, 1987). Face can be lost, preserved, or enhanced in conversation, but it remains susceptible to face-threatening acts (FTAs). Brown and Levinson (1987) categorized FTAs into four types: threats to the audience's negative face, threats to the audience's positive face, threats to the speaker's positive face, and threats to the speaker's negative face.

Brown and Levinson (1987) introduced four linguistic politeness strategies to minimize FTAs in interpersonal interactions: bald on record, positive politeness, negative politeness, and off-record – indirect strategy, each focusing on on-record communication (p. 101). Brown and Levinson (1987) suggest that when interlocutors anticipate performing an FTA, they can use either an off-record strategy or an on-record strategy (p. 69). They argue that when face is at risk, speakers use four types of politeness strategies to reduce the potential for face loss. These strategies will be further examined in the following section.

1. Bald-on record Strategies

Bald-on-record strategies convey the speaker's needs directly without minimizing face threat, frequently using imperatives. They are used in situations when the conversation participants are familiar and face threat is minimal, like "come in".

2. Positive Politeness Strategies

Positive politeness strategies maintain positive face by addressing the hearer's desires and sense of inclusion, employing informal or formal language, and avoiding disagreement. These strategies include noticing listeners, exaggerating tone, fostering engagement, using in-group identity markers, seeking agreement, and providing justifications.

3. Negative Politeness Strategies

Negative politeness strategies aim to respect autonomy, recognize authority, and avoid imposition, acknowledging others' power and debt. Their usage is influenced by the degree of social distance between individuals (Wolfson, 1988). Brown and Levinson (1987) identified ten negative politeness strategies: being indirect, using questions and hedges, being pessimistic, minimizing imposition, giving deference, apologizing, impersonalizing, generalizing expression, nominalizing, and incurring the hearer.

4. Off-Record Politeness Strategies:

These are indirect strategies which use irony, tautology, understatement, rhetorical questions, and subtle hints to address sensitive topics without directly confronting them. They allow for various interpretations and effective responses during conversations.

Numerous studies have explored politeness through the perspectives of Leech (1983) and Brown and Levinson (1987), predominantly focusing on conversational exchanges and occasionally extending to written texts (e.g., Matsumoto, 1989; Fraser, 1990; Watts et al., 1992; Nwoye, 1992; Elarbi, 1997; Pan, 2000; Al-Khatib, 2001; Watts, 2003; Held, 2005; Yuen, 2009; Migdadi et al., 2010; Al-Momani et al., 2018; Jewad, 2022). In religious discourse, politeness research has often focused on written texts and spoken language in both Christianity and Islam. In Christian discourse, Klein (1993) discussed how politeness operated as a political idiom in early modern Britain, particularly in the writings of Whig writers such as Joseph Addison and Richard Steele. Hostetler (2012) employed linguistic theories of politeness to analyze the discourse features of the Early Middle English *Ancrene Wisse*, emphasizing how politeness strategies entwine with the genre's regulatory requirements to form a complex discourse field. Ushie et al. (2014) discussed how name-calling and vulgarity in online discourse can threaten religious peace and harmony among

Christians in Nigeria, emphasizing the importance of maintaining civility in public discourse. Al-Ameedi and Abood (2021) investigated mitigation in biblical verses and prophetic traditions from a pragmatic perspective, exploring how speakers convey and listeners understand this phenomenon.

In Islamic discourse, Al-Khatib (2012) applied Leech's (1983) and Brown and Levinson's (1987) theories to various verses in the Qur'an. He identified many politeness strategies pertaining to Brown and Levinson's (1987) four types of politeness - bald-on-record, positive politeness, negative politeness, and off-record politeness. Murni et al. (2013) investigated the use of linguistic politeness strategies in emails discussing Islam among members of the Indonesian Muslim Society in America. Their findings reveal that the sample uses politeness strategies such as acknowledging weaknesses, asking questions, and referring to religious texts. Their study emphasizes that linguistic politeness is consistent with the Islamic principles of telling the truth and showing patience in communication. Al-Fayyad (2014) examined politeness in Prophet Mohammad's Hadith (i.e., traditions), noting the dominance of bald-on-record strategies in this type of discourse. Another investigation of politeness in the Qur'an by Al-Momani et al. (2018) depicted women respectfully in all areas, with off-record and positive and negative politeness methods prevailing in conversations related to women.

In the context of Islamic sermons, Kareem (2019) explored politeness in Friday sermons in English and Yorùbá, emphasizing the importance of strategic politeness to prevent hurting the congregation's feelings. Using a modified version of Brown and Levinson's (1987) politeness model, the study illustrated different politeness strategies used by preachers during their speeches, with sermons delivered in Yorùbá revealing evidence of cultural impacts. In their study of politeness in the Prophets' Qur'anic prayers, Arifianto et al. (2023) revealed that the Prophets employed the tact and acceptance maxims and 'on-record' and 'off-record' strategies. The study also identified language devices which conveyed respect and humility before God.

In the literature reviewed, it is emphasized how important politeness is in religious discourse across a range of cultural and linguistic contexts. This relevance of politeness emphasizes its essential role in enhancing interpersonal relationships within communities, establishing concord, and conveying religious messages. Despite these realizations, the politeness interactions in Islamic sermons have not been thoroughly investigated in research. By examining the frequency and types of politeness strategies employed in Arabic-scripted Friday sermons, this study attempts to address this gap, guided by Brown and Levinson's (1987) politeness theory.

III. METHODOLOGY

This section is divided into two parts. The first part describes the data collection procedures. The second part presents the study's coding scheme and data analysis procedures, illustrated with a sample from the data.

A. Data Collection

The data for this study consist of four online¹ Arabic-scripted Friday sermons delivered by renowned Saudi preachers. These sermons were delivered between the years 2006 and 2012 at Mecca's Haram, the holiest Muslim mosque. The sermons were selected based on the variety of topics used, including "good manners", "self-accountability", "contemplate the examples in the Holy Qur'an", and "if we only had obeyed Him (God)". The sermons are notably varied in length, with the longest including 4268 words and the shortest 1777 words, totaling 11510 words. Although the sermons were not based on the presence of polite language, each was found to contain different types of politeness strategies. A summary of the details of the studied sermons is provided in Table 1, below:

TABLE 1
SUMMARY OF THE FRIDAY SERMONS DELIVERED AT MECCA'S HARAM

Topic	Preacher's name	Number of words	Date of delivery
Good manners	Al-Sudays	4268	2011, updated 27 August 2021
Self-accountability	Al-Sheikh	3162	December 17, 2010
Contemplate the examples in the Holy Qur'an	Al-Shuraym	2303	September 26, 2012
If we had obeyed Him (God)	Al-Muslih	1777	February 25, 2006

B. Data Analysis

Effective data analysis depends on a thorough understanding of the material under scrutiny (Taylor-Powell, 2003). Thus, using the socio-pragmatic approach, the data were analyzed qualitatively by examining politeness strategies

¹ The websites for the data are as follows:

Al-Sudais (2011). Good Manners.

<http://audio.islamweb.net/audio/index.php?page=FullContent&audioid=28213&full=1>

Al Asheikh (2013). Handicapped Rights in Islam

<http://www.alathary.net/vb2/showthread.php?15644->

Al-Shraraym: tadabur al-mthāl fil-qurān al-kareem

<https://www.alukah.net/sharia/0/62780/%D8%AE%D8%B7%D8%A8%D8%A9->

Al-Mosleh (2015). Oh, We Wish We Had Obeyed him.

<http://www.almosleh.com/ar/index-ar-show-20092.html>

within their social, cultural, and religious contexts. The analysis also considered both stated and unstated meanings, accommodating the typical interpretations of what the preachers conveyed. The data were coded based on previous research on politeness strategies, specifically Brown and Levinson's (1987) model, which is discussed in section II. Additionally, politeness taxonomies from studies including Al-Khatib (2012), Kareem (2019), Jewad (2022), and Arifianto et al. (2023) were utilized in some cases. However, our naming protocol occasionally differed from the models used in these studies. Following the analysis of the politeness strategies, we implemented steps to ensure the reliability of our classification system. We conducted a second classification two weeks later using different Excel sheets. Subsequently, we assessed the agreement between the earlier and the latter classification using Holsti's (1969) coefficient of reliability. This analysis showed a substantial similarity, with an experimental value of 0.87, which signifies remarkable consistency in the coding outcomes across both categorizations. Table 2 below exhibits twelve politeness strategies identified in the data, with each defined and exemplified.

TABLE 2
POLITENESS STRATEGIES IN FRIDAY SERMONS IN ARABIC WITH DEFINITIONS AND EXAMPLES

Strategy	Definition	Example
Attend to congregation's needs	Communicating that the congregation's wants and desires are similar to the preacher's	<i>as'alu llaha lakum āl-'afiya wa al-tawfiq</i> "I ask that God grant you well-being and success"
Being conventionally indirect	Using expressions with non-literal contextual meanings	<i>fīhi tustabāhu ad-dimā'u</i> "Through it blood is shed."
Using in-group markers	Using address forms such as brothers, sisters, etc.	<i>habībī</i> , in kunta fī ni'ma "Dear one, if you are in a blessing state"
Using inclusive language	Engaging both the preacher and the congregation in shared activities, encouraging unity	<i>hādā mā narāhu wa nasma'uhu</i> "This is what we see and hear."
Minimizing the imposition	Lessening the severity of a statement through depersonalizing and presenting the message indirectly	<i>wa yu'adi 'ila 'ihlāki al-ḥarthi wa an-nasli</i> . "And it leads to the destruction of crops and lineage"
Reasoning	Providing or eliciting logical explanations, actions, and demonstrating respect for the congregants' autonomy	<i>lā urīdu an uṭīl 'alaykum fa-naḥnu fī al-'īd</i> . "I don't want to take up too much of your time, for we are in the midst of the Eid celebration."
Metaphorical urgency for emphasis.	Utilizing figurative and imperative language to create urgency	<i>unzur ilā mimman hum dūnaka fī al-siḥḥah</i> "Look at those who are less fortunate than you in health."
Using rhetorical questions	Posing questions to subtly convey information or opinions	<i>'alaysa lana an la nastafīda min al-ahdāth al-tārikhiyya</i> "Shouldn't we benefit from historical events?"
Over-generalization	Addressing congregants with general statements, allowing them to discern applicability	<i>mā daxalū baladan, illā afsadūhā</i> . "They did not enter a country without corrupting it."
Showing sympathy	Using indirect expression of concern or understanding for the congregation's situation	<i>innā min a'zami ṣuwaril ixtilālil fikri wal anḥirāfi al-'aqadiyyi</i> . "Indeed, one of the greatest forms of intellectual disorder")
Apologizing	Using certain expressions to soften the impact of offending someone's autonomy	<i>a'atathiru ilaykum iḏa kunt qad ?aTalt 9alaykum 'amal</i> . "I apologize to you if I have prolonged my sermon.")
Doing FTA for the congregants	Fulfilling the congregation's needs by directly requesting things or offering advice that is consistent with their interests	<i>uqadimu lakum al-nasiha bian takūnū sādiqin</i> "I advise you to be truthful."

Moreover, the data were analyzed quantitatively by tallying the utterances pertaining to each politeness strategy and calculating their respective percentages. In case an utterance included multiple strategies, that was duly noted, thus counting these strategies separately. This coding approach differed from some earlier studies, such as Kareem (2019), which considered such strategies as complex, comprising two or more strategies simultaneously.

IV. RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

Using the data collected for this study, the three research questions are answered in this section. We first provide the results of the study using both quantitative and qualitative methods. This is followed by a discussion of the results in light of Brown and Levinson's (1987) politeness theory and Arab-Islamic cultural norms.

A. Results

As shown in Table 3 below, there is a clear ranking of the identified politeness strategies, based on their frequencies in the data. The most prevalent strategy is attending to the hearer's needs, accounting for 16.2% of all the politeness acts. This finding does not only suggest a substantial emphasis on the concerns and needs of the congregants, but it also implies a great tendency towards establishing connection, empathy and solidarity within the preaching environment. Being conventionally indirect is the second most occurring strategy, representing 14.05% of the total politeness acts. As this strategy employs expressions whose contextual meanings differ from their literal interpretations, it is likely to promote subtle communication while maintaining social harmony.

Using in-group-markers is in third place in terms of frequency, comprising 12.4% of all instances of politeness. By employing inclusive language such as "brothers," "sisters," or other identifiers, this technique aims to promote a sense of belonging and unity among the congregation. Using inclusive language is in the fourth position, including 11.9% of

the total politeness acts. It promotes harmony and collective participation in rituals and shared experiences, which fosters the bond between the preacher and the congregation. After these strategies, we observe a gradual decrease in frequency among the remaining tactics, such as reasoning (8.1%), metaphorical urgency for emphasis (7.02%), using rhetorical questions (5.9%), overgeneralisation (5.4%), showing sympathy (4.32%), apologizing (3.32%), and doing the FTA for the congregation (2.16%). Overall, this distribution highlights the variety of politeness strategies employed in Arabic Friday sermons, with some strategies being more common than others.

TABLE 3
FREQUENCIES AND PERCENTAGES OF POLITENESS STRATEGIES IN FRIDAY SERMONS

Politeness Strategy	Politeness Type	Frequency	Percentage (%)
Attend to congregation's needs	Positive Politeness	30	16.2%
Being conventionally indirect	Negative Politeness	26	14.05%
Using in-group markers	Positive Politeness	23	12.4%
Using inclusive language	Positive Politeness	22	11.9%
Minimizing the imposition	Negative Politeness	17	9.2%
Reasoning	Positive Politeness	15	8.1
Metaphorical urgency for emphasis	Bald-on record	13	7.02
Using rhetorical questions	Off-record	11	5.9
Over-generalization	Off-record	10	5.4
Showing sympathy	Positive Politeness	8	4.32
Apologizing	Negative Politeness	6	3.32
Doing FTA for the congregation	Bald-on record	4	2.16
Total		185	100

To gain a deeper understanding of the identified politeness strategies, it is essential to categorize them according to Brown and Levinson's (1987) framework: positive politeness, negative politeness, off-record politeness, and on-record politeness, as shown in Table 3 above. Positive politeness strategies include attending to the congregation's needs, using in-group markers, using inclusive language, reasoning, and showing sympathy. The calculated frequency for positive politeness strategies is 54.57%. Negative politeness, which includes being conventionally indirect, minimizing imposition, and apologizing, has a usage rate of 24.92%. Off-record politeness comprises the strategies of using rhetorical questions and over-generalization, with a calculated percentage of 11.3%. Finally, on-record politeness, which involves metaphorical urgency for emphasis and performing the FTA for the congregation, accounts for 9.18% of the data. Table 4 below provides a summary of the frequencies of these four main types of politeness, illustrating their hierarchical occurrence. Positive politeness is shown to be the most frequent, accounting for 54.57%, followed by negative politeness at 24.92%, off-record politeness at 11.3%, and on-record politeness at 9.18%.

TABLE 4
FREQUENCIES AND PERCENTAGES OF POLITENESS TYPES IN ARABIC FRIDAY SERMONS

Politeness Type	Frequency	Percentage (%)
Positive Politeness	98	54.57
Negative Politeness	49	24.92
Off-record Politeness	21	11.3
On-record Politeness	17	9.18
Total	180	100

B. Discussion

In this section, the study's findings are discussed in relation to Brown and Levinson's (1987) four major categories of politeness. Due to space limitations, the discussion focuses on the politeness strategies that are identified to be most frequent or distinctive within a particular category of politeness.

(a). Positive Politeness

As explained above, positive politeness accounts for the highest percentage of politeness acts, at a usage rate of 54.57%. This predominance is consistent with the situational contexts of the sermons regarding their place of delivery and their potential recipients. Specifically, as the Friday sermons were delivered in Mecca's Haram, the holiest Muslims' mosque, they were addressed to a diverse group of people from various backgrounds, ages, and levels of religious knowledge. Therefore, the predominance of positive politeness is helpful in addressing this diversity by developing an inclusive message that considers varied viewpoints and emotions. It also assists in spanning differences and ensuring that the sermon aligns with a broad audience (Holmes, 1995).

In addition, this predominance of positive politeness is in agreement with findings from studies on politeness in the Qur'an by Al-Khatib (2012), Arifianto et al. (2023), and Kareem (2019) on Islamic sermons in English and Yorubá. Consequently, religious discourse frequently emphasizes the requirements of the recipient's positive face. This reflects a prevalent tendency toward fostering goodwill and rapport with the audience, emphasizing mutual appreciation and camaraderie within the context of the message conveyed.

The role of positive politeness strategies in fostering a sense of community and solidarity among interactants (Brown & Levinson, 1987) is evident in this study through the preachers' frequent attempts (16.2 %) to attend to the congregation's needs and desires, as shown in Table 3 above. Since sincere Muslims usually seek God's approval, when the preachers attempt to guide them on how to attain this goal, it is perceived as an effort to address their concerns and desires. An example of the preachers attending to the needs of the congregation is provided in Extract 1 below:

Extract 1

Eman hāfaẓa 'alā hāḍihi al-ṣalawāti kānat lahu nūran wa burhānan wa najātan yawma alqiyāmati. wa lihāḍā lā budda

lanā an nuqadima al-ṣalāta 'alā bāqi al-ṣū'ūn al-dunyawīyati al-zā'ilati li nanāl riḍā Allāh yawma liqā'ih. (AlSheikh: Self accountability)

"Whoever preserves these prayers will have for him light, evidence, and salvation on the Day of Resurrection. Thus, it is necessary for us to prioritize prayer over the fleeting worldly affairs to attain the satisfaction of Allah on the Day of Resurrection"

In this extract, the preacher emphasizes the importance of preserving prayers by highlighting the benefits that individuals will receive on the Day of Judgement: light, evidence, and salvation. By doing this, the speaker shows that he is conscious of the audience's spiritual wants and concerns, which are critical to their interests and needs as sincere believers looking for God's favor. In addition, the speaker urges giving prayer precedence over material affairs to obtain the grace of Allah. This advice addresses the audience's desire for spiritual satisfaction and guidance, which is consistent with their interests in achieving closeness to God and receiving His approval. In general, the speaker attends to the hearers' wants and perspectives, which "may operate as an expression of good intentions, indicating that the speaker assumes that speaker and the hearer share common ground" (Brown & Levinson, 1987, p. 124).

In addition, when the preachers employ positive politeness, the congregants often feel valued and accepted. This encourages engagement and receptivity to the messages being delivered. Specifically, the use of inclusive language and in-group markers and expressions of solidarity can make the sermon more influential and meaningful to the listeners (Holmes, 1995). In so doing, the preachers implicitly claim common ground with the congregation by using address forms such as brothers, sisters, Allah worshipers, and Islamic nation. As stated by Brown and Levinson (1987), "the use of in-group codes— language, dialect, jargon, and local terminology assumes that hearer understands and shares the associations of the codes" (p. 124). An example of this approach is provided in Extract 2 below:

Extract 2

"yā ixwat al-islām, linata'amal fī wāqi' akhlāqinā wa sulūkinā ma' anfusinā wahlīnāwawlādīnā wa usarinā wa ixwāninā al-muslimīn." (Al-Sudays: Good manners)

"O brothers of Islam, let us contemplate the reality of our ethics and behavior with ourselves, our families, our children, our households, and our fellow Muslim"

In this extract, the preacher addresses the audience by using the term "O brothers of Islam", invoking a sense of shared identity and belonging within the Islamic community. This in-group identity marker fosters a sense of unity, solidarity, and mutual understanding among the listeners. Furthermore, by addressing the audience as "brothers of Islam," the speaker establishes a sense of camaraderie and closeness, which emphasizes the shared connection and mutual values that unite members of the Muslim community. This enhances a positive social atmosphere and reinforces positive relationships within the group.

Moreover, as shown in Table 3 above, the preachers have frequently (8.1%) utilized the strategy of reasoning to engage the congregation in the action and reduce the risk of encroaching upon their positive self-image by providing explanations for their desires. The frequent use of this strategy reflects the diverse nature of the congregation receiving the sermon. By involving the congregation in their practical reasoning process and assuming reciprocity, the preachers aim to persuade them to recognize the validity of their FTAs, or at least hope to do so (Brown & Levinson, 1987, p. 128). The use of reasoning to address the congregants' positive face needs is illustrated in Extract 3 below:

Extract 3

murū awlādakum biṣ-ṣalāti iḍā balaḡa al-i'bn sinna sab' sinīn, wa balaḡat al-bint sab' sinīn, fa-l lāh sā'ilikum yawm

al-qiyāmah hal amartuhu biṣ-ṣalāti. (Al-Sheikh: Self-accountability)

"Instruct your children to pray when they reach the age of seven, for Allah will question you on the Day of Resurrection: Did you command them to pray?"

In this example, the preacher uses the belief in accountability before Allah on the Day of Resurrection as a reason to motivate parents to instruct their children to pray. By framing the instruction within this religious context, the speaker provides a reason for why it is important to teach children to pray at a young age. This reason appeals to the parents'

sense of duty, responsibility, and religious devotion. By highlighting the potential consequences of not fulfilling this duty—being questioned by Allah—the speaker employs a persuasive strategy that encourages compliance. It acknowledges the autonomy of the parents while also appealing to their values and beliefs, thus enhancing the likelihood of them taking action.

(b). *Negative Politeness*

The preachers have also frequently addressed the congregants' negative face needs, with a notable percentage (24.92%), just slightly lower than that of positive politeness. According to Brown and Levinson (1978), negative politeness is "specific and targeted; it aims to reduce the specific imposition caused by the Face Threatening Act (FTA)" (p. 129). Thus, negative politeness strategies emphasize respect for the listener's autonomy and aim to minimize imposition (Brown & Levinson, 1987). This tendency for respecting the addressees' autonomy was also found prevalent in Al-Khatib's (2012) and Arifianto et al.'s (2023) investigations into politeness in the Qur'an, indicating that indirectness is a major characteristic of Islamic discourse.

The frequent use of negative politeness in the data also aligns well with the cultural norms, communicative intentions and religious sensitivities in Muslim communities. For example, in many Arabic-speaking communities, hierarchical social systems and a high reverence for authority are prevalent. This regard and reverence to the audience is maintained by the preachers' frequent usage of negative politeness techniques, including being conventionally indirect and minimizing imposition, accounting for 14.05% and 9.2 %, respectively. The preachers use these two strategies as a sign of humility and wisdom. In the former technique, indirect illocutions are more polite due to their increased optionality and diminished force (Leech, 1983, p. 108). In Extract 4 below, the preacher employs expressions that have contextually unambiguous meanings that differ from their literal meaning.

Extract 4

urīdu an ta'lam anna tağyīr al-munkar bil-yad lahu ḍawābiṭ. 'iḍā tamma al-i'tizāmu bihā kānat al-natā'ju ṭjābiyah wa 'mat al-fā'ida." (Al-Muslih: If we had obeyed Him (God))

"I want you to understand that changing the wrong with your hand is subject to regulations. If these rules are adhered to, the results will be positive and the benefits widespread".

The statement in this extract begins with "I want you to know", which is a conventionally indirect way of expressing a request or imparting information. It avoids directly instructing or commanding the listener, which could potentially be seen as impolite or confrontational. Furthermore, to express the need for compliance, the preacher utilized a conditional statement "If these rules are adhered to". In this context, the conditional clause added uncertainty to the press and undermined the assertiveness of the message. The speaker does not state that people need to comply; he only speculates about what might happen in such a case. Finally, the last indication of positive rhetoric is the passive voice "the results will be positive". With the passive voice, there is no emphasis on specific actors and actions; thus, it sounds more impersonal and removed. The facts presented became not something that will happen if people comply with the regulations but simply a natural outcome.

In the other technique of negative politeness, the preachers use various lexical and syntactic forms to reduce the magnitude of what is requested from the hearers, as in the following example:

Extract 5

āyuhā al-muḥaqqiq fī al-aṣyā', qif ma'a nafsika qalīlan, hal kān al-taḥqīq 'indak ' ādilā? (Al-Sudays: Good manners)

"O investigator of things, pause for a moment with yourself, was the investigation fair?"

In this extract, the preacher uses two expressions to minimize the imposition involved in the utterance. First, he calls the addressee the "investigator of things", which designates the addressed person as someone who generally has authority and takes the business they do seriously. Instead of putting down a direct statement or making a request, the opponent asks the addressee to "make sure of the truth." This form of the question is an example of struggling against the imposition of the speaker, and therefore we are dealing with the strategy of negative politeness. The speaker, thus, tries to put less strain on the autonomy and freedom of the addressee. In addition, the use of *qalīlan* "a little" shows consideration for the addressee's time and priorities. It implies that the speaker knows that the addressee may be engaged with other things; therefore, this person needs only a few minutes of his/her time. By doing so, he keeps out of their business while at the same time reducing chances that such may be considered as invasive or overbearing.

(c). *Off-Record Politeness*

The third type of politeness that is used considerably (11.3%) by the preachers is off- record politeness, including the strategies of over-generalization and rhetorical questions. These are indirect ways of conveying messages or intentions without making explicit statements. They can enhance the communicative effectiveness of the sermons by engaging the audience, emphasizing moral lessons. For instance, rhetorical questions, which are used repeatedly (5.9%) in the data,

can capture the congregants' attention and provoke thought, inviting them to reflect on their beliefs and actions without directly confronting them. An example of using this type of questions to convey off-record politeness is in Extract 6 below:

Extract 6

fa-man 'anta yā ibn ādam? 'alast al-faqīr wa-llāh huwa al-ġaniyyu al-ḥamīd, 'alast aḍa'if wa-llāh huwa al-qawīyyu

al-'azīz (Al-Shuraym: Contemplate the examples in the Holy Qur'an)

"So who are you, O son of Adam? Are you not the poor one, while Allah is the rich, the praiseworthy? Are you not the weak one, while Allah is the powerful, the mighty?"

In this example, the speaker employs rhetorical questions to convey an indirect message and provide helpful guidance without directly interfering with the listener's autonomy or offending them. Instead of imparting the lesson verbatim, the speaker uses rhetorical questions to get the listeners to consider their identity and relationship with Allah. When he asks "Who are you, O son of Adam?" he implies that the listeners should reflect on their humble position in relation to Allah. Rhetorical questions can also gently persuade someone to reconsider their viewpoint or behavior without using explicit orders or directives. In this example, the speaker prompts the listeners to acknowledge their dependence on Allah and to adopt a more modest and grateful attitude.

Another off-record politeness strategy employed by the preachers at a considerable rate (5.4%) is over-generalization. It is used to address general populations indirectly and politely by making generalizations. As can be observed in Extract 7 below, this strategy allows the congregants to determine whether or not the general remark applies to them.

Extract 7

sayudriku al-mar' bi istiḥḍār al-ḥaḍr anahu laysa kullu bayḍā'ih ṣaḥmatan wa lā kullu sawdā' faḥmatan wa lā kullu

lāmi' ḍaḥaban. (Al-Shuraym: Contemplate the examples in the Holy Qur'an)

"A person will realize by being cautious that not every white is fat, nor is every black charcoal, nor is every shiny [metal] gold".

In this example, over-generalization is indicated through the speaker's use of a proverb including broad statements about certain objects. For instance, the statement "not every white is fat" exaggerates the correlation between the color white and fatness, while "not every black is charcoal" exaggerates the association between the color black and charcoal. Similarly, "not every shiny [metal] is gold" exaggerates the association between shininess and gold. In addition, by presenting these statements as if they were universally true, the speaker implies that they apply to all instances of the objects mentioned. However, these statements are clearly exaggerated and not meant to be taken literally. Instead, they serve to convey a broader message about the need for caution and discernment in making judgments or assumptions.

(d). Bald-On-Record Politeness

The least-occurring type of politeness is bald-on-record, accounting for 9.18% of the instances, and conveyed within the strategies of metaphorical emphasis and favoring the speaker. Although the preachers do not often make any effort to minimize the threats to the hearer's "face" in these strategies, they can enhance the clarity, directness, and impact of the sermon, aligning with the communicative goals and religious objectives of the preacher. For example, as in Extract 8 below, using metaphorical urgency for emphasis allows preachers to convey the importance of their message with a sense of immediacy and seriousness.

Extract 8

waṣāḥid mā yajrī 'ala al-islam wal-muslimin min fasād 'arīd wa ṣarrin mustatīr, bisababi hā' ulā' al-ḡulāt al-takfīriyyīn, fī ṣarq al-ardh wa ḡarbiḥā bism al-jihād zurān wa buḥtānā. (Al-Muslih: If we only had obeyed Him)

"And witness what is happening to Islam and Muslims of widespread corruption and intense evil, because of these

Takfiri extremists, in the east and west of the earth, falsely and deceitfully in the name of Jihad."

In this example, the speaker uses metaphorical urgency of emphasis to reflect bald-on-record politeness by delivering a direct and assertive message aimed at highlighting the seriousness of the issue at hand. The phrase "widespread corruption and intense evil" serves as a direct command, in which the speaker does not hedge or soften the statement but rather presents it assertively, urging the listener to recognize and acknowledge the severity of the issue. Furthermore, the use of strong language such as "Takfiri extremists" and "widespread corruption and intense evil" enhances the urgency and emphasizes the seriousness of the situation. By explicitly condemning the actions of these groups in clear

and forceful terms, the speaker is employing the bald-on-record strategy to convey the urgency of addressing the problem without ambiguity or reservation.

In addition, doing the FTA for the congregation, or emphasizing the advantages or special considerations given to the audience, can make the listeners feel included and special. The preacher and the congregation may become closer as a result, as in Extract 9 below:

Extract 9

fakirū fī dunyākum wa āxiratikum, fī hayātikum wa mawtikum, fī ḥaḍīrikum wa mustaqbalikum wa lā tansū al-halāl, fahuwa nasībuk min al-dunyā (Al-Sheikh: Self-accountability)

"Think about your worldly life and your Hereafter, about your life and your death, about your present and your future. Do not also forget the lawful, for it is your share of this world".

In this example, the speaker is asking the listeners to reflect on various aspects of life, such as worldly matters, the Afterlife, life and death, and the present and future. Due to its introspective character, this message may at first seem aggressive or difficult, but in the end, it is conveyed for the listener's benefit. By encouraging them to reflect on these serious subjects, the speaker aims to enhance spiritual development and a deeper understanding of life's purpose and significance. The principal goal is to guide the listeners toward greater awareness and fulfillment, although this may involve presenting existential challenges and difficulties to them. Therefore, despite its discomfort, this bald-on-record strategy serves the listener's best interests by encouraging introspection and spiritual growth.

V. CONCLUSION

This study investigated the politeness strategies employed in online Arabic-scripted Friday sermons, based on Brown and Levinson's (1987) politeness theory. The analysis of four sermons delivered by prominent scholars at Mecca's holiest mosque showed that all four of Brown and Levinson's (1978) politeness strategies—bald on record, positive, negative, and off-record—were utilized. The positive politeness strategy—with five sub-strategies—was the most prevalent, where preachers emphasized shared values and group unity to encourage obedience to Allah. Negative Politeness strategies were next in frequency, including three sub-strategies that focused on respecting the listener's autonomy and freedom of behavior. Off-record and bald on record strategies were used in lower percentages, with only two sub-strategies for each. These findings validated earlier studies by Al-Khatib (2012) and Al-Fayyad (2014), Kareem (2019), Jewad (2022), and Arifianto et al. (2023), emphasizing the importance of politeness in Islamic discourse. Future research should explore specific speech acts in Islamic discourse and consider the impact of social variables like gender, age, and belief.

REFERENCES

- [1] Al-Ameedi, R. T. K., & Abood, A. S. (2021). A pragmatic analysis of mitigation in the New Testament and prophetic traditions. *International Journal of Linguistics, Literature and Translation*, 4(7), 154-164. Retrieved 12 March 2024 from: <https://doi.org/10.32996/ijlilt.2021.4.7.17>
- [2] Al-Fayyad, H. (2014). *Politeness in Al-Hadith Al-Sharif: A pragmatic and sociolinguistic perspective* (Unpublished M.A. thesis). Jordan University of Science and Technology, Irbid, Jordan.
- [3] Ali, M. & Khan, N. (2017). The Role of Friday *Khutbah* in Islamic Education. *Journal of Islamic Studies*, 25(3), 123-135.
- [4] Al-Khatib, M. (2001). The pragmatics of letter-writing. *World Englishes*, 20(2), 179-200.
- [5] Al-Khatib, M. (2012). Politeness in the Holy Qur'an: A Sociolinguistic and Pragmatic Perspective. *Intercultural Pragmatics*, 9(4), 479-509.
- [6] Al-Momani, K., Migdadi, F. & Rabab'a, E. (2018). Politeness strategies and the representation of women in the Holy Qur'an. *Intercultural Pragmatics*, 15(3), 409-435.
- [7] Antoun, R. T. (1989). *Muslim preacher in the modern world: A Jordanian case study in comparative perspective*. Princeton University Press.
- [8] Arifianto, M. L., Kholisin, K., Izzudin, I. F. & Zulfa A. M. (2023). Investigating Politeness in the Prayers of Prophets: A Quranic Discourse Perspective, *Journal of Ethnic and Cultural Studies*, Vol. 10(5), 112-135.
- [9] Atawneh, A. M. A. (1991). Politeness theory and the directive speech-act in Arabic-English bilinguals: An empirical study. *Dissertation Abstracts International*, 53(02), 479A. (UMI No. 9219306).
- [10] Brown, P. & Levinson, S. C. (1987). *Politeness: Some universals of language use*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.
- [11] Elarbi, N. (1997). Face and politeness in traditional and modern Tunisia: An application of Brown and Levinson's politeness theory. *Dissertation Abstracts International*, 58(07), 2460A. (UMI No. 9802865).
- [12] Fraser, B. (1990). Perspectives on politeness. *Journal of Pragmatics*, 14(2), 219-236.
- [13] Goffman, E. (1967). *Interaction ritual: Essays on face-to-face behavior*. Garden City, NY: Doubleday.
- [14] Grice, P. (1975). Logic and conversation. In P. Cole, and J. L. Morgan (Eds.), *Syntax and Semantics: Speech acts*, 41-58. NY: Academic Press.
- [15] Held, G. (2005). Politeness in linguistic research. In R. J. Watts, S. Ide, and K. Ehlich (Eds.), *Politeness in language: Studies in its history, theory and practice*, 131-153. Berlin: Mouton de Gruyter.
- [16] Holmes, J. (1995). *Women, men and politeness*. London: Longman.
- [17] Holsti, O. (1969). *Content Analysis for the Social Sciences and Humanities*. Reading, MA: Addison-Wesley.

- [18] House, J. & Kádár, D. Z. (2021). *Cross-cultural pragmatics*. Cambridge, University Press.
- [19] Jewad, H. G., Ghapanchi, Z. & Ghazanfari, M. (2020). Investigating Leech's principle in conversational verses in Three Surahs from The Holy Quran. *Asian Social Science*, 16(3), 29–42. Retrieved April 12, 2024 from <https://doi.org/10.5539/ass.v16n3p29>
- [20] Junaidi, M. (2018). Politeness, speech act, and discourse in Sasak community. *Mabasan*, 12(2), 65-77.
- [21] Kamali, M. H. (2008). Friday Sermons and Community Cohesion in Islam. *International Journal of Islamic Thought*, 4(1), 45-58.
- [22] Kareem, Sh. (2018). Im/politeness in Muslim discourse: A study of Nigerian Friday sermons. *International Journal of Linguistics*, 10(4), 41-55. Retrieved June 12, 2024 from DOI: 10.15640/ijlc.v6n2a3
- [23] Klein, L. E. (1993). Shaftesbury, politeness and the politics of religion in in Phillipson, Nicholas & Quintin Skinner (eds.) *Political discourse in early modern Britain: 283-301*, Cambridge University Press.
- [24] Lakoff, R. (1973). The logic of politeness: Or minding your p's and q's. *Chicago Linguistic Society*, 9, 292-305.
- [25] Leech, G. (1983). *Principles of pragmatics*. London: Longman.
- [26] Madanat, Ph. O. (2016). *The Role of Friday Sermon in Shaping the Opinion of the Worshippers in Jordan*, Ph.D dissertation, Universitat Oberta de Catalunya, Barcelona, Catalunya, Spain.
- [27] Mahmood, I. I. & Kasim, Z. M. (2019). Interpersonal metadiscursive features in contemporary Islamic Friday sermon. *3L: The Southeast Asian Journal of English Language Studies*, 25(1), 85-99.
- [28] Matsumoto, Y. (1989). Politeness and conversational universals: Observations from Japanese. *Multilingua*, 8, 207-221.
- [29] Migdadi, F., Badarneh, M.A. & Al-Momani, K. (2010). Divine Will and Its Extensions: Communicative Functions of *māshallah* in Colloquial Jordanian Arabic. *Communication Monographs*, 77(4), 480-499.
- [30] Migdadi, F., Badarneh M. A. & Al-Momani, K. (2012). Public Complaints and Complaint Responses in Calls to a Jordanian Radio Phone-In Program. *Applied Linguistics*, 33(3), 321-341.
- [31] Migdadi, F. (2021). A Sociopragmatic Study of Intra-Gender Compliment Responses by Saudi College Students. *Jordan Journal of Modern Languages and Literature*, 13(1), 143-166.
- [32] Murni, S. M. & Solin, M. (2013). The Islamic ideology of Indonesian linguistic politeness. *Jurnal Bahasa, Sastra, dan Pembelajaran Bahasa*, 3(2), 123-134.
- [33] Nwoye, O. (1992). Linguistic politeness and socio-cultural variations of the notion of face. *Journal of Pragmatics*, 18, 309-328.
- [34] Robinson, H. W. (1980). *Biblical preaching*. Grand Rapids, MI: Baker Book House.
- [35] Saddhono, K., Wardani, N. E., Ulya, Ch. & Raharjo, Y. M. (2016). "The Structure of Friday Sermon in Indonesia: A Sociopragmatic Studies", *International Seminar Prasasti ī: Current Research in Linguistics*, 420-426.
- [36] Sifianou, M. (2019). Im/politeness and in/civility: A neglected relationship, *Journal of Pragmatics*, 147, 49–64. Retrieved April 10, 2024 from <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.pragma.2019.05.008>
- [37] Taylor-Powell, E. & Renner, M. (2003). *Analyzing qualitative data*. University of Wisconsin-Extension, Cooperative Extension, Wisconsin, Madison, Retrieved June 20, 2024 from https://www.betterevaluation.org/sites/default/files/analyzing_qualitative_data.pdf
- [38] Terkourafi, M. (2008). Toward a unified theory of politeness, impoliteness, and rudeness. *Impoliteness in Language: Studies on its Interplay with Power in Theory and Practice*, Derek Bousfield and Miriam A. Locher (eds), 45-74.
- [39] Ushie, G. O. & Ifeakor, J. U. (2014). Name calling and vulgarity as threats to national peace and security: The case of language of virtual community. *Theory and Practice in Language Studies*, 4(8), 1614-1623. Retrieved April 5, 2024 from doi:10.4304/tpls.4.8.1543-1549
- [40] Watts, R. J. (2003). *Politeness*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.
- [41] Watts, R., Ide, S. & Ehlich, K. (1992). Introduction. In R. Watts, S. Ide, & K. Ehlich (Eds.) *Politeness in language: Studies in its history, theory and practice* (pp. 1–17). Berlin: Mouton de Gr.
- [42] Wolfson, N. (1983). An empirically based analysis of complimenting in American English. In: Wolfson, N., Judd, E. (Eds.), *Sociolinguistics and Language Acquisition*. Newbury House, Rowley, MA, pp. 82--95.
- [43] Wolfson, N. (1988). The bulge: A theory of speech behavior and social distance. In J. Fine (Ed.) *Second language discourse: A textbook of current research*, 55–83. Norwood, NJ: Albex.
- [44] Zakaria, B. N. A; Fakihi, M. N, Saifuddin, S., Imani, A. & Said, H. (2022). Politeness strategies employed in communication with Santri and Ustadz in an Islamic boarding school in Indonesia. *Al-Hijr: Journal of Adulearn World*, 1(2), 80–87. Retrieved May 10 from <https://doi.org/10.55849/alhijr.v1i2.14>

Fathi Migdadi is an Associate Professor at the Department of English Language and Linguistics, Jordan University of Science and Technology, Jordan. Migdadi has extensive experience in language teaching and syllabus design, as evidenced by his roles at various universities in Jordan and Saudi Arabia. His research interests include sociopragmatics, speech acts, and social interaction. <https://orcid.org/0000-0002-5575-7380>

Kawakib Al-Momani is a Full Professor of English Language and Linguistics at Jordan University of Science and Technology, Jordan. Her research interests include sociopragmatics, semiotics, and social interaction. <https://orcid.org/0000-0003-1825-2890>

Ibrahim Hammouri has an MA in Applied Linguistics from Jordan University of Science and Technology, Jordan. His research focuses on pragmatics and social interaction.

English Language Needs of Thai Cruise Ship Crew Members: A Target Situation Analysis

Chariti Khuanmuang

Department of Foreign Languages, Faculty of Humanities, Kasetsart University, Thailand

Abstract—Given that cruise tourism is a substantial global industry, it is imperative that a ship's crew members possess a high level of English proficiency to effectively communicate with passengers from all around the world. Still, hardly any research has been carried out on the English-language competency of crew members of Thai cruise ships. The sparseness of literature indicates a lack of attention paid to participants in this discourse community, thus marginalizing their voices. However, research could provide a platform for a wider audience to hear these previously unheard voices. This study aimed to explore the English macro skills required for Thai cruise ship crew members in various targeted situations. Between June 2022 and March 2023, data was collected from a web-based survey administered to 420 Thai cruise ship crew members. These crew members found that they needed to enhance their speaking, listening, reading, and writing skills in that respective order. The qualitative section also indicated the need to enhance listening and reading skills and better align them with speaking abilities. Nevertheless, writing proficiency was the most challenging aspect that required improvement. Moreover, crew members believed that their most effective means of communication occurred when they knew who to communicate with in English. By contrast, their performance was the least satisfactory when English conversation occurred through mediated communication. This study provides a partial framework for the Thai government and private sectors to create English language programs specifically designed for cruise students to achieve a high level of English proficiency for global communication.

Index Terms—English language needs, cruise tourism, target situation analysis

I. INTRODUCTION

English is a global language that serves as a medium of communication for people in numerous industries, including the hospitality sector. Indeed, the global cruise tourism industry has experienced significant growth in the 21st century, and the process of globalizing digitization and automation has partially transformed the cruise industry in terms of the training procedures and job responsibilities of cruise ship crew members in the present era (The Maritime Executive, 2018). Moreover, the Thai government has responded to the growth in cruise tourism by announcing its 13th National Economic and Social Development Plan (2023–2027). This plan aims to enhance the cruise industry by improving the quality of infrastructure and manpower at Thailand's ports-of-call, as well as the Thai workforce on international cruise lines (Thangthong & Khuanmuang, 2020). As a result, individuals working in today's tourism industry must possess a high level of English proficiency (Crystal, 2003).

Being non-native English speakers, Thai nationals must undergo a standardized English proficiency exam specifically designed for mariners known as the Marlins Test. The examination evaluates the level of overall spoken communication in the English language and the specific vocabulary required for individuals working in offshore industries such as the crew members of a cruise ship (Thangthong, 2011). Maritime English, an aspect of English for Occupational Purposes (EOP) that falls under the broader category of English for Specific Purposes (ESP), is a term used to describe the English language used by seafarers, including maritime cadets, cargo ship workers, and deck officers, and it includes specific terms and expressions related to the maritime industry (Hutchinson & Waters, 1987). However, because cruise ship crew members primarily provide services to cruise passengers, which has a significant impact on the quality of the passengers' travel experiences (Kim et al., 2012), their focus is typically on hospitality English, which includes areas such as food and beverages, housekeeping, and recreational activities. As a result, Thai crew members must possess English communication skills that are tailored to service-related situations, thereby enabling them to engage in English conversations with passengers.

So far, only a limited number of studies on maritime English have been conducted, and even fewer studies have particularly examined the demands of seafarers in terms of maritime English. Ahmmed et al. (2020) conducted a requirements analysis to examine the English language abilities required by Bangladeshi seafarers prior to their employment on ships. Organizations that recruit maritime students and seafarers believe that speaking abilities are of the utmost importance, followed by listening, reading, and writing skills, respectively. Nevertheless, the cadets believed that all the macro abilities were necessary to proficiently carry out their duties. Akyuz et al. (2019) performed a comprehensive study of future skills requirements in the maritime industry by reviewing relevant research studies. It was found that seafarers in the shipping business need to possess a range of crucial qualities, including communication skills, interpersonal and social skills, and language proficiency, to excel in the age of digitalized communication technology. Fan et al. (2017) conducted a study examining communication obstacles among shipboard personnel. The findings

revealed that the results of maritime English education were excessively broad and thus inadequate, and several maritime accidents have occurred as a result. Their research aimed to advocate for a more specialized and elevated maritime English curriculum in China with the goal of enhancing seafarers' proficiency in English communication. However, the current level of English proficiency among Chinese seafarers has declined in comparison to previous decades. Therefore, it is imperative to revamp maritime English education in China by focusing on the curriculum and improving the quality of educators. However, none of these studies have examined the use of nautical English specifically for crew members of cruise ships who primarily focus on providing services to passengers on board cruise ships.

Although there have been many studies carried out on the behaviors and routines of individuals who take cruises and the growth and advancement of destinations visited by these cruises, there has still been a lack of research on cruise ship crew workers in Thailand. For instance, Thangthong (2011) examined the expenditure patterns of cruise passengers when they visited ports in Thailand. Moreover, in 2016, Thangthong also conducted a study that aimed to examine the luxury experience of cruise passengers at the Phuket port of call. Another study conducted by Thangthong in 2017 examined the behavioral tendencies of cruise passengers visiting the Samui Island Port of Call. Cheewatragoongit et al. (2018) proposed a model to establish a cruise home port to enhance cruise tourism in the Andaman tourism cluster of Thailand. Esichaikul et al. (2019) investigated the difficulties and obstacles involved in creating a home port for cruises in the Andaman tourism cluster. Back to Thangthong, who, along with his colleagues, conducted a study in 2019 to analyze the travel behaviors of international cruise passengers specifically at the Laem Chabang Port of Call. Thangthong also collaborated with Khuanmuang in a 2020 study on the distinctive and indelible encounters of foreign cruise ship passengers at Thailand's ports of call. In 2020, Khuanmuang examined the intercultural communicative competence of Thai cruise ship crew members on an international cruise ship using a self-reflection questionnaire. However, none of them analyzed the English language proficiency criteria for cruise ship crews in different situations on board. The sparse literature indicates a lack of attention to participants in this discourse community, thus marginalizing their voices. As a result, the present research could serve as a platform for these unheard voices to be heard by a wider audience. This study sought to fill a need in the current body of research by examining the English language skills necessary for Thai cruise employees to properly fulfill their service obligations to international cruise passengers in various scenarios. Being the foremost ambassadors of the organization, cruise ship crews engage in direct contact with cruise passengers. As a result, it is necessary to assess their English macro abilities required to fulfill their responsibilities in various situations. As a result, this study sought to investigate the English macro skills required of Thai cruise ship crew members in a variety of targeted situations.

II. LITERATURE REVIEW

To determine the requirements for English macro skills among Thai cruise ship crew members in different situations, two frameworks must be integrated: Needs Analysis (NA) and Target Situation Analysis (TSA).

A. Needs Analysis

Individual needs are the main driving force for career progress in the constantly changing professional world. Ryan et al. (1996) classify these needs into two domains: objective requirements, including personal goals and aspirations, and knowledge acquisition requirements which focus on the actions needed to attain those goals. These concepts serve as the foundation for needs analysis to enhance the effectiveness of English language learning programs (Brown, 1995). By conducting inquiries about learners' ambitions and perceived skill inadequacies (Ostler, 1980), educators can customize curricula and syllabuses to meet their needs. Needs analysis extends beyond individual preferences. Additionally, it utilizes stakeholder viewpoints through surveys and other techniques (Lawrence et al., 1991) to determine the particular abilities and expertise that employers consider important.

An essential component of needs analysis involves closing the potential disparity between the needs of students and the expectations of employers (Hutchinson & Waters, 1987). Students may place a higher importance on developing overall language proficiency, whereas businesses typically value communication skills that are particular to their industry. By closing this gap, graduates will acquire the essential skills and knowledge needed to succeed in their professional careers. Additionally, through a meticulous needs analysis, educators may create focused programs that cater to the objectives of students and align with the requirements of the business. This refers to educational programs that are designed to match the goals and ambitions of students, focusing on areas where they feel they lack necessary skills and including industry-specific skills based on input from relevant parties. This complete strategy promotes higher student involvement, enhanced learning results, improved job prospects, and judicious allocation of resources to educational programs. Needs analysis is a fundamental aspect of creating successful learning experiences that enable students to attain their career objectives and adapt to the changing requirements of the job market.

B. Target Situation Analysis

Hutchinson and Waters (1987) introduced a valuable methodology known as Target Situation Analysis (TSA) to provide guidance when performing requirements analysis on English for Specific Purposes (ESP) courses. This model begins by collecting data regarding the learners' requirements and their interactions with other individuals in English, such as superiors, clients, and colleagues. Subsequently, it explores the specific purpose for which they employ English, like professional endeavors, educational development, or personal growth. Subsequently, the model considers the various

channels of communication that will be utilized including face-to-face interactions, email, and phone calls. Lastly, it delves into precise communication content such as serving food and beverages, providing instructions, and making reservations for excursions, all of which are pertinent to their occupation. Through a systematic approach to analyzing these characteristics, ESP course design may be precisely customized to close the gap between the learner's objectives and the specific language skills needed for professional achievement.

To elaborate, TSA is an assessment that focuses on identifying language needs in a professional or educational environment. The TSA method is the oldest-used strategy for needs assessment (West, 1997). In the 1970s, the Council of Europe utilized it to determine the language learning preferences of students, including their desired language (English, German, French, etc.), specific language skills (reading, speaking, writing, etc.), and learning objectives related to practical situations (phone conversations, listening to lectures, etc.). TSA incorporates language elements, tasks, and activities that are relevant to the target context. Furthermore, TSA is understood as encompassing essential requirements, deficiencies, and desires (Mohammed & Nur, 2018). The TSA methodology involves soliciting inquiries regarding the goal scenario and gathering perspectives from many stakeholders, such as students, educators, scholars, and potential employers. The TSA typically consists of six primary inquiries, which can be further subdivided into various other inquiries. The primary inquiries revolve around the objectives for which and the specific type of language required, the way the language is utilized, the subject areas it encompasses, the individuals engaged in the communication process, the context in which the language will be employed, and the timeframe for its usage.

III. METHODOLOGY

A. Participants

The study examined Thai crew members who were employed by international cruise ship companies through three licensed crew member recruiting companies in Thailand under a contractual agreement. To achieve a 95 percent reliability rate, Cochran's sample size formula (Cochran, 1977) suggests that the sample size for the cruise line service workers under contract to all agencies should be at least 400 respondents, as the precise population is unknown. Nevertheless, a total of 420 respondents participated in this survey as random respondents. The crew members consisted of individuals in various service-related roles, including servers (35.70%), porters (24.78%), stateroom attendants (19.04%), culinary staff members (12.61%), bartenders (4.76%), and dealers (3.57%).

B. Instrument

Upon conducting a thorough examination of the relevant literature, the researcher chose the target situation analysis (Hutchinson & Walters, 1987) as the framework to evaluate the English language skills requirements of Thai cruise ship crew members in various situations. Nevertheless, certain modifications were implemented to align with the specific circumstances of the Thai cruise ship crew members. The modifications to each questionnaire item were carried out by utilizing the empirical data obtained from pilot interviews with 10 Thai cruise ship crew members. Through this procedure, the researcher acquired valuable insights regarding the operational performance of cruise ship crew members on a cruise ship. This was done to assess the respondents' conscious utilization of macro abilities in the English language using an objective-based approach (Byram, 2020). Additionally, the researcher sought advice from a total of five esteemed professionals and scholars who specialize in the field of the cruise industry. Two individuals were active crew members on a Thai cruise, while two others held positions as hiring managers at cruise companies in Bangkok. Furthermore, one person was a department head specializing in cruise tourist management at a university in Bangkok.

The four domains of target situation analysis (Hutchinson & Walters, 1987) were organized in a table to evaluate the scale's dependability, as shown in Table 1. According to Ursachi, Horodnic, and Zait (2015), the questionnaire demonstrated a high level of dependability, exceeding 0.8. Therefore, the scale was deemed satisfactory.

TABLE 1
RELIABILITY OF QUESTIONNAIRE

Four Domains of Target Situation	Questionnaire Items	Cronbach's Alpha
a. Who to communicate with	1-12	0.943
b. Target of English language usage	13-20	0.976
c. English communication channel	21-31	0.928
d. English communication content	32-40	0.914

Once the modified version of the questionnaire was developed, each question was validated by five experts from the cruise line industry to ensure that the content was appropriate. The questionnaire was conducted in the Thai language to circumvent any potential language obstacles. To ensure comprehensibility and clarity, the questionnaire in Thai was reviewed by two experts in English-Thai translation.

The questionnaire consisted of three parts. The initial segment comprised the demographic information of the respondents. The second section had 40 items designed to assess the extent of their English language proficiency needs. The researcher utilized a 5-point Likert-type scale, ranging from 1 (strongly disagree) to 5 (strongly agree). The interpretation ranged from 1 (very low) to 5 (very high).

The four domains of the target situation contained (a) who to communicate with (12 items: items 1-12), (b) target of English language usage (8 items: items 13-20), (c) English communication channel (11 items: items 21-31), and (d) English communication content (9 items: items 32-40). The macro skills included listening skills (10 items: items 1-3, 13-14, 21-22, 32-34), speaking skills (10 items: items 4-6, 15-16, 23-25, 35-36), reading skills (10 items: items 7-9, 17-18, 26-28, 37-38), and writing skills (10 items: items 10-12, 19-20, 29-30, 39-40). The final section consisted of an open-ended question where the participants were asked to further elaborate.

C. Data Collection

Data collection took place from June 2022 to March 2023 at three specific locations, namely three cruise crew member recruiting firms in Thailand. A digital questionnaire was disseminated to Thai crew members who fulfilled their contractual obligations while serving on cruise ships. The human resources staff members from the three cruise crew member agencies in Thailand collaborated to randomly distribute the survey link exclusively to their Thai employees who were responsible for delivering services on an international cruise ship.

D. Data Analysis

The data analysis was conducted in three stages, corresponding to the three portions of the survey. An analysis was conducted on the data from the initial part to collect demographic information and the respondents' self-assessment of their English language proficiency using frequencies and percentages. The data from the second half of the survey was examined to determine the means and standard deviations to investigate the respondents' English language ability requirements. The data was analyzed using the Statistical Package for the Social Sciences (SPSS) application. The data was interpreted according to the criteria for English language ability levels using mean scores. A score between 1.00 and 1.80 was categorized as "very low". The result of subtracting 2.60 from 1.81 is "low". The range from 2.61 to 3.40 can be described as "moderate". The range from 3.41 to 4.20 is categorized as "high," while the range from 4.21 to 5.00 is classified as "very high".

The data from the third portion comprised the replies obtained from the open-ended inquiry. Given that the documents were provided in both Thai and English, the process of translation began. Thematic analysis was employed to examine the data from this section and identify codes and salient themes. It served as qualitative data to supplement the quantitative data obtained from the initial two sections. Following the researcher's interpretation, the researcher sought the input of two reviewers: one scholar specializes in English Language Teaching (ELT), while the other specializes in tourism and hospitality. Their task was to analyze the data in terms of coding and identifying themes. The purpose of this was to prevent possible biases and promote triangulation of data interpretation. The methodological approach is illustrated below.

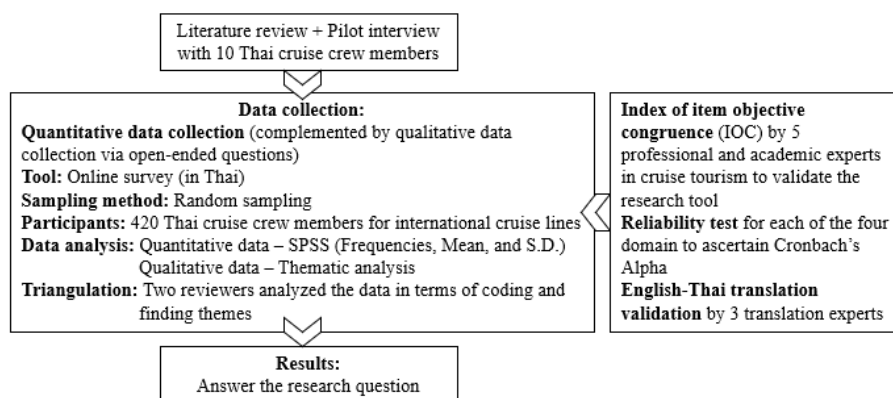


Figure 1. The Methodological Approach of the Study

IV. RESULTS

The first part of the online survey collected the demographic information provided by the respondents. The survey found that there were 232 (55.24%) male participants and 188 (44.76%) female participants. The age range of the participants varied from 20 to 59 years old. Out of the total, 220 participants (52.38%) fell into the 40 to 49 age range, 150 participants (35.71%) were aged between 30 and 39, 28 participants (6.66%) were between 20 and 29, and 22 participants (5.24%) were aged between 50 and 59.

Out of the total responses, 220 participants (52.38%) had a tenure of seven to nine years with the organization. Out of the total respondents, 200 participants (47.62%) reported having worked as cruise ship crew members for a period ranging from 1 to 3 years. A noteworthy aspect of the data was that the majority, specifically 350 respondents (83.33%), did not graduate from either language or tourism and hospitality backgrounds. Only 70 participants, which accounts for 16.66% of the total, have a degree or diploma in disciplines that are directly relevant. All 420 (100%) participants had prior job

experience in the hospitality industry, specifically in hotels and restaurants, before joining the cruise crew. Regarding the macro skills in English, all 420 participants (100%) reported that they excelled the most in speaking skills.

The second portion of the online survey assessed participants' perceptions of their proficiency in English macro abilities across four distinct target situation domains: (a) who to communicate with; (b) target of English language usage; (c) English communication channel; and (d) English communication content. Within each domain, there were distinct sections dedicated to each of the four major English macro abilities. Each macro skill encompasses three typical situations that participants often encounter while on duty. The results are presented below.

TABLE 2
PARTICIPANTS' PERCEPTIONS OF THEIR PROFICIENCY IN ENGLISH MACRO SKILLS ACROSS DIFFERENT TARGET SITUATIONS

Target Situation	Means	SD	Interpretation
a. Who to communicate with in English	3.60	0.99	High
b. Target of English language usage	3.45	0.89	High
c. English communication channel	3.38	0.90	Moderate
d. English communication content	3.59	0.90	High
English Macro Skills	Means	SD	Interpretation
1. Listening skills	3.71	0.92	High
2. Speaking skills	4.03	0.90	High
3. Reading skills	3.51	0.94	High
4. Writing skills	2.80	0.95	Moderate

Table 2 illustrates that Thai cruise ship crew members generally perceive their English proficiency as high in most target situations. They scored highest in (a) determining who to communicate with in English; (b) English communication content; and (c) the target of English language usage. However, the English communication channel achieved only a moderate score. Regarding English macro skills, the findings revealed that speaking skills obtained the highest score, followed by listening skills, then reading skills in that order. While these three skills achieved a high level of proficiency, writing skills were rated the lowest at a moderate level.

The data shown below in Tables 3 through 6 illustrates the perception of Thai cruise ship crew members regarding their English macro skills in various target situations. These situations were designed using an objective-based approach (Byram, 2020) to match the common tasks performed by Thai cruise ship crew members.

TABLE 3
WHO TO COMMUNICATE WITH IN ENGLISH AND ENGLISH MACRO SKILLS

A. Who to Communicate With in English	Means	SD	Interpretation
a) <i>Listening Skills</i>			
1. The verbal instructions from my superiors are clear to me.	3.35	1.05	Moderate
2. I understand when I listen to the questions from my passengers.	4.15	0.87	High
3. I feel confident when I listen to what my coworkers have to say.	3.40	0.92	Moderate
b) <i>Speaking Skills</i>			
4. I find it simple to discuss the outcomes of my work with my superiors.	4.15	0.78	High
5. I can converse with passengers and answer their questions with ease.	4.18	0.88	High
6. When my coworkers talk to me, I am able to answer them verbally.	4.10	0.96	High
c) <i>Reading Skills</i>			
7. I easily read the daily duty instructions from my supervisors.	4.16	1.10	High
8. After reading the notes of the passengers, I know what to do.	4.12	0.97	High
9. Reading notes from coworkers feels natural to me.	3.40	0.92	Moderate
d) <i>Writing Skills</i>			
10. I feel comfortable writing to passengers.	2.85	1.01	Moderate
11. It is a pleasure to write to superiors.	2.65	1.21	Moderate
12. My colleagues clearly understand my writing.	2.74	1.25	Moderate
Overall	3.60	0.99	High

Table 3 reveals that Thai cruise ship crew members generally possess a high level of English communication proficiency with an overall mean score of 3.60 when it comes to who they use English to communicate with. Speaking skills received the highest score, indicating that they were confident conversing with superiors, colleagues, and passengers. Writing skills, on the other hand, received the lowest rank at the moderate level. The lowest mean score was 2.65, indicating that it was deemed unpleasant to write supervisors. Compared to other English skills, writing to coworkers also obtained a low mean score of 2.74, and writing to passengers obtained a mean score of 2.85. Listening to passengers obtained the highest mean score of 4.15 compared to other target situations of listening to supervisors' instructions (mean score of 3.35) and listening to their peers (mean score of 0.92). Reading skills were generally perceived as high when reading daily instructions from supervisors (mean score of 4.16) and reading notes from passengers (mean score of 4.12). However, reading notes from colleagues was deemed moderate, with a mean score of 3.40.

TABLE 4
TARGET OF ENGLISH LANGUAGE USAGE AND ENGLISH MACRO SKILLS

B. Target of English Language Usage	Means	SD	Interpretation
<i>a) Listening Skills</i>			
13. Public announcements are something I can listen to with ease.	4.03	0.98	High
14. When I listen to safety training sessions in person, I know what needs to be done.	4.14	0.87	High
<i>b) Speaking Skills</i>			
15. One of my favorite things to do is greet new passengers.	4.10	0.79	High
16. I feel confident in my ability to advise passengers about safety.	3.85	0.87	High
<i>c) Reading Skills</i>			
17. I have no trouble understanding when I read for personal development.	2.62	0.94	Moderate
18. I like to read to help me solve problems.	2.61	0.84	Moderate
<i>d) Writing Skills</i>			
19. Filling out immigration forms is not difficult for me.	2.96	0.88	Moderate
20. I can sum up job orders' outcomes with ease.	3.30	0.97	Moderate
Overall	3.45	0.89	High

The findings in Table 4 showcase Thai cruise ship crew members' English communication concerning the target of English language usage. It was found that, in general, they viewed their English proficiency as high, with an overall mean score of 3.45. They felt confident listening to safety training sessions in person the most, with a mean score of 4.14. Their speaking abilities were also perceived as high, notably when it came to greeting new passengers, with a mean score of 4.10. However, they assessed their writing and reading skills as moderate. Reading on their own to solve problems received the lowest mean score at 2.61, and reading for personal development obtained a slightly higher mean score of 2.62. The mean score for filling out immigration forms was 2.96, indicating perceived difficulty. Summarizing job orders' outcomes received a mean score of 3.30.

TABLE 5
ENGLISH COMMUNICATION CHANNEL AND ENGLISH MACRO SKILLS

C. English Communication Channel	Means	SD	Interpretation
<i>a) Listening Skills</i>			
21. I have no trouble listening to phone requests.	2.86	0.92	Moderate
22. I have no trouble using the intranet to listen to self-training sessions.	3.44	0.88	High
<i>b) Speaking Skills</i>			
23. Answering phone calls is one of my favorite tasks.	3.35	0.89	Moderate
24. One of my favorite things to do is speak with people face-to-face.	4.15	0.91	High
25. I converse with people on video calls with ease.	4.08	0.94	High
<i>c) Reading Skills</i>			
26. I have no trouble reading notice boards and signs.	3.87	0.93	High
27. I understand when I read safety instruction manuals.	3.25	1.12	Moderate
28. I know what to do when I read job description manuals.	4.00	0.78	High
<i>d) Writing Skills</i>			
29. I am confident when I write reports to my supervisors.	2.78	0.89	Moderate
30. I can write complaints about my work and general well-being with ease.	2.64	0.78	Moderate
31. I feel at ease writing notes for other passengers.	2.75	0.91	Moderate
Overall	3.38	0.90	Moderate

Table 5 shows that Thai cruise ship crew members demonstrated a moderate level of English proficiency across various communication channels. Speaking skills received the highest mean score, notably when talking to passengers in person (mean score of 4.15). Conversely, communication, such as answering phone calls, obtained a moderate mean score of 3.35. Moreover, they perceived their writing skills as moderate, achieving the lowest mean score of 2.64 when they were required to write complaints about their work and general well-being. Listening to phone requests received a moderate mean score of 2.86, whereas listening to self-training sessions via the intranet received a high mean score of 3.44. Reading safety instruction manuals received a moderate mean score of 3.25, while reading notice boards and signs as well as reading job description manuals obtained a high mean score of 3.87 and 4.00, respectively.

TABLE 6
ENGLISH COMMUNICATION CONTENT AND ENGLISH MACRO SKILLS

D. English Communication Content	Means	SD	Interpretation
a) <i>Listening Skills</i>			
32. I easily follow oral instructions from bosses or other passengers.	4.05	0.94	High
33. Upon listening to the safety authorities, I fully understood their demands.	3.60	0.88	High
34. I can listen to casual conversations among coworkers without discomfort.	4.10	0.92	High
b) <i>Speaking Skills</i>			
35. I can easily give passengers information about cruise products.	4.18	0.99	High
36. I am confident when convincing passengers to buy cruise products.	4.15	1.01	High
c) <i>Reading Skills</i>			
37. When I read the daily ship regulations, I know exactly what to do.	3.45	0.93	High
38. When I read a ship's daily news, I can comprehend the main points.	3.60	0.86	High
d) <i>Writing Skills</i>			
39. I have no trouble writing reports on out-of-order items.	2.66	0.84	Moderate
40. I can write a succinct paragraph about training programs with ease.	2.58	0.77	Low
Overall	3.59	0.90	High

Table 6 displays Thai cruise ship crew members' level of English proficiency in terms of communication content. The overall mean score of 3.59 indicates that they generally felt confident. Speaking skills received the highest mean score, with giving passengers information about cruise products (mean score of 4.18) and convincing passengers to buy cruise products (mean score of 4.15) scoring the highest. Conversely, when asked to write a short paragraph about the training program, their writing skills received a low mean score of 2.58, while writing reports on inoperative items earned a moderate mean score of 2.66. Listening and reading skills received high mean scores overall. Listening to casual conversations among colleagues received a mean score of 4.10, while reading a ship's daily news received a mean score of 3.60.

The third part of the online questionnaire was an open-ended question for respondents to provide any additional information. There were 255 (60.71%) respondents who provided additional information. These responses were coded and categorized into two salient themes, as follows:

TABLE 7
SALIENT THEME: IMPORTANCE OF UTILIZING ENGLISH MACRO SKILLS

Vignette 1	<i>Understanding what passengers and coworkers say is important because it allows me to respond to questions correctly and appropriately. At first, I believed being able to communicate and express myself was the most crucial, but after years of working here, I've realized that being a service provider is more about being a good listener. As a result, I must have good listening skills to grasp what my passengers and colleagues require or complain about.</i>
Vignette 2	<i>Speaking skills appear to be the most necessary, as I am always communicating with passengers and coworkers. At first, I was overly concerned with grammar, but I eventually focused on English conversation. As a result, I felt more liberated and secure when communicating with people.</i>
Vignette 3	<i>Reading safety instructions is essential since it helps me understand what to do in an emergency. Crew members who work on a cruise ship must be familiar with safety measures. Furthermore, many passengers inquire about safety issues, and I am required to provide accurate and clear directions. Thus, reading ability is required to survive aboard a cruise ship.</i>
Vignette 4	<i>Because my writing abilities are rarely used as a cruise crew member, I tend to avoid writing in English. However, writing abilities are a prerequisite for promotion. If I want to enhance my job, I need to improve my English writing skills. This is because being a supervisor requires you to write on a variety of topics and summarize multiple meetings. As a result, those who want to advance in this industry must be proficient writers.</i>

The Thai cruise ship crew members recognized the importance of having proficient English language skills at a macro level. To flourish in their career, individuals must possess not only a deep understanding of the subject matter but also exceptional proficiency in the English language. Proficiency in speaking was crucial since it necessitated direct communication with passengers and colleagues from around the globe. Emphasizing fluency over accuracy, they prioritized communicative English rather than focusing on grammar precision. Effective communication is achieved when the intended message is conveyed in a polite and appropriate manner, considering the context. The Thai cruise ship crew members acknowledged the significance of possessing effective listening skills as they comprehended their responsibility as service providers. Instead of engaging in mere conversation, they exhibited a propensity for active listening as a means of demonstrating respect and acquiring further knowledge about passengers and colleagues. Proficiency in reading was also deemed crucial, especially in relation to safety. Cruise ship personnel are required to undergo a range of safety training conducted in the English language. A significant number of participants encountered challenges in comprehending safety-related content due to the presence of several specialized terms and jargon. Nevertheless, they acknowledged the importance of ensuring safety on board and hence saw the need to improve their reading abilities. The competency of writing skills was rated the lowest among the four skills, indicating that they were considered the least helpful. This is because most of their duties did not require a substantial amount of writing. However, Thai cruise ship crew members who aspired to advance in their jobs acknowledged the importance of enhancing their writing abilities.

TABLE 8
SALIENT THEME: CHALLENGES TO APPLYING ENGLISH MACRO SKILLS

Vignette 5	<i>Listening skills are vital because I need to understand what other people are saying to respond appropriately. I frequently find myself unable to understand what others are saying owing to their accent and dialect. Working on a cruise requires me to train my ears to recognize different dialects because my passengers and coworkers come from all over the world.</i>
Vignette 6	<i>When I first started speaking English, I tried to lose my Thai accent. I thought people would understand and respect me more if I spoke English with an American accent. After nearly a decade of working here, I understand that accents don't matter. Passengers and coworkers have complimented me on my Thai accent, which sounds natural and unique. I'm now proud of my Thai accent when speaking English.</i>
Vignette 7	<i>Reading skills are becoming increasingly vital as I read instruction manuals and attend self-development training programs. I frequently encounter technical terms and jargon that I am unfamiliar with; thus, I need to improve my reading abilities to pass the tests. Crew members are now required to complete online courses to be certified to perform their duties. So, reading abilities are essential for me to better understand what is being taught.</i>
Vignette 8	<i>When I write in English, I am overly concerned with grammar accuracy. This makes me uneasy when I write. I frequently use dictionaries and translation apps to help me write in English. I don't want to lose face when people notice my terrible English writing. Writing to my superiors also makes me uneasy since I don't want to be criticized if they don't understand what I write or find flaws in my writing.</i>

Thai cruise ship crew members encountered difficulties when attempting to employ their English macro skills in their professional endeavors. The most challenging aspect was the writing skills since they appeared to excessively prioritize grammatical accuracy. This impacted their confidence and caused anxiety when writing in English. This occurrence appears to have taken place when they were required to communicate with their superiors who hold a higher rank or position. Furthermore, they expressed their reluctance to face criticism for their inadequate English writing skills. They attributed the difficulty of reading skills to the presence of technical phrases and jargon encountered during training and ongoing self-development courses mandated by the company. Recognizing the necessity of passing the test to continue their duties, they acknowledged the importance of fostering their reading abilities. While the Thai cruise ship crew members showed confidence in their speaking skills and communicative approach that prioritizes meaning over grammar, they appeared uncertain about their English accent. A significant number of them, particularly young people, held the belief that speaking English with an American accent was more desirable. Nevertheless, those with extensive experience in the field appeared to exalt their Thai accent while conversing in English. They had acquired the ability to take pride in their cultural background and appreciate the distinctiveness of others. Passengers and colleagues from different parts of the world spoke with a diverse accent in English, making listening skills difficult. Consequently, they recognized the necessity of familiarizing their ears with different English accents.

V. DISCUSSION AND CONCLUSION

The results indicated that a significant number of Thai cruise ship crew members realized the importance of English macro skills in various target situations. Thai cruise ship crew members found that they needed to enhance their speaking, listening, reading, and writing skills, respectively. Although they exhibited a high level of confidence in their speaking skills, they encountered difficulties when it came to writing. This is due to the daily necessity of engaging in face-to-face communication with both passengers and coworkers. Nevertheless, there was no obligation for them to write frequently. As a result, they extensively developed their speaking abilities, leading to increased proficiency. Conversely, there were few opportunities to practice writing, resulting in inadequate English proficiency. Nonetheless, a significant number of them recognized the necessity of enhancing their proficiency in written English to progress in their professional endeavors. They regarded listening abilities as equally significant as speaking skills. They are responsible for direct passenger interaction as the company's frontline. Proficiency in both spoken communication and auditory comprehension is required. Without comprehending the desires or intentions of others, it becomes challenging to provide suitable and accurate spoken responses. Proficiency in reading is also crucial, particularly when it comes to training. As cruise ship crew members, they are required to undertake multiple training sessions in English. Various obstacles emerged when trying to understand the material due to the presence of technical terminology and jargon. Recognizing the necessity of passing the examinations to be eligible to continue their duties and ensure their safety on board, they acknowledged the need to enhance their reading skills.

Regarding the target situation needs, Thai cruise ship crew members believed that they performed satisfactorily in the majority of the four areas: (a) who to communicate with; (b) the target of English language usage; (c) the English communication channel; and (d) the English communication content. They demonstrated exceptional proficiency in the first domain due to their knowledge of the appropriate English communication recipients. Consequently, they were able to strategically place themselves during face-to-face conversations with their counterparts. However, they appeared hesitant to engage in communication with their bosses. This may be attributed to the influence of the hierarchical culture prevalent in Thailand. Consequently, they developed anxiety when engaging with their superiors. Additionally, it appears that many of them encountered difficulties when it came to interacting with their colleagues. This could be attributed to the diverse linguistic backgrounds of the coworkers, who hail from various parts of the world. Recognizing the possible limitations, many Thai cruise ship crew members agreed to enhance their English proficiency, particularly their listening skills, to effectively interact with individuals from diverse cultural backgrounds. Interestingly, while they demonstrated proficiency in direct communication, they displayed reluctance to engage in mediated communication, such as phone

calls, as indicated in the third domain. This may be due to their inability to perceive non-verbal cues, such as facial expressions and gestures. This indicates that they appeared to depend on nonverbal communication cues. Due to the absence of the ability to perceive nonverbal cues in specific instances of mediated interaction, they had increased challenges in their communication.

Additionally, a significant number of Thai cruise ship crew members faced challenges in effectively interacting with their superiors and colleagues. Nevertheless, they had a sense of ease when interacting with passengers. One possible explanation for this is that they were aware of their role as service providers who have direct engagement with passengers. What's more, a significant number of passengers were from North America, where English is the first language. Therefore, the Thai cruise ship crew members were well-acquainted with the American accent due to their previous exposure during their education and through popular media. Conversely, the Thai cultural belief in hierarchy may impede communication with supervisors. Beliefs from one's originating culture might be conveyed while interacting with individuals of greater status in different cultures. Furthermore, cultural differences may hinder effective communication with colleagues. Although most passengers were from English-speaking countries, most colleagues were from countries where English is not the first language. Consequently, Thai cruise ship crew members appeared to struggle with comprehending accents of English that deviate from the mainstream.

Furthermore, the Thai cruise ship crew members found the English communication channel to be the most difficult aspect. They appeared to have no difficulty engaging in direct communication, possibly because they had the chance to examine non-verbal cues such as facial expressions and gestures. Nevertheless, in the context of mediated communication, such as phone calls, only verbal communication and paralinguistic cues are available for observation, which can create obstacles to understanding the intended message. Thai cruise ship crew members exhibited a preference for mediated communication, specifically video calls and over-the-phone contacts. This is likely due to their ability to perceive facial expressions, gestures, verbal communication, and paralinguistic cues. It is evident that they substantially depend on non-verbal cues to improve their understanding. This is a common occurrence in communication since real-life communication involves multiple modes. It encompasses several forms of communication, extending beyond verbal language. Recognizing this limitation, they acknowledged the necessity of enhancing their listening skills due to the unavoidable nature of phone conversations in their work environment.

Surprisingly, the Thai cruise ship crew members expressed the highest level of discomfort when it came to composing a concise paragraph regarding the training program they were required to complete. The inherent difficulty of comprehending technical content and the additional challenge of producing a written summary may be the cause of this discomfort. Additionally, cruise ship crew members do not engage in regular activities that involve summarizing skills. However, they found writing about discrepancies to be less difficult. This could be attributed to the need to perform the task more frequently. This illustrates that consistent exposure to something can enhance their performance. Recognizing this challenge and desiring the chance for career advancement, many Thai cruise ship crew members aimed to enhance their writing skills, specifically in summarizing. This is likely because proficient writing skills are critical for managerial positions. Those aspiring to advance in their professional endeavors appear to be eager to enhance their writing skills.

Suggestions and Implications

There are multiple recommendations for future research. First, while the quantitative research design of this study allows for generalization of the results, employing a qualitative strategy that utilizes interviews and observations to collect data may produce more intriguing findings. Furthermore, future research should focus on those with less work experience, such as trainees or students specializing in cruise service operations, as the current study mostly included respondents who had worked as cruise ship crew members for several years. Given that these newcomers are either about to or intend to enter the cruise service business, it is important to assess their proficiency in English. Additionally, the target situations presented for each question in this study were just some of several potential situations that can arise in the Thai cruise ship crew members setting. Subsequent research endeavors may modify these situations to determine if the findings might vary. Furthermore, the survey was conducted without incorporating the perspectives of cruise passengers and stakeholders. Subsequent investigations may incorporate these into their research. Moreover, it was discovered that in addition to proficiency in English macro skills, future research should also consider the concepts of hierarchy, intercultural communication, and politeness.

Given the lack of research on the English macro skills of Thai cruise ship crew members in Thailand, the results of this study have important academic implications by addressing this gap in the existing literature. Regarding pedagogical implications, an academic program that includes cruise tourism in its curriculum can utilize the results of this study to modify English language instruction in relation to the overall language skills and commonly seen scenarios by cruise staff. Moreover, this study has professional ramifications for present and future Thai cruise ship crew members to contemplate and equip themselves for this global professional setting where English serves as the lingua franca. Ultimately, this study can function as a guideline for cruise line recruitment agencies, educators, and stakeholders in Thailand to develop impactful training programs.

REFERENCES

- [1] Ahmmed, R., Sinha, B. S., Khan, D. R., & Islam, D. M. (2020). A needs analysis of maritime English language skills for Bangladeshi seafarers to work onboard ships. *Marine Policy*, 119, 1-14. doi:10.1016/j.marpol.2020.104041
- [2] Akyuz, E., Cicek, K. & Celik, M. (2019). Future skills requirements analysis in maritime industry. 3rd World Conference on Technology, Innovation and Entrepreneurship (WOCTINE). *Procedia Computer Science*, 158, 270-274.
- [3] Brown, J. D. (1995). *The elements of language curriculum. A systematic approach to program development*. New York: Heinle & Heinle.
- [4] Byram, M. (2020). *Teaching and assessing intercultural communicative competence: Revisited*. Bristol: Multilingual Matters.
- [5] Cheewatragoongit, A., Boonyasait, S., & Ngamvichaikit, A. (2018). Model development of cruise home port for cruise tourism extension in Andaman tourism cluster of Thailand. In *Proceedings of the 12th Multidisciplinary Academic Conference 2018*. Prague: Czech Technical University.
- [6] Cochran, W. G. (1977). *Sampling techniques* (3rd ed.). New York: John Wiley & Sons.
- [7] Cruise Line International Association: CLIA. (2020). *Cruise industry COVID-19 facts and resources*. Retrieved on February 13, 2021 from <https://cruising.org/-/media/Infographics/Cruise-Research-Highlights>.
- [8] Crystal, D. (2003). *English as a global language*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.
- [9] Dudgey-Evans, T., & St. John, M. J. (1998). *Developments in English for specific purposes*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.
- [10] Esichaikul, R., Chansawang, R., & Choksuvanich, W. (2019). Problems and obstacles of developing cruise home port in Andaman tourism cluster. *University of the Thai Chamber of Commerce Journal Humanities and Social Sciences*, 38(4), 746-755.
- [11] Fan, L., Fei, J., Schriever, U., & Fan, Si. (2017). A critical examination of seafaring English education and training in China. *Marine Policy*, 86, 56-63.
- [12] Fan, L., Jiangang, F., Schriever, U., & Fan, S. (2017). The communicative competence of Chinese seafarers and their employability in the international maritime labor market. *Marine Policy*, 83, 137-145.
- [13] Hutchinson, T., & Waters, A. (1987). *English for specific purposes: A learning-centered approach*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.
- [14] Khuanmuang, C. (2022). Intercultural communicative competence of Thai crew members for international cruise lines. *Manutsayasat Wichakan*, 29(2), 253-376.
- [15] Kim, J. H., Ritchie, J. R. B., & McCormick, B. (2012). Development of a scale to measure memorable tourism experiences. *Journal of Travel Research*, 51(12), 12-25.
- [16] Lawrence, R. F., Carle, H. B., Paul, G. F., & Gary, L. K. (1991). *Investigation communication: An introduction to research method*. New Jersey: Prentice Hall.
- [17] Likert, R. (1932). A technique for the measurement of attitudes. *Archives of Psychology*, 22, 5-55.
- [18] Mohammed, A., & Nur, H. (2018). Needs analysis in English for academic purposes: Case of teaching assistant at the University of Khartoum. *HOW*, 25(2), 49-68.
- [19] Ostler, S. (1980). A survey of academic needs for advanced ESL. *TESOL Quarterly*, 14, 222-223.
- [20] Ryan, R. M., Sheldon, K. M., Kasser, T., & Deci, E. L. (1996). All goals are not created equal: An organismic perspective on the nature of goals and their regulation. In P. M. Gollwitzer & J. A. Bargh, (Eds.), *The psychology of action: Linking motivation and cognition to behavior* (pp.7-26). New York: Guilford.
- [21] Thangthong, N. (2011). *Expenditure behaviors of cruise passengers in Thailand: A case study of Princess Cruise Line* (Master's thesis). Pathum Thani: Rangsit University.
- [22] Thangthong, N. (2016). Luxury experience of cruisers in Phuket Port of Call. CAUTHE 2016: *Conferences Handbook and Book of Abstracts*. Council for Australian Tourism and Hospitality Education – CAUTHE.
- [23] Thangthong, N. (2017). Tourist behaviors of cruise passengers at Samui Island Port of Call. In *Proceedings of the 2nd National Research Conference*, (570-580). Rachathani University.
- [24] Thangthong, N., Inmoonnoi, K., & Khuanmuang, C. (2019). Travelling behaviors of international cruise passengers in Thailand. In *Proceedings of the RSU International Research Conference*, (1210-1216). Rangsit University.
- [25] Thangthong, N. & Khuanmuang, C. (2020). Exclusive memorable experiences of international cruisers at Thailand's ports of call. *Journal of Multidisciplinary in Social Sciences*, 16(3), 47-52.
- [26] The Maritime Executive. (2018). *The future of the modern seafarers' profession*. Retrieved 1 July 2021 from www.maritime-executive.com/editorials/the-future-of-the-modern-seafarers-profession
- [27] The Thirteenth National Economic and Social Development Plan. (2023-2027). *Office of the National and Social Development Council*. Bangkok. Thailand. Retrieved on December 2, 2023, from [chrome-extension://efaidnbmnnnibpcajpcglclefindmkaj/https://www.nesdc.go.th/article_attach/article_file_20230615134223.pdf](https://efaidnbmnnnibpcajpcglclefindmkaj/https://www.nesdc.go.th/article_attach/article_file_20230615134223.pdf).
- [28] Ursachi, G., Horodnic, I. A., & Zait, A. (2015). How reliable are measurement scales? External factors with indirect influence on reliability estimators. *Procedia Economics and Finance*, 20, 679-686.
- [29] West, R. (1977). Needs analysis in language teaching. *Learning Teaching*, 27, 1-19.

Chariti Khuanmuang is an assistant professor at the Department of Foreign Languages, Faculty of Humanities, Kasetsart University, Bangkok, Thailand. His interests include Tourism English and Intercultural Communication.

Ecolexicon of Balinese Medical Plants in *Lontar Usada Putih*: An Ecolinguistics Study

I Wayan Suardiana*

Balinese Literature Department, Faculty of Humanities, Udayana University, Denpasar, Indonesia

I Made Dwika Hadinata

Department of Linguistics, Warmadewa University, Denpasar, Indonesia

Rahmat Gaho

Department of Linguistics, Warmadewa University, Denpasar, Indonesia

Anak Agung Gde Alit Geria

Faculty of Teacher Training and Education, University of PGRI Mahadewa, Denpasar, Indonesia

I Made Budiasa

National Research and Innovation Agency, Denpasar, Indonesia

Abstract—*Lontar usada* is a text that contains traditional medicine that the Balinese have trusted for a long time. This knowledge originated in India and then spread to Bali along with the development of Hinduism in the 5th century AD. *Lontar usada* is written on palm leaves in a long rectangular shape with a size of 3.5 cm x 35 cm. *Lontar usada* has several types, including *lontar usada putih*. This study was intended to analyze *lontar usada putih* as a guideline for traditional medicine using an Ecolinguistic perspective. Qualitative methods were applied in this study. The data source was a document (Translated text of *lontar usada putih*) with No. 111d 158/2. A number of attachments 38 copied from the *lontar* belongs to Cokorda Putra from Petak Village, Abianbase District, Gianyar. The researchers also collected data through interviews obtaining data from Kawi (ancient Javanese) particularly. In this case, interviews were conducted to obtain data, especially language rituals or treatment in prayer form, especially Sanskrit. Several informants were interviewed: Pandita (priest) and Balian, a Balinese healer. Based on the results of the analysis, it was found that each treatment in the *lontar usada putih* not only uses medicinal media in the form of plants but also contains mantras, ceremonies, and special offerings.

Index Terms—Balinese, ecolexicon, *lontar*, traditional medicine, *usada*

I. INTRODUCTION

Bali, known as the Island of the Gods, is located between Java Island and Lombok island (Parker, 2004, p. 229; Samadhi, 2004). Bali is formerly part of the Lesser Sunda Province along with Lombok, Sumbawa, Sumba, Flores and Timor. Then, in 1958, Bali officially became an independent province with Singaraja as the capital (BPS Provinsi Bali, 2010).

The majority of Balinese people adhere to Hinduism and are familiar with the concept of *Tri Hita Karana*. *Tri Hita Karana* means three harmonious relationships between humans, environment and God (Ackerley, 2019). Briefly, it formulates as three things that can cause humans to achieve prosperity, happiness, and peace. The philosophy of *Tri Hita Karana* is a concept that expects humans to maintain relationships among the three elements so that they can gain the happiness. The three elements are 1) The harmonious relationship between humans and Ida Sang Hyang Widhi Wasa (Parhyangan). 2) The harmonious relationship between humans and each other (Pawongan). 3) Harmonious relationship between humans and their environment (Palemahan) (Wardana & Sudira, 1999).

The concept of a harmonious relationship between humans and the environment (Palemahan) above, in particular, is interesting to study with an ecolinguistics approach. In fact, the application of Palemahan in *Tri Hita Karana* can manifest in environmental cleanliness through disinfecting and cleaning the environment, as well as the use of traditional medicines (Arini, 2020). Moreover, the use of these traditional medicines has long been applied by the ancestors until now; they are still the main choice of the Balinese people (Shan et al., 2023; Hasheminasab & Fakhari, 2013). In this case, traditional Balinese medicine refers to the traditions, experiences, and skills passed down from generation to generation by the Balinese people, both those that have not been recorded and those that have been literate in *lontar usada* or education or training and are applied in accordance with the norms prevailing in Balinese society (see Governor of Bali Regulation No. 55 of 2019).

* Corresponding Author. Email: i.suardiana@unud.ac.id

Balinese people are familiar with the medicinal properties of plants (Hanum, 2011). In this sense, traditional medicines are completely natural compounds that can be prepared in various ways based on the healing properties of medicinal plants (Li et al., 2023). Hereby, traditional medicine of Balinese is recorded in the *lontar usada*. The word “usada” comes from the Sanskrit word “ausadhi”, which means plants that contain medicinal properties (Nala, 1992). Meanwhile, the Balinese *lontar usada* is a manuscript that contains a system of medicine, prescriptions or medicine ingredients and traditional healing methods in Bali. Traditionally, *lontar usada* is a reflection of Hindus, especially in Bali, who believe that getting sickness is the will of Shang Hyang Widhi (Almighty God). So, the *usada* method of treatment is a form of the greatness of Shang Hyang Widhi, who can cure various types of diseases (Sutomo & Iryadi, 2019). According to Sukantra (1992), *usada* is the science of traditional Balinese medicine, whose source of teachings is in *lontar*. Even though many community health centres, such as public health centres, clinics, and hospitals scattered, the community still relies on *Battra* or *Balian* (traditional healers) (see Sa’roni, 2012). Nevertheless, people’s interest in traditional medicine is increasing nowadays because conventional medicine and common healthcare would eventually dwindle or perish would be naive (Kalgie, 1994).

In this sense, Balinese people believe in traditional healing system; even the Balinese government has regulated traditional medicinal health services (see Governor of Bali Regulation No. 55 of 2019). In this sense, Balinese believe that health and illness occur due to a combination of *shtula sarira-suksma* and *sarira-antahkarana sarira* (the balance between body, mind and spirit) (see Arsana et al., 2020). Balinese people assume that disease is not only a physical symptom but also has other dimensions, namely social and cultural. That is why to cure a disease, it is not enough to diagnose the biological and socio-cultural problems.

The disease is a certain abnormal condition that negatively affects the structure or function of a part or all of a living thing’s body and is not the direct result of external injury. A disease is a medical condition associated with certain clinical signs and symptoms (Arias, 2015). Meanwhile, Timmreck (2005) says that the disease is a condition where there is a disturbance in the form and function of the body so that it is in an abnormal state. In this case, based on the beliefs of the Balinese people, diseases are classified into two groups: personalistic diseases (*niskala*) and naturalistic diseases (*sekala*) (Eiseman, 1990; Kumbara, 2010). Personalistic disease (*niskala*) is a disease caused by the interference of non-human evil agents, namely in the form of interference by spirits, jinns, demons, ghosts, or other spirits, even by supernatural powers, such as gods that possess a person’s body and soul so that become ill (Nala, 1992). Meanwhile, naturalistic diseases (*sekala*) are illnesses or health problems caused by natural conditions (not from evil spirits) but occur, such as wind, rain, hot, cold, and humid weather which are explained impersonally and systemically (Jirnaya, 2017; Kumbara, 2010; Nala, 1992; Pool & Geissler, 2005).

In light of the above, it can be concluded that Balinese *lontar usada* manifests the relationship between speakers of society towards the environment (language and ecology). Mbete (2013) emphasizes that language and the environment is connected each other, in which environment influence the speech community and language used mostly come from the environment (see Stibbe, 2015; Umiyati, 2023; Fill & Steffensen, 2014). Thus, it is not surprising anymore every society that lives side by side in a community will form a language culture such as a culture of figurative language (metaphor), poetry, and even rules based on the environment in which they live (Gaho, 2022; Utami, 2017). Therefore, this study is focused on analyzing ecollexicon of medical plants of Balinese community, examining language rituals as a treatment and analyzing ecosophy of *Lontar Usada Putih* of Balinese community.

II. LITERATURE REVIEW

Many studies with an Ecolinguistic approach have been carried out (see Stibbe, 2014; Steffensen & Fill, 2014; Li et al., 2020; Cowley, 2021; Penz & Fill, 2022). Khotimah et al. (2021) described that eco-lexicon lingual expressions related to COVID-19 in various Indonesian online media. This research shows that the identified eco-lexicon can be grouped into physical/biological reality, social reality, and symbolic/ideological reality. Then, Luardini et al. (2019) explain that there are essential elements of the relationship between ethnic culture and ethnobotanical language in the Dayak Ngaju that have been identified, namely the social and cultural values expressed in local wisdom and their implications for the utilization and preservation of living plants in the locality. In addition, some research has been done on *Usada* Bali in the health (see Sujarwo et al., 2015; Mu’jizah, 2016), theology (see Bhandesa et al., 2021). However, none of the studies above has combined *usada* Bali analysis in an ecolinguistic perspective as formulated in this study.

Concept and Theory

A. Ecolinguistics

Ecolinguistics is a scientific discipline that examines the relationship between language and ecology. Haugen (1972) stated that language with ecology can be defined as a study of the interaction between languages and their environment or the environment in which the language is used. Then, Fill and Penz (2018) defines ecolinguistics as one of the studies in linguistics that look for connectivity between ecosystems that are part of the human life system (ecology) and the language used by humans to communicate in their environment (linguistics). In other words, the relationship between language and the environment describes changes in the environment that can cause changes in language (Eliasson, 2015). Broadly, people’s behaviour towards their environment is also influenced by the language they use (see Sapir, 1912).

B. Language Ecology

In general, language is a method or tool for conveying ideas, feelings and desires that are genuinely human and non-instinctive by using a system of symbols that are produced intentionally and voluntarily (Sapir, 1924). Meanwhile, ecology is the study of plants and animals as individuals and simultaneously in biological populations and communities concerning their environment-physical, chemical, and biological characteristics of the environment (Chen, 2016). Ecology can be interpreted as a branch of science that studies the interactions of living things or groups of living things with their environment. Ecology is a comprehensive science about the structure and function of nature that determine the distribution and abundance of organisms (Krebs, 1999; Odum, 1971). Meanwhile, Stibbe (2012) states that ecology is a science that studies natural life scientifically or scientific natural history.

In essence, the relationship between language and ecology has a reciprocal relationship in linguistic studies, especially ecolinguistics. The first part is the psychological environment, namely the influence of the environment on the languages in the minds or cognition of speakers of these languages, and the second part is sociological, namely the relationship between the environment and the people who use these languages as their medium of communication (Haugen, 1966). Chomsky (2006) says that language is a product of human interaction with the world around them, the natural world and the social world. In contrast, Goatly (1996) argues that language and the environment are two things that influence each other.

C. *Usada*

Usada is Balinese traditional medicine. *Usada* comes from the Sanskrit language “ausadhi” which means plants that contain medicinal properties. This knowledge originated in India and then spread to Bali along with the development of Hinduism in the 5th century AD. *Lontar Usada* is written on palm leaves (*Borassus flabellifer* L.) in a long rectangular shape with a size of 3.5 cm x 35 cm (Nala, 1992). *Usada* is a traditional Balinese medical science written in kawi (ancient Javanese) which has many teachings and teachings related to various methods of treatment and various ceremonies for self-purification (Mu’jizah, 2016). As a writing pad with Balinese script as a writing tool, *Lontar* is also considered sacred. *Usada* is divided into several types whose treatment depends on the type of disease (see McCauley, 1988). In each ejection, *usada* has a method of weighting and the types of diseases that are treated. The existence of *usada* as a medicinal manuscript which is a richness of the Nusantara’s written tradition, has attracted the attention of researchers.

III. METHODS

This research uses a descriptive qualitative approach. The data source for this study was a document (translated text of *lontar usada putih*) with *lontar* number: (No. 111d 158/2) number of attachments 38 copied from the *Lontar* belonging to Cokorda Putra from Petak Village, Abianbase District, Gianyar. Then, it was copied and translated by I Dewa Putu Arka on Friday, 2 March 1851 (the original text of the *lontar* is now in Gedong Kirtya Singaraja). In addition to the data obtained from *lontar*, researchers also collected data through interviews. In this case, interviews were conducted to obtain data, especially language rituals or treatment in prayer form, especially Sanskrit. Several informants were interviewed, namely *pandita* (priest) and *Balian*, Balinese healer. After collecting data, it is then analyzed using an ecolinguistic approach (Haugen, 1972). Furthermore, the data are classified in tables and interpreted according to the disease category and the treatment technique.

IV. RESULTS

A. *Ecolexicon of Medical Plants of Balinese Community Found in Lontar Usada Putih*

In this section, the ecolexicon of Balinese medicinal plants is classified based on the type of disease found. Then, how to use the ecolexicon is explained based on its function. In this study, there are 7 categories of diseases that use medicinal plant ingredients of the Balinese people. The seven disease categories are the mild disease category, the category of diseases in the eye area, the stomach and digestive diseases category, the category of diseases contained mantra in the treatment, the category of diseases caused by spirits, the category of skin and venereal diseases, and the feet disease category, as described below.

TABLE 1
AILMENT CATEGORY (MINOR ILLNESS)

No	Ecolexicon of Medical plants in Balinese	Scientific name	Functions	Symptoms/local disease	How to use
1	<i>Gelagah</i>	<i>Saccharum spontaneum</i>	Cough and phlegm medicine	-	<i>Kesuna</i> is burned, then chew all the ingredients. Then sprayed on the chest
2	<i>Akar alang-alang</i>	<i>Imperata cylindrica</i>			
3	<i>Kesuna</i>	<i>Allium sativum</i>			
4	<i>Sari kuning (kuning telor)</i>				
5	<i>Daun Suren</i>	-	Cough medicine with phlegm mixed with pus and wheezing	-	Mix all the ingredients, then boil it in a pan, then eat it all
6	<i>Buu</i>	-			
7	<i>Sembung kacemcem</i>	<i>Blumea balsamifera</i>			
8	<i>Buah blimbing buluh</i>	<i>Averrhoa Bilimbi</i> Linn			
9	<i>Pule</i>	<i>Alstonia scholaris</i>			
10	<i>Kesimbukan</i>	<i>Paederia foetida</i> L			
11	<i>Pancar sona</i>	<i>Lawsonia inermis</i>			
12	<i>Kangkang yuyu (cangkak kepitng)</i>				
13	<i>Dingin-dingin</i>	-			
14	<i>Kemiri</i>	<i>Aleurites moluccana</i>			
15	<i>Dadap</i>	<i>Erythrina subumbrans</i>			
16	<i>Miana cemeng</i>	<i>Coleus benth</i>			
17	<i>Selasih harum</i>	<i>Ocimum</i>			
18	<i>Sumanggi gunung</i>	<i>Hydrocotyle sibthorpioides</i>			
19	<i>Montong isen (ujung lengkuas)</i>	<i>Alpinia galanga</i>			
20	<i>Lunak tanek</i>	<i>Tamarindus indica</i>			
21	<i>Kunyit warangan</i>	<i>Curcuma demostica</i>			
22	<i>Bulung daya (rumput laut)</i>	-			
23	<i>Isindrong wayah (campuran rempah-rempah bali)</i>				
24	<i>Air jeruk</i>	<i>Citrus</i>	<i>Tiwang jeret</i>	Medication if the teeth grind (chills)	Chew all the ingredients then spit out in his stomach
25	<i>Don dapdap wong</i>	<i>Erythrina variegata</i>			
26	<i>Kunyit warangan</i>	<i>Curcuma demostica</i>			
27	<i>Tri ketuka</i>				
28	<i>Rerambutan pule</i>	<i>Alstonia scholaris</i>	Flatulence medicine	Catch a cold	Steam all the ingredients and then mix and eat every day
29	<i>Akar arjuna</i>	<i>Terminalia arjuna</i>			
30	<i>Akar belimbing besi putih</i>	<i>Averrhoa bilimbi</i>			
31	<i>Cuka tahun</i>	Vinegar	<i>Sebaha</i> medicine	-	Mix all the ingredients with vinegar, then drink while face down
32	<i>Mica 5 biji</i>	<i>Piper nigrum</i>			
33	<i>Lunak tanek</i>				
34	<i>Sumanggi gunung</i>	<i>Hydrocotyle sibthorpioides</i>			
35	<i>Uyah menyah-nyah (garam)</i>	-	Medicine for headache	Headache throbbing and stabbing	Chew all the ingredients then spout on the head
36	<i>Akar alang-alang</i>	<i>Imperata cylindrica</i>			
37	<i>Lengkuas</i>	<i>Alpinia galanga</i>			
38	<i>Kunyit</i>	<i>Curcuma demosti</i>			
39	<i>Kepasilan</i>	<i>Loranthus</i>			
40	<i>Delima</i>	<i>Punica granatum</i>			

Table 1 above shows 40 ecolexicon of medicinal plants used by Balinese people to treat minor ailments such as

coughing up phlegm, flatulence (colds), and headaches. Some of the ecolexicon names of these medicinal plants are in Indonesian, for example *delima* 'pomegranate,' *lengkuas* 'galangal,' *kemiri* 'candlenut,' *akar alang-alang* 'reed root,' and *kunyit* 'turmeric'.

TABLE 2
CATEGORY OF DISEASES IN THE EYE AREA

No	Ecolexicon of Medical plants in Balinese	Scientific name	Functions	How to use
1	<i>Akar karuk</i>	<i>Piper sarmentosum</i>	Itchy eye drops	Mix all the ingredients with water then put in the eye
2	<i>Uyah lanang (garam)</i>	salt		
3	<i>Kunyit</i>	<i>Curcuma demosti</i>	Swollen and blurry eye drops	Mix all the ingredients with water then put in the eye
4	<i>Kemiri lanang</i>	<i>Aleurites moluccanus</i>		
5	<i>Uyah lanang</i>	Salt		
6	<i>Sulasih</i>	<i>Ocimum basilicum</i>		

Table 2 above shows ecolexicon of medicinal plants used by the Balinese, especially to treat diseases in the eye area. The application of the medicine is that all the composition is mixed and then applied to the sore eye area.

TABLE 3
STOMACH AND DIGESTIVE DISEASES CATEGORY

No	Ecolexicon of Medical plants in Balinese	Scientific name	Functions	Symptoms/local disease	How to use
1	<i>Pucuk pohon sembung</i>	<i>Blumea balsamifera</i>	Diarrhea medicine	Dirt seeps	Grind brown rice, then mix the shoots of the <i>sembung</i> tree and the core of the onion and then eat it.
2	<i>Inti bawang merah</i>	<i>Allium cepa</i> L. var. <i>aggregatum</i>			
3	<i>Beras merah</i>	<i>Oryza rufipogon</i>			
4	<i>Sari kesumbasam (daun kentut)</i>	<i>Paederia foetida</i>	Mokan tua	Unable to defecate every day	Mix all the ingredients together, then rub it under the navel
5	<i>Bawang</i>	<i>Allium cepa</i> L. var. <i>aggregatum</i>			
6	<i>Jeruk</i>	Citrus			
7	<i>Air gosokan tembaga</i>	-			
8	<i>Daun liligundi</i>	<i>Vitex trifolia</i>	Sakit puruh usus	Stomach ache	Chew all the ingredients, then sprayed on his stomach.
9	<i>Mesui</i>	<i>Cryptocarya massoia</i>			
10	<i>Triketuka</i>	<i>Triketuka</i> { <i>Kesuna</i> (<i>Allium sativum</i> L), <i>Jangu</i> (<i>Acorus calamus</i>), <i>Mesui</i> (<i>Cryptocarya massoy</i> (Oken) Kosterm.)},			
11	<i>Arang kerang laut</i>	Charcoal	Sakit gula segara	Stomach rumbling continuously	Pound the sea shell charcoal and <i>tri ketuka</i> then add <i>ludah merah</i> and stick it in the stomach
12	<i>Tri ketuka</i>	<i>Triketuka</i> { <i>Kesuna</i> (<i>Allium sativum</i> L), <i>Jangu</i> (<i>Acorus calamus</i>), <i>Mesui</i> (<i>Cryptocarya massoy</i> (Oken) Kosterm.)},			
13	<i>Air ludah merah (spit when eating betel)</i>				
14	<i>Daun sirih</i>	<i>Piper betle</i>	Sakit sula penyui	If the stomach hurts right in the navel, the body is shocked	Mash all the ingredients then rub in his stomach
15	<i>Tri ketuka</i>	<i>Triketuka</i> { <i>Kesuna</i> (<i>Allium sativum</i> L), <i>Jangu</i> (<i>Acorus calamus</i>), <i>Mesui</i> (<i>Cryptocarya massoy</i> (Oken) Kosterm.)},			
16	<i>Kulit kepah</i>	<i>Sterculia foetida</i>	Medication for stomach tightness and nausea	-	Chew all the ingredients until smooth, then spray in the solar plexus
17	<i>Kapur serbuk</i>	Powdered chalk			
18	<i>Akar jerungga putih (jeruk bali berwarna putih)</i>	<i>Citrus grandis</i>			
19	<i>Lengkuas</i>	<i>Alpinia galanga</i>			
20	<i>Gamongan</i>	<i>Zingiber zerumbet</i>			
21	<i>Ketumbar</i>	<i>Coriandrum sativum</i>			

Table 3 above shows 21 ecolexicons of medicinal plants used to treat diseases in the stomach and digestive areas in humans. Each of the ecolexicon lists of medicinal plants has a different way of application, for example the ecolexicon in no. 1-3 is used for the treatment of diarrhea, in which grind brown rice, then mix the shoots of the *sembung* tree and the core of the onion and then eat it. Likewise, other types of medicinal plants are applied in different ways.

TABLE 4
CATEGORY OF DISEASES CONTAINED MANTRA IN THE TREATMENT

No	Ecolexicon of Medical plants in Balinese	Scientific name	Functions/usability specifications	Symptoms/local disease	How to use
1	<i>Akar baliq harum</i>	-	Hot and restless medicine, like unconsciousness, hot spine, and stomach.	-	First, steam the fragrant <i>akar bali aga</i> , <i>tombong</i> and <i>sari kuning</i> (egg yolk) then drip it. The skins of the two candlenuts and tingulun are taken, then the coriander bebolong is chewed and then sprayed on the body. The three base worms, tamarind roasted coconut are cooked then sprayed all over the body. Fourth, mix gamongan and rice water and then apply it to the body. The incantation “ <i>Ong Sang Hyang Siwa Raditya, sire uriping sarira uriping bayu sabda idep mreta sanjiwani ne namah</i> ”.
2	<i>Tombong</i>	-			
3	<i>Sari kuning (egg yolk)</i>	-			
4	<i>Kemiri</i>	<i>Aleurites moluccana</i>			
5	<i>Tingulun</i>	<i>Protium javanicum</i>			
6	<i>Ketumbar bebolong</i>	<i>Coriandrum sativum</i>			
7	<i>Cacing base</i>	-			
8	<i>Kelapa bakar asam</i>	-			
9	<i>Gamongan</i>	<i>Zingiber zerumbet</i>			
10	<i>Air beras</i>	-	Tikna kuta merana.	High fever, and sleeps well, hard to wake up and headaches.	First, mix the <i>damuh-damuh</i> , sugarcane leaves, <i>damuh telengisan</i> and <i>sari kuning</i> (egg yolk), then put drops on the nose. Second, mix the <i>selegui</i> root, <i>dapdap wong</i> root, <i>delungdung</i> root, <i>banyan</i> root, <i>hawa cacing</i> root and grilled onion, then boil and drink the boiled water. The incantation “ <i>Ong Sah Lara, Sah Roga Sah Saluiring Wisya Ngawa, Wisyan Manusa, Teke Purna Waras</i> ”.
11	<i>Damuh-damuh</i>	<i>Oxalis corniculata</i>			
12	<i>Daun tebu</i>	<i>Saccharum officinarum</i> Linn			
13	<i>Damuh telengisan</i>	-			
14	<i>Sari kuning (egg yolk)</i>	-			
15	<i>Akar selegui</i>	<i>Sida rhombifolia</i>			
16	<i>Akar dadap wong</i>	<i>Erythrina variegata</i>			
17	<i>Akar delungdung</i>	<i>Erythrina euodiphylla</i>			
18	<i>Akar hawa beringin</i>	<i>Ficus benjamina</i>			
19	<i>Akar hawa cacing</i>	<i>Erythrina ovalifolia</i> Roxb.			
20	<i>Bawang bakar</i>	<i>Allium cepa</i> var. <i>aggregatum</i>	Sanggar tulang tiwang	Throbbing leg pain, trembling and restlessness	Mash all the ingredients then spread evenly throughout the legs. Mantranya “ <i>Ih nini batara durga, ingsun aminta tambakena tuju, tuju nyanyati, tuju pamali, pulung roja pulung kapanda, sira andadening manusa, anguripaken jatma manusane sianu, ana panambana batari, saji sega sanga iwaknya buktine den atrepi</i> ”. Offerings “Rice 1 plate of processed pork, cooked and raw, offered at the cremation site, at night ask Sang Hyang Durga for life”
21	<i>Duri pohon bila</i>	<i>Aegle marmelos</i> (L.)			
22	<i>Duri kaliaga</i>	<i>Maclura cochinchinensis</i>			
23	<i>Duri jeruk</i>	<i>Citrus maxima</i>			
24	<i>Sampah dikuburan</i>	-			
25	<i>Air cuka tahun</i>	-	Sakit pemali	The pain stabbed all over his body before the day of <i>kajeng kliwon</i> (disturbance of evil spirits)	Mix all the ingredients then puree and then eat. The incantation “ <i>Ong Ratu Manca ya ngawe pamali, aku manggawe ratu manca ya, aku I dukuh putih, guruning sarwa jagat muksah kita pamali sasab mulih alih memen ibe sesepe ati jejeron babunta poma, 3</i> ”
26	<i>Akar gelagah</i>	<i>Saccharum spontaneum</i>			
27	<i>Alang-alang yang baru tumbuh</i>	<i>Imperata cylindrica</i>			
28	<i>Beras merah</i>	<i>Oryza rufipogon</i>			
29	<i>Kelapa bakar</i>	-			
30	<i>Sari Lungid</i>	-	Kaki lupa	Legs feel numb	Grind the <i>aba</i> leaves, red sticky rice, 3 slices of galangal and <i>tri ketuka</i> then mix it with the sliced oranges then stick it on the leg. The incantation “ <i>Ong lara teka saking tan hana, Ong lara teka saking sunya, muksah saking sunya, Ong lara teka saking namu-namu muksah saking namu-namu, Ong lara teka saking pertiwi, muksah ilang rep sirep waras si anu, sidimantranku</i> ”
31	<i>Daun ara (loa)</i>	<i>Ficus racemosa</i>			
32	<i>Ketan merah</i>	<i>Oryza sativa</i> L. Var. <i>Glutinosa</i>			
33	<i>Lengkuas 3 iris</i>	<i>Alpinia galanga</i>			
34	<i>Tri ketuka</i>	<i>Triketuka</i> { <i>Kesuna</i> (<i>Allium sativum</i> L), <i>Jangu</i> (<i>Acorus calamus</i>), <i>Mesui</i> (<i>Cryptocarya massoy</i> (Oken) Kosterm.)},			
35	<i>Jeruk diiris-iris</i>	<i>Citrus</i>	Mising	Bloody stools	Mix all the ingredients with hot water then eat. The incantation “ <i>Rasa enreta kang sarira wisya emreta kang sarira, sinamah swaha</i> ”.
36	<i>Kulit pohon angsoka</i>	<i>Pterocarpus indicus</i>			
37	<i>Akar pohon kasine</i>	-			
38	<i>Asam limo</i>	<i>Citrus ×amblycarpa</i>			
39	<i>Akar pohon kembang sepatu</i>	<i>Hibiscus rosa-sinensis</i>			

40	<i>Majagau</i>	<i>Dysoxylum densiflorum</i>			
41	<i>Uyah uku (Salt)</i>	-			
42	<i>Temu</i>	<i>curcuma purpurascens blumen</i>	Myopic eyes	-	Blend all the ingredients then rub in the eyes. The incantation “ <i>Ong syah mega, syah mendung, ilang kelilipan lara ne tra kiwa tengen, ah 3, sidi mantranku</i> ”
43	<i>Kunyit</i>	<i>Curcuma demostica</i>			
44	<i>Lapisan bawang putih</i>	<i>Allium sativum</i>			
45	<i>Garam</i>	Salt			
46	<i>Sasirih paporos (daun sirih digulung dengan isinya)</i>	<i>Piper betle</i>	Medicine to be strong with women who want to have children	-	When you have sex with your wife, then eat half of each betel nut and then recite the incantation “ <i>ong kaki manik, kinon sang roja wisesa, anurunana rare, den sidi, den enggal telas</i> ”.
47	<i>Buah pinang muda</i>	<i>Areca catechu</i>			
48	<i>Daun Lontar</i>	<i>Borassus flabellifer L</i>	Medication baby cries every night	-	Palm leaves are written with incantation “ <i>ong si biang babiang ah, ayah ah telas</i> ”
49	<i>Kesuna tunggal</i>	<i>Allium sativum</i>	Leprosy Medicine	-	The way of treatment is chewing all the ingredients and then sprinkling it on the area where there is leprosy. For the incantation “ <i>indah ta kita sang hyang kusta, sakwehing kusta, kusta penyu, kusta empas, kusta lawu, kusta yuyu sakwehing kusta waras dening idu bang waras 3, sidi mantraku</i> ”
50	<i>Buah pinang yang tua</i>	<i>Areca catechu</i>			
51	<i>Tri ketuka</i>	<i>Triketuka (Kesuna (Allium sativum L), Jangu (Acorus calamus), Mesui (Cryptocarya massey (Oken) Kosterm.)</i>			

Table 4 above shows 51 ecolexicons of medicinal plants used to treat certain diseases such as myopic eyes, fainting (unconsciousness), fever and restlessness, hot spine, and stomach. Uniquely, application of this medicine must be accompanied by a spell, for example the medicinal plants at no. 1-10 applied to the diseased area while chanting the mantra.

TABLE 5
CATEGORY OF DISEASES CAUSED BY SPIRITS

No	Ecolexicon of Medical plants in Balinese	Functions/usability specifications	Symptoms/local disease	How to use
1	<i>Kulit pohon kalumdahan</i>	<i>Kena desti</i> (Spirit disorder medicine)	The pain stabs all around the body	Mash all the ingredients, then apply all over the body
2	<i>Kulit pojon satumpur</i>			
3	<i>Akar waduri pinge (pohon bunga)</i>			
4	<i>Akar kamarunggi</i>			
5	<i>Cangkem butuh</i>			
6	<i>Derekan temukus</i>			
7	<i>Sida wayah</i>			
8	<i>Tanduk kambing</i>	Medicine keeps the souls of babies who are stricken with disease	-	image of goat horns. Then, put on a sick baby. As a result, all the creatures and all the demons and black magic disappeared. For offering: <i>canang 1, daksina 1, uang 777</i> .

As explained in the previous section, the Balinese believe that disease can also be caused by spirits. Therefore, the Balinese people have medicinal plants that are used to treat these diseases as contained in Table 5 above.

TABLE 6
CATEGORY OF SKIN AND VENEREAL DISEASES

No	Ecolexicon of Medical plants in Balinese	Scientific name	Functions/usability specifications	Symptoms/local disease	How to use
1	<i>Akar pohon tembakau</i>	<i>Nicotiana tabacum</i>	<i>Seksekan</i>	Pee constantly	Peel all the ingredients, then dry it in the sun until it's dry and then boil it and add lump sugar and drink it while it's warm
2	<i>Akar pohon tuung kanji</i>	<i>Solanum melongena</i>			
3	<i>Gula batu</i>	lump sugar			
4	<i>Kelopak bunga kapas tahun</i>	<i>Gossypium herbaceum</i> linn	<i>Rasa talu</i>	If the lower abdomen hurts and is accompanied by gonorrhea, it is rather sticky	Squeeze all the ingredients, add water, then the dregs from the squeezed ingredients are placed on the waist.
5	<i>Daun kuang</i>	<i>Pandanus amaryllifolius</i>			
6	<i>Bawang merah dan adas</i>	<i>Allium cepa</i> L. var. <i>aggregatum</i> , <i>Foeniculum vulgare</i>			
7	<i>Kerokan batok kelapa</i>	-	<i>Berung (Scabies)</i>	-	Chew all the ingredients, then spray on the scabies area
8	<i>Buah pinang yg tua</i>	<i>Areca catechu</i>			
9	<i>Ketumbar</i>	<i>Coriandrum sativum</i>			
10	<i>Lengkuas</i>	<i>Alpinia galanga</i>	<i>Sakit parang</i>	The genitals hurt, spots appear, pus oozes.	Mash all the ingredients then rub on the genitals
11	<i>Buah sirih</i>	<i>Piper betle</i>			
12	<i>Cekuh lanang</i>	<i>Kaempferia galanga</i>			
13	<i>Buah cangurip</i>	-			
14	<i>Isindrong</i>	-			
15	<i>Minyak kletik</i>	-			

Table 6 above shows 15 ecolexicons of medicinal plants used in the treatment of diseases in the category of skin and venereal diseases. Each of these drugs is applied in a different way, for example the ecolexicon of medicinal plants no. 1-3 is used to treat pee constantly. How to use it: peel all the ingredients, then dry it in the sun until it's dry and then boil it and add lump sugar and drink it while it's warm.

TABLE 7
FEET DISEASE CATEGORY

No	Ecolexicon of Medical plants in Balinese	Scientific name	Functions/usability specifications	Symptoms/local disease	How to use
1	<i>Kulit pohon kacemcem</i>	<i>Spondias dulcis</i> L.	<i>Tuju sepang</i>	Legs feel stiff	First, grind the bark of the <i>kacemcem</i> tree, starch eggplant root, wrinkled eggplant root, <i>tri ketuka</i> , 2 flies that land on the pig's feeding place and we <i>werak</i> , then scrub the legs. Both fry 1 clove of garlic in keletik oil then 3 old betel leaves whose veins meet in the picture like in the following photo: Then rubbed 5 days once
2	<i>Akar terung kanji</i>	<i>Solanum melongena</i>			
3	<i>Akar terung keripit</i>	<i>Solanum torvum</i> Sw.			
4	<i>Tri ketuka</i>	<i>Triketuka</i> { <i>Kesuna</i> (<i>Allium sativum</i> L.), <i>Jangu</i> (<i>Acorus calamus</i>), <i>Mesui</i> (<i>Cryptocarya massoy</i> (Oken) Kosterm.)},			
5	<i>2 ekor lalat yang hinggap di palungan (tempat makan babi)</i>	-			
6	<i>We werak (arak bali)</i>	-			
7	<i>Minyak keletik</i>	-			
8	<i>3 lembar daun sirih tua yang uratnya bertemu</i>	<i>Piper betle</i>			
9	<i>1 siung bawang putih tunggal</i>	<i>Allium sativum</i>			

In traditional Balinese medicine, *Balian* does not only use medicinal plants but also uses mantras, offerings, and *rerajahan*: pictures and writing in Balinese script as additional components for treatments (see Eiseman, 1990). In other

words, traditional Balinese medicine always involves other media, such as prayer. Therefore, *Balian* as a traditional healer must have sufficient knowledge, especially mastery of incantation and the ability to mix medicine for his patients.

B. Language Rituals (Mantras) as Treatment in the Form of Prayer

Apart from treatment through concoctions of herbal plants, the Balinese are also familiar with medicinal techniques through incantation or language rituals. Usually, this mantra is performed by *Balian* (Shaman) on people with a certain type of disease (see Atkinson, 1987). The language ritual or treatment in the form of prayer originates from the text “*lontar usada putih*,” written in ancient Balinese. The following data have been interpreted directly by the *Balian*, as described below in several texts based on the type of disease being treated.

Mantra 1

Ong si biang babiang ah, ayah ah telas [Hey mother, you are my mother and you are my father]

Mantra 2

Indah ta kita sang hyang kusta, sakwehing kusta, kusta penyu, kusta empas, kusta lawu, kusta yuyu sakwehing kusta waras dening idu bang waras 3, sidi mantraku [you are the god of leprosy, turtle leprosy, empas leprosy, lawu leprosy, yuyu leprosy, all types of leprosy can be cured with betel leaf water, my mantra works].

Mantra 3

Ong Sang Hyang Siwa Raditya, sire uriping sarira uriping bayu sabda idep mreta sanjiwani ne namah [God, who has the title Siwa Raditya, who gives life to humans in the form of energy, voice, thoughts and gives welfare to all living things].

Mantra 4

Ong Sah Lara, Sah Roga Sah Saluiring Wisya Ngawa, Wisyan Manusa, Teke Purna Waras [God removes the misery in man so that it becomes perfect].

Mantra 5

Ih nini batara durga, ingsun aminta tambakena tuju, tuju nyanyati, tuju pamali, pulung roja pulung kapanda, sira andadening manusa, anguripaken jatma manusane sianu, ana panambana batari, saji sega sanga iwaknya buktine den atrepi [Goddess Durga, I ask to be treated for bone disease, nyanyati bone pain, pemali bone pain, headaches, which are in the human body. I begged Goddess Durga to be healed. I offer offerings of 9 counters so that those who are sick can recover].

Mantra 6

Ong Ratu Manca ya ngawe pamali, aku manggawe ratu manca ya, aku I dukuh putih, guruning sarwa jagat muksah kita pamali sasab mulih alih memen ibe sesep ati jejeron babunta poma [There are five elements that make Pemali, I am the leader of all Pemali, I am Dukuh Putih, I am the ruler of the world of Pemali, all of you Pemali will be destroyed, return to your realm, eat your mother's liver and organs].

Mantra 7

Ong lara teka saking tan hana, Ong lara teka saking sunya, muksah saking sunya, Ong lara teka saking namu-namu muksah saking namu-namu, Ong lara teka saking pertwi, muksah ilang rep sirep waras si anu, sidimantranku [if there is a disease from nothing to exist, so does a disease from the unseen realm that returns to your nature, so does an unknown illness, it disappears. Give that person life and healing].

Mantra 8

Rasa enreta kang sarira wisya emreta kang sarira, sinamah swaha [All the pain that exists in the human body becomes life].

Mantra 9

ong kaki manik, kinon sang roja wisesa, anurunana rare, den sidi, den enggal telas [Science center, so that this knowledge can be passed on to their children so they can be caught quickly].

Mantra 10

Ong syah mega, syah mendung, ilang kelilipan lara ne tra kiwa tengen, ah 3, sidi mantranku [Dispel the darkness, disappear in the twinkling of an eye, my mantra works].

All mantras (1-10) are obtained from *Balian* (shaman) via interview on 13 December 2023.

V. DISCUSSION

A. Classification of Ecolexicons of Medicinal Plants Found in Lontar Usada

The term ethnomedicinal plants in Balinese consists of two elements, similar to rules for naming plants. In this case, the first element is the generic/genus name, and the next modifies the name by describing its characteristics, functioning as the adjective of the adjective phrase. These characteristics are usually color, shape, location, smell and gender, as shown in Table 8 below.

TABLE 8
CLASSIFICATION OF LEXICONS OF MEDICINAL PLANTS FOUND IN LONTAR USADA

No	Ecolexicon of Medical plants in Balinese	Latin/family name	Modifying element	Classification
1	<i>Akar belimbing besi putih</i>	<i>Averrhoa bilimbi</i>	Besi 'iron', putih 'white'	Color
2	<i>Akar jerungga putih</i>	<i>Citrus grandis</i>	Putih 'white'	
3	<i>Ketan merah</i>	<i>Oryza sativa</i> L. Var. <i>Glutinosa</i>	Merah 'red'	
4	<i>Selasih harum</i>	<i>Ocimum</i>	Harum 'fragrant'	Smell
5	<i>Akar baliqa harum</i>	-	Harum 'fragrant'	
6	<i>Sumanggi gunung</i>	<i>Hydrocotyle sibthorpioides</i>	Gunung 'mountain'	Shape
7	<i>Montong isen (ujung lengkuas)</i>	<i>Alpinia galanga</i>	Montong 'muzzle'	
8	<i>Jeruk Bali</i>		Bali 'Bali island'	
9	<i>Don dapdap wong</i>	<i>Erytherina variegata</i>	Wong 'human'	
10	<i>Rerambutan pule</i>	<i>Alstonia scholaris</i>	Rerambutan 'hair'	
11	<i>Ketumbar bebolong</i>	<i>Coriandrum sativum</i>	Bebolong 'hole'	
12	<i>Kesuna tunggal</i>	<i>Allium sativum</i>	Tunggal 'single'	
13	<i>Kemiri lanang</i>	<i>Aleurites moluccanus</i>	Lanang 'male'	Sex
14	<i>Akar hawa beringin</i>	<i>Ficus benjamina</i>	Hawa 'female'	
15	<i>Akar hawa cangqinq</i>	<i>Erythrina ovalifolia</i> Roxb.	Hawa 'female'	
16	<i>Cekuh lanang</i>	<i>Kaempferia galanga</i>	Lanang 'male'	

Thus, for example term (1) *akar belimbing besi putih* consists of *akar* 'root of a tree' and its colour: *putih*, 'white'; (2) *akar jerungga putih* consists of *akar* 'root of a tree', and the colour, *putih* 'white'; and (3) consist of the plant name, *ketan*, and *merah* 'red'. In medicinal plants can reflect the smell of the plant, consisting of the name of the tree (4) basil and fragrant. Basil is a type of tree and fragrant is a fragrant smell. *Akar baliqa harum* consists of *akar* 'root of a tree' and its smell: *harum*, 'fragrant'. The sex of the plant is important for medicinal purposes, this is specified, as in examples 13 and 14; 15 and 16. Term (6) *sumanggi gunung* consists of *sumanggi* 'clover' and a shape of *gunung* 'mountain'; (9) *don dapdap wong* consists of *don dapdap* 'Erytherina variegata' and a shape, *wong* 'human'.

B. Language Rituals as Treatment in the Form of Mantras

Some of the incantations described above aim to show that Balinese people still rely on traditional medicine. Treatment in the form of mantras still exists today (see Satrianegara et al., 2021). It is based on the belief of the Balinese people that all diseases can occur not only naturally (diagnosable medical diseases) but also caused by evil spirits, non-medical ones that medical devices cannot detect, (cf. Tsing, 1988). Therefore, special prayers are needed to treat it (Eiseman, 1990). *Balian* uses each incantation based on the type of disease you want to cure, as described below.

1. Mantra 1 intends to treat babies who cries every night.
2. Mantra 2 in treating leprosy
3. In the treatment of fever and restlessness, there is a feeling of unconsciousness, extreme heat in the spine, and in the stomach
4. In treating Tikna kuta merana
5. In treating Sangar tiwang tulang
6. In treating pemali (evil spirit disturbance)
7. In treating kaki lupa (numb feet)
8. In treating missing (melena)
9. Mantras for strong medicine with women who want to have children
10. In treating myopic eyes

In addition to language rituals or treatment in the form of prayer, each treatment has offerings. The Balinese, who are predominantly Hindu, always offer offerings at every prayer. However, the offerings used in this treatment have special criteria or different compositions when used during prayers. The composition of the offerings used is explained as follows based on the type of disease.

1. The offerings for sangar tiwang disease are rice 1 plate of processed pork, cooked and raw, offered at the cremation site, at night ask Sang Hyang Durga for life.
2. Offerings for medicine to protect the souls of babies suffering from diseases, namely canang 1, daksina 1, uang 777.

C. The Ecosophy of Lontar Usada Putih of Balinese Community

Socio-Culture Values

The system of traditional medicine in Indonesia has developed since ancient times and developed in each region,

including Bali. Balinese *Lontar usada* is not only physical evidence of traditional medicine but also evidence of the interrelationship of Balinese speakers with their language environment, language ecology (see Mbete & Genua, 2017). In other words, Balinese *lontar usada* is an ecotext that contains systems of medicine, medicinal ingredients and traditional healing methods that have meaning and an important position in the repertoire of traditional medicine in Bali.

In this study, social, cultural, and religious values are contained in the *lontar usada* texts. Religiously, *lontar usada* is a reflection of how Hindus in Bali believe that getting sick is Shang Hyang Widhi's will, as much as they believe that *usada* treatment is also a manifestation of Shang Hyang Widhi's greatness who can cure various types of diseases (see Singh et al., 2021). It is proved by ceremonies or rituals that are part of the technique of treating or healing psychological diseases, abstract diseases and diseases related to the social and bio-culture of Hindu society. According to Arsana et al. (2020), the Balinese believe that health and disease occur due to a combination of *shtula sarira-suksma* and *sarira-antah karana sarira* (balance between body, mind, and soul). Then, regarding social function and culture, traditional *usada* medicine is a tradition (hereditary) and local wisdom of the Balinese people who uphold Hindu religious values. In addition, the relationship between Balinese *lontar usada* with the environment and medicinal plants is in line with the phrase "Kembali ke Alam", which means returning to the nature to maintain the harmony with nature (Asmiwyati et al. 2015). Thus, preserving natural resources can develop cultural values regarding plants that can be used as traditional medicinal ingredients.

VI. CONCLUSION

In conclusion, *lontar usada* is not only a documentation of traditional medicinal recipes but as proof that the Balinese have always known nature-based medicine. Traditionally, the beginning of medical research came from traditional medicine. Therefore, local wisdom, such as traditional medicine, should be preserved (see Sujarwo et al., 2016). In this study, some of the treatments for *usada putih* ejection have been proven by medical research. In *lontar usada putih*, there are various ways to treat illnesses, from medical and non-medical diseases (diseases caused by evil spirits). Medical diseases are dominated by colds, coughs, myopic eyes, difficulty defecating, swollen feet, leprosy, etc. (see Foucault, 2003). Meanwhile, from non-medical diseases, there are diseases such as *pemali* (Disturbances by evil, ghost and other spirits), *sakit penjaga bayi* (Babies disturbed by spirits). Thus, the relationship between language and the environment, and conversely, the environment and language are very close and cannot be separated (see Alexander & Stibbe, 2014; Utami, 2017). It can be seen from application of mantras, rituals (*upakara*), offerings, and medical plants.

REFERENCES

- [1] Ackerley, B. (2019). Losing Paradise? *New Scientist*, 244(3259), 28–29. doi:10.1016/s0262-4079(19)32314-0
- [2] Alexander, R., & Stibbe, A. (2014). From the analysis of ecological discourse to the ecological analysis of discourse. *Language Sciences*, 41, 104–110. doi:10.1016/j.langsci.2013.08.011
- [3] Arias, K. M. (2015). *Investigasi dan Pengendalian Wabah di Fasilitas Pelayanan Kesehatan* [Investigation and Control of Outbreaks in Health Care Facilities]. Jakarta: EGC.
- [4] Arini, L. A. (2020). Penerapan Asuhan Kebidanan Secara Holistik berbasis Tri Hita Karana di Pelayanan Kesehatan Tingkat Dasar [Implementation of Holistic Midwifery Care based on Tri Hita Karana in Basic Level Health Services]. *Jurnal Kesehatan Midwinerslion*, 5(1), 47–57. doi:doi.org/10.52073/midwinerslion.v5i1.132
- [5] Arsana, I. N., Sudiartawan, I. P., Sudaryati, N. L. G., Wirasuta, I. M. A. G., Armita, P. M. N., Warditiani, N. K., ... Suta, I. B. P. (2020). Traditional Balinese Medicine Usadha Tiwang. *Jurnal Bali Membangun Bali*, 1(2), 111–124.
- [6] Asmiwyati, I. G. A. A. R., Mahendra, M. S., Arifin, N. H. S., & Ichinose, T. (2015). Recognizing Indigenous Knowledge on Agricultural Landscape in Bali for Micro Climate and Environment Control. *Procedia Environmental Sciences*, 28(Sustain), 623–629. doi:10.1016/j.proenv.2015.07.073
- [7] Atkinson, J. M. (1987). The Effectiveness of Shamans in an Indonesian Ritual. *American Anthropologist*, 89(2), 342–355. doi:10.1525/aa.1987.89.2.02a00040
- [8] Bhandesa, A. M., Sutrisna, I. P. G., & Susanta, I. P. A. E. (2021). Lontar Usada Cukildaki: Kajian Teologi dan Pendidikan Kesehatan Pada Masyarakat Hindu di Bali [Lontar Usada Cukildaki: Study of Theology and Health Education in Hindu Society in Bali]. In *Jnanasiddhanta: Jurnal Prodi Teologi Hindu* (Vol. 2, pp. 115–123). Singaraja: Prodi Teologi Hindu.
- [9] BPS Provinsi Bali. (2010). *Bali dalam Angka* [Bali in Figure 2010]. Denpasar: BPS Provinsi Bali.
- [10] Chen, S. (2016). Language and Ecology: A content Analysis of Ecolinguistics as an Emerging Research Field. *Amperand*, 3(June), 108–116. doi:10.1016/j.amper.2016.06.002
- [11] Chomsky, N. (2006). *Language and Mind* (3rd ed.). Cambridge: Cambridge University Press. doi:10.1017/CBO9781107415324.004
- [12] Cowley, S. J. (2021). Ecolinguistics Reunited: Rewilding the Territory. *Journal of World Languages*, 7(3), 405–427. doi:10.1515/jwl-2021-0025
- [13] Eiseman, F. B. (1990). *Bali: Sekala & Niskala*. Singapore: Tuttle Publishing.
- [14] Eliasson, S. (2015). The Birth of Language Ecology: Interdisciplinary Influences in Einar Haugen's 'The ecology of language'. *Language Sciences*, 50(April), 78–92. doi:10.1016/j.langsci.2015.03.007
- [15] Fill, A. F., & Penz, H. (2018). *The Routledge Handbook of Ecolinguistics*. New York: Routledge Taylor & Francis Group. doi:10.4324/9781315687391
- [16] Fill, A., & Steffensen, S. V. (2014). Editorial: The Ecology of Language and the Ecology of Science. *Language Sciences*, 41(February), 1–5. doi:10.1016/j.langsci.2013.08.002
- [17] Fodum, E. P. (1971). *Fundamentals of Ecology* (3rd ed). London: W.B. Saunders company.

- [18] Foucault, M. (2003). *The Birth of the Clinic: An Archaeology of Medical Perception*. France: Routledge.
- [19] Gaho, R. (2022). The Existence of Fauna Lexicons in the Elefu's Song Lyrics: Ecolinguistics Study. *Indonesian Ecolinguistics Journal*, 1(1), 38–43.
- [20] Goatly, A. (1996). Green grammar and grammatical metaphor, or language and the myth of power, or metaphors we die by. *Journal of Pragmatics*, 25(4), 537–560. doi:10.1016/0378-2166(95)00057-7
- [21] Hanum, S. F. (2011). Pemanfaatan Tanaman Obat Lontar Usada di Kabupaten Gianyar Bali [Utilization of Lontar Usada Medicinal Plants in Gianyar Regency, Bali]. *Wisata Kebun Raya*, 11(1), 28–33.
- [22] Hasheminasab, K. S., & Fakhari, A. R. (2013). Development and Application of Carbon Nanotubes Assisted Electromembrane Extraction (CNTs/EME) for the Determination of Buprenorphine as a Model of Basic Drugs from Urine Samples. *Analytica Chimica Acta*, 767(March), 75–80. doi:10.1016/j.aca.2012.12.046
- [23] Haugen, E. (1972). *The Ecology of Language*. Stanford University Press.
- [24] Haugen, Einar. (1966). *Language Conflict and Language Planning: The Case of Modern Norwegian*. Cambridge: Harvard University Press. doi:10.1002/9781405166256.ch17
- [25] Jirnaya, I. K. (2017). *Lontar Usada Buduh: Sebuah Penanganan dan Pengobatan Tradisional Sakit Gila Berbasis Kearifan Lokal Bali* [Lontar Usada Buduh: A Traditional Treatment and Treatment for Insanity Based on Local Balinese Wisdom]. Denpasar: Udayana University Press.
- [26] Kalangie, S. N. (1994). *Kebudayaan dan Kesehatan: Pengembangan Pelayanan Kesehatan Primer Melalui Pendekatan Sosiobudaya*. Jakarta: PT Kesaint Blanc Indah Corp.
- [27] Khotimah, K., Laksono, K., Suhartono, S., Pairin, U., & Darni, D. (2021). Lingual Expressions in the Covid-19-Related Ecolixicons in Indonesian Online-Media Coverage. *Journal of Language and Linguistic Studies*, 17(1), 309–326. doi:10.52462/jlls.19
- [28] Krebs, C. J. (1999). *Ecological Methodology* (Second edi). California: Benjamin/Cummings.
- [29] Kumbara, A. A. N. A. (2010). *Sistem Pengobatan Usada Bali* [Usada Balinese Treatment System]. Retrieved 3 January 2023, from <https://phdi.or.id/artikel.php?id=sistem-pengobatan-usada-bali-2>
- [30] Li, J., Steffensen, S. V., & Huang, G. (2020). Rethinking Ecolinguistics from A Distributed Language Perspective. *Language Sciences*, 80, 1–12. doi:10.1016/j.langsci.2020.101277
- [31] Li, X., Liang, H., Wu, J., Wang, J., Sun, M., Semiromi, D., ... Kang, Y. (2023). Investigation of Herbal Plant Medicines Baishouwu on the Mechanism of the Digestion of Body: A Review. *Journal of Functional Foods*, 100(December), 1–9. doi:10.1016/j.jff.2022.105379
- [32] Luardini, M. A., Asi, N., & Garner, M. (2019). Ecolinguistics of ethno-medicinal plants of the Dayak Ngaju community. *Language Sciences*, 74(April), 77–84. doi:10.1016/j.langsci.2019.04.003
- [33] Mbete, A. M. (2013). *Penuntun Singkat Penulisan Proposal Penelitian Ekolinguistik* [A Short Guide to Writing an Ecolinguistic Research Proposal]. Denpasar: Penerbit Vidia.
- [34] Mbete, A. M., & Genua, V. (2017). Ekoleksikon dan Ekoteks sebagai Modal Pendidikan Karakter dan Ekonomi Kreatif Berbasis Lingkungan [Ecolixicon and Ecotext as Capital for Character Education and Environmentally Based Creative Economy]. In *Seminar dan Lokakarya Nasional: Pendidikan Berbasis Lingkungan Lokal, Nasional, dan Global* Diselenggarakan oleh Pemerintah Kabupaten Lembata (pp. 1–17). Nusa Tenggara Timur.
- [35] McCauley, A. P. (1988). Healing Texts and Healing Techniques in Indigenous Balinese Medicine. *Social Science and Medicine*, 27(8), 779–787. doi:10.1016/0277-9536(88)90230-4
- [36] Mu'jizah. (2016). Naskah Usada sebagai Kearifan Lokal Masyarakat Bali [Usada Manuscripts as Local Wisdom of the Balinese People]. *DIALEKTIKA: Jurnal Bahasa, Sastra, Dan Pendidikan Bahasa Dan Sastra Indonesia*, 3(2), 191–200.
- [37] Nala, N. (1992). *Usada Bali*. Bali: Upada Sastra.
- [38] Ndruru, M., & Umiyati, M. (2017). Metaphorical Lexicon in Maena Lyrics of Wedding in Nias: Ecolinguistics Study. *Retorika: Jurnal Ilmu Bahasa*, 3(2), 1–7.
- [39] Parker, L. (2004). *From Subjects to Citizens: Balinese Villagers in the Indonesian Nation-State*. Copenhagen: Nias Press. doi:10.4324/9780203484678
- [40] Penz, H., & Fill, A. (2022). Ecolinguistics: History, Today, and Tomorrow. *Journal of World Languages*, 8(2), 232–253. doi:10.1515/jwl-2022-0008
- [41] *Peraturan Gubernur Bali No. 55 Tahun 2019 tentang Pelayanan Kesehatan Tradisional Bali* [Governor of Bali Regulation No. 55 of 2019 concerning Traditional Balinese Health Services].
- [42] Pool, R., & Geissler, W. (2005). *Medical Anthropology*. New York: Open University Press.
- [43] Sa'roni. (2012). Ramuan Obat Tradisional Battrra di Bali Untuk Obat Keluhan pada Sistem Sirkulasi dan Pernapasan [Battrra Traditional Medicinal Concoctions in Bali for Complaints in the Circulatory and Respiratory Systems]. *Media Litbang Kesehatan*, 19(1), 33–41.
- [44] Samadhi, T. N. (2004). Making Cosmo-Religious Landscapes: The Design of a Balinese Town's Civic Center (Bali, Indonesia). *Habitat International*, 28(1), 103–122. doi:10.1016/S0197-3975(03)00032-8
- [45] Sapir, E. (1912). Language and Environment. *American Anthropologist*, 14(2), 226–242. doi:https://doi.org/10.1525/aa.1912.14.2.02a00020
- [46] Sapir, E. (1924). *Language: An Introduction to the Study of Speech*. The Modern Language Review. New York: Harcourt, Brace And Company. doi:10.2307/3713880
- [47] Satrianegara, M. F., Juhannis, H., Lagu, A. M. H. R., Habibi, Sukfitrianty, & Alam, S. (2021). Cultural Traditional and Special Rituals Related to the Health in Bugis Ethnic Indonesia. *Gaceta Sanitaria*, 35(December), S56–S58. doi:10.1016/j.gaceta.2020.12.016
- [48] Shan, L., Liu, R.-H., Shen, Y.-H., Zhang, W.-D., Zhang, C., Wu, D.-Z., ... Xu, X.-K. (2023). Investigation of herbal plant medicines Baishouwu on the mechanism of the digestion of body: A review. *Journal of Functional Foods*, 100(August), 105379. doi:10.1016/j.jff.2022.105379
- [49] Singh, M., Kaptchuk, T. J., & Henrich, J. (2021). Small Gods, Rituals, and Cooperation: The Mentawai Water Spirit Sikameinan.

- Evolution and Human Behavior*, 42(1), 61–72. doi:10.1016/j.evolhumbehav.2020.07.008
- [50] Steffensen, S. V., & Fill, A. (2014). Ecolinguistics: The state of the art and future horizons. *Language Sciences*, 41, 6–25. doi:10.1016/j.langsci.2013.08.003
- [51] Stibbe, A. (2012). *Animals Erased: Discourse, Ecology, and Reconnection with the Natural World*. Middletown: Wesleyan University Press.
- [52] Stibbe, A. (2014). An Ecolinguistic Approach to Critical Discourse Studies. *Critical Discourse Studies*, 11(1), 117–128. doi:10.1080/17405904.2013.845789
- [53] Stibbe, A. (2015). *Ecolinguistics: Language, Ecology and the Stories We Live By*. London: Routledge.
- [54] Sujarwo, W., Keim, A. P., Caneva, G., Toniolo, C., & Nicoletti, M. (2016). Ethnobotanical uses of neem (*Azadirachta indica* A.Juss.; Meliaceae) leaves in Bali (Indonesia) and the Indian subcontinent in relation with historical background and phytochemical properties. *Journal of Ethnopharmacology*, 189(May), 186–193. doi:10.1016/j.jep.2016.05.014
- [55] Sujarwo, W., Keim, A. P., Savo, V., Guarrera, P. M., & Caneva, G. (2015). Ethnobotanical Study of Loloh: Traditional Herbal Drinks from Bali (Indonesia). *Journal of Ethnopharmacology*, 169(July), 34–48. doi:10.1016/j.jep.2015.03.079
- [56] Sukantra, I. M. (1992). *Bidang Istilah Pengobatan Tradisional Bali (Usada)*. Bali: PT Upada Sastra.
- [57] Sutomo, & Iryadi, R. (2019). Konservasi Tumbuhan Obat Tradisional “Usada Bali” [Conservation of Traditional Medicinal Plants “Usada Bali”]. *Buletin Udayana Mengabdi*, 18(4), 58–63. doi:10.24843/BUM.2019.v18.i04.p11
- [58] Timmreck, T. C. (2005). *Epidemiologi Suatu Pengantar* [Epidemiology An Introduction]. Jakarta: Penerbit Buku EGC.
- [59] Tsing, A. L. (1988). Healing Boundaries in South Kalimantan. *Social Science and Medicine*, 27(8), 829–839. doi:10.1016/0277-9536(88)90235-3
- [60] Umiyati, M. (2023). Lexicon Distinctiveness Used in ‘Awig-Awig’ Text in Tenganan Village Bali: An Ecolinguistics Study. *Theory and Practice in Language Studies*, 13(4), 1065–1075. doi:10.17507/tpls.1304.29
- [61] Utami, G. W. N. (2017). Relasi Makna Leksikon Tiing dalam Bahasa Bali Berbasis Lingkungan [The Relationship of the Meanings of the Tiing Lexicon in the Environmentally Based Balinese Language]. *Litera Jurnal Bahasa Dan Sastra* 2017, 3(1), 67–77.
- [62] Wardana, W., & Sudira, P. (1999). Penerapan Tri Hita Karana dalam Perancangan, Pembangunan serta Operasi dan Pemeliharaan Jaringan Irigasi Subak [Application of Tri Hita Karana in Design, Construction and Operation and Maintenance of the Subak Irrigation Network]. *AgriTECH*, 19(2), 59–65. doi:10.22146/agritech.22362



I Wayan Suardiana is a lecturer in the Balinese Literature department. He was born on January 13, 1966 in Kelating, Kerambitan, Tabanan. In 1991, he completed his Bachelor degree at the Department of Balinese Literature, Udayana University and obtained his Master’s degree at the Department of Philology, Padjadjaran University, Bandung in 1999. In 2010, he completed his Doctoral degree in the field of Literary Discourse at Udayana University. Currently trusted as Coordinator of the Master of Cultural Studies Study Program (2023-2016). Some of his published works are *Crita Manyrita Sajeroning Caseastraan Bali Purwa* published by Cakra Press, 2011; *Pantaraning Bali: Wacana-wacana Kritis Indik Budaya Bali* [Pantaraning Bali: Critical Discourses on Balinese Indic Culture] published in Pustaka Larasan, 2016; *Membangun Jiwa Entrepreneurship di Kalangan Mahasiswa Sastra Bali* [Building a Spirit of Entrepreneurship among Balinese Literature Students] published by Swasta Nulus 2018; *Alih Aksara Geguritan I Ketut Bagus* [Transfer of Geguritan I Ketut Bagus Literacy] published by Perpunas Press, 2019; “Kidung Interaktif” Seni Magegitan Lewat Radio di Buleleng [“Interactive Song” of Magegitan Art via Radio in Buleleng] published by Swasta Nulus 2020; and Keterbacaan dan Resepsi Teks *Geguritan I Gedé Basur* dan *I Ketut Bungklung Karya Ki Dalang Tangsub* [Readability and Reception of the Geguritan Text I Gedé Basur and I Ketut Bungklung by Ki Dalang Tangsub] published by Perpunas Press, 2022. He can be contacted via email: i.suardiana@unud.ac.id



I Made Dwika Hadinata was born in Kapal, 10 April 1998. He continued his master degree in Linguistics Department, Warmadewa University, Bali. His several research works have been published namely “Influence of Learning Motivation on Students Speaking English Results at Eight-B Grade of SMK Taruna Warmadewa”, which was published in the ‘International Linguistics and Tesol’ and the proceeding article (2021). Then, “Code Mixing Used in Instagram Account’s Vj. Daniel” published at the 1st International Student Conference on Linguistics: Trends and Future Perspectives in Linguistics Study (2023). He can be contacted via email: dwikahadinata@gmail.com



Rahmat Gaho is a scientific article editor. He obtained his master’s degree in Department of Linguistics, Warmadewa University, Bali. His several recent works namely “A Bibliometric Analysis of Publication on Novel as Literacy Source,” published in *Journal of Language Teaching and Research* (2024). Then, “Good Morning, Fokoamau”: An Analysis of the Addressing Terms in Pancana Language” published in the *Theory and Practice in Language Studies* (2023). The last, “Linguistics Landscape: A theoretical review,” published by KnE Publishing (2022). He can be contacted with email: rahmatgaho27des@gmail.com



Anak Agung Gde Alit Geria is a lecturer at the Faculty of Teacher Training and Education, University of PGRI Mahadewa Indonesia. He was born in Br. Petak, Petak Kaja Village, Gianyar, Bali on April, 21th 1963. He has worked in the Manuscript section at the National Library of Indonesia, Jakarta in 1990-1996, as well as an Extraordinary Lecturer at the Faculty of Literature, University of Indonesia, Jakarta. Previously, he worked at the Bali Provincial Library and at the *Art Center* in 1997-2006. Since 2006, he became lecturer at Faculty of Teacher Training and Education, University of PGRI Mahadewa Indonesia. He teaches Manuscript Studies at the Postgraduate Study Program of Religious Literature and Balinese Language Education at UHN IGB Sugriwa Denpasar since 2013. In the midst of his activities as a lecturer, he also active in writing and working in the field of manuscript as well as attending scientific meeting both nationally and internationally.



I Made Budiassa was born in Tabanan, 17 July 1963. He completed his Master's degree at the Faculty of Humanities, Udayana University (2001) with expertise in oral literature. He actively participates in various national and international seminars, both as a participant and presenter. Get involved in scientific research (a) *Preservasi Subak Melalui Penguatan Awig-awig dan Pararem Subak* [Subak Preservation Through Strengthening Awig-awig and Pararem Subak] (2022) and *Pengobatan Tradisional Bali untuk Anak Usia Dini: Kajian Teks Usada* [Traditional Balinese Medicine for Early Childhood: Study of Usada Texts] (2023). Several articles in the journal: Spiritual leadership of king Waturenggong: A Semiotic Study of the Naga Banda Mytos (2023), Religious Belonging and Sense of Self in Hindu Education: The Role of Teachers' Dynamic Approaches and Students' Socioeconomic Status (2023), Investigate Magic Treatment Systems Against Sempengot and

Bebai Diseases in Bali: Mantra, Medium, Techniques and the Days Invention of Healin (2023), Interpreting Unen-Unen Semut Ireng Calf with an Intertext Approach (Book Chapter, 2023), Conservation of Subak to Promote Sustainable Development and Improve the Wellbeing of Bali's Farmers (2023). Working Agency of the National Research and Innovation Agency (BRIN). Office address: Jalan Raya Sesetan No. 80 Denpasar 80223, Bali. He can be contacted via phone number: +6287701792195 and email: imad019@brin.go.id

The Relationship Between Students' L2 Engagement and Learning Success

Ibrahim H. Alzahrani

Jubail English Language and Preparatory Year Institute, Royal Commission for Jubail and Yanbu, Jubail, Saudi Arabia

Abstract—Engagement is a crucial part of language learning as it shows how much a learner is involved in the learning process. Language learning with engagement is considered meaningful. This study measured Saudi male college EFL students' L2 engagement levels while learning English as a foreign language in their preparatory year. The relationship between students' scores in the English course and their L2 engagement was also discovered. An L2 engagement scale with three engagement domains (behavioral, emotional, and cognitive) created by Hiver et al. (2020) was utilized to measure students' L2 engagement levels. Pearson correlation was administered to explore the relationship between students' learning success (scores) and L2 engagement. The results indicated high behavioral, emotional, and cognitive engagement levels. In addition, the results showed a statistically significant positive relationship between students' scores and their L2 engagement. Implications for educational establishments and language teachers were presented, as well as the impact on future research and limitations.

Index Terms—EFL learners, L2 engagement scales, L2 learning engagement, learning success

I. INTRODUCTION

As English language teachers, we always notice individual differences between our students and how they vary in terms of interaction, participation, interest in activities and homework, and desire for language learning. This variation among students might be attributed to the level of foreign or second (L2) language learning engagement. According to Barkley (2010, p. xi), "For many of us teaching today, competing for the attention of our students and engaging them in meaningful learning is a profound and ongoing challenge." Therefore, what language teachers experience in their classrooms concerning their students' actions and attention is a problem in engagement (Hiver et al., 2021). Engagement contributes to learning success and better outcomes (Hattie, 2009). Hiver et al. (2021) emphasize that "there is an explicit awareness that in order to increase learners' L2 development, we must increase learners' engagement" (p. 283). Thus, if we better understand language learning engagement, we might contribute to more engaged students and consequently have students with better language competence.

Though engagement has received attention in different fields, such as mathematics, engineering, and science, engagement in language learning is still in its infancy, as Reschly and Christenson (2012) state. They believe engagement is still a "new kid in the block" (p. 4). This is obvious, particularly in the Saudi context, where very few studies have been conducted that are relevant to L2 engagement. Some scholars, such as Dörnyei (2019) and Philp and Duchsen (2016), call for more investigation into the relationship between engagement and L2 learning. Furthermore, Mercer et al. (2021, p. 146) state that there is still "limited empirical research on learners' engagement in language learning." Therefore, this study aims to contribute to the field with more studies and discover to what extent Saudi college students are engaged in learning English in their English courses. Moreover, it examines the relationship between L2 engagement with its three domains (behavioral, emotional, and cognitive) and students' general scores in one of their preparatory year English courses.

II. LITERATURE REVIEW

Research in L2 engagement started recently at the beginning of this millennium. Dörnyei and Kormos (2000) ignited the flame of L2 engagement by referring to highly involved L2 learners as "engaged" learners. Since then, engagement research has continued due to the recognition of the importance of engagement (Hiver et al., 2021). Sinatra et al. (2015, p. 1) describe engagement as "the holy grail of learning." This has attracted Hiver et al. (2021) to stress that L2 engagement as a new area of research has become an essential topic. Engagement is now "one of the trending topics in both general education and language education" (Oga-Baldwin & Fryer, 2021, p. 225).

One of the early definitions of engagement was by Skinner et al. (2009, p. 225), who defined engagement as "energized, directed, and sustained actions." Lawson and Lawson (2013) included the aspect of action when they view school engagement as "extra-classroom energy in action, observable and measurable in school-sponsored activities and tasks" (p. 439). Philp and Duchesne (2016, p. 51) define engagement as "a state of heightened attention and involvement, in which participation is reflected not only on the cognitive dimension but in social, behavioral, and affective dimensions as well." However, scholars are likely similar in defining engagement; most share the aspects of action, such as Sang and Hiver (2021), Lawson and Lawson (2013), and Skinner et al. (2009), and involvement, such as Dörnyei and Kormos

(2000) and Reeve (2012). This action aspect makes it different from motivation, as Reschly and Christenson (2012) explain that "motivation represents intention and engagement is action" (p. 14). This means motivation starts first, and then engagement takes place. Another important definition of engagement is by Reeve (2012, p. 150), who states that engagement can be "the extent of student's active involvement in a learning activity." In their volume, Hiver et al. (2021, p. 3) define engagement as "a dynamic, multidimensional construct comprising situated notions of cognition, affect and behaviors including social interactions in which action is a requisite component." This last definition is crucial as it refers to the three dimensions of engagement (behavior, emotional or affect, and cognition), as explained below.

Although it is easy to recognize L2 engagement, it is "a notoriously slippery construct" that is always "multidimensional" (Hiver et al., 2021, p. 1). There is no consensus among scholars on what engagement major domains or components are. For example, Fredricks et al. (2004) and Mercer (2019) point out three dimensions of engagement: behavioral, affective, and cognitive, whereas Philip and Duchesne (2016) include four components: behavioral, emotional, cognitive, and social. In her "Engagement with Language (EWL)", Svalberg (2009) suggests three engagement domains: cognitive, affective, and social, while Reeve (2013) referred to four domains of engagement: behavioral, emotional, cognitive, and agentic.

The present study will focus on the three main domains, behavioral, emotional, and cognitive, because they were included in most previous literature and the survey to measure engagement in the present study. Behavioral engagement refers to the quantity and quality of the student's classroom participation and the time spent on a specific task (Reschly & Christenson, 2012). Behavioral engagement indicators include active involvement, persistence, and degree of effort (Philip & Duchesne, 2016).

Emotional or affective engagement refers to "students' affective reactions in the classroom" (Fredricks et al., 2004, p. 63). Positive emotions such as enjoyment, enthusiasm, and anticipation are examples of affective engagement (Reeve, 2012). Positive relationships between students, their peers, and their teachers are other indicators of affective engagement (Mercer, 2015).

Cognitive engagement is maintaining deliberate attention and extending mental efforts to achieve learning goals (Helme & Clarke, 2001). Indicators of cognitive engagement may include exchanging ideas, developing explanations, evaluating opinions, providing further information (Helme & Clarke, 2001), suggesting, reasoning, hesitating, and repeating (Reschly & Christenson, 2012).

Successful L2 learning was attributed to engagement (Oga-Baldwin & Nakata, 2017; Philip & Duchesne, 2016; Svalberg, 2009). Previous studies on language learning engagement refer to a positive relationship between engagement and student performance. In a study on immigrant youth, Suarez-Orozco et al. (2009) found that behavioral engagement strongly predicted academic performance. Hodge et al. (2018) also found a positive relationship between academic productivity, grit, and engagement, where students with higher grit are anticipated to have higher engagement and consequently have better academic productivity. Dincer et al. (2019) explored the relationship between engagement and achievement. The findings of this study indicated that emotional and agentic engagement predicted achievement. In another study, Hamed et al. (2019) found that cognitive, emotional, and behavioral engagement significantly predicted reading comprehension. Keenan et al. (2008) found that whenever engagement in reading a text is successful, reading comprehension will be accomplished.

Similarly, Cheung et al. (2016) identified a possible relationship between reading engagement and learners' reading performance. In another study deploying mobile learning, Chen et al. (2022) found that utilizing the Reading Engagement-Promotion Strategy approach helps improve learners' reading achievement and facilitates the engagement of higher achievers. In another study that investigated the associations between motivation and engagement in language learning from one side and emotional factors, academic achievement, and demographic features from another side, Li et al. (2022) found that motivated and engaged learners gained higher outcomes than demotivated and disengaged learners. However, this positive relationship between engagement and language achievement does not always exist. In a study that investigated the relationship between engagement and language achievement in an online setting, Kiatkeeree and Ruangjaroon (2022) demonstrated no link between online engagement and language achievement. Consequently, more studies are needed to investigate this relationship, which is one of the aims of the present study.

III. METHODOLOGY

This study aims to examine the relationship between L2 engagement and students' language performance among preparatory year college students who were studying in a general English program that includes reading, writing, listening, speaking, vocabulary, and grammar courses where a predictive impact of engagement may likely positively affect students' general performance in the program. In this respect, research in this area is still in its early stages, and there are calls for more research to investigate this relationship (Hiver et al., 2021; Hiver et al., 2024). One reason for this shortage of research can be the lack of a proper measuring instrument that measures engagement, as there is still no consensus among scholars on how to measure engagement appropriately (Zhou et al., 2021). Another reason might be that the field of engagement has not attracted the attention of researchers until recently, as the focus was highly on motivation, as Mercer and Dörnyei (2020) stated. Thus, the present study is trying to contribute to this area, which has not been fully discovered, by trying to answer the following research questions:

- 1) To what extent were learners behaviorally, emotionally, and cognitively engaged in learning English?

2) Is there a relationship between behavioral, emotional, and cognitive engagement and students' learning success?

A. Participants

The sample of the present study consisted of 86 preparatory year college students who were learning English as a foreign language (EFL) in a general English program following the Common European Framework of Reference (CEFR) at Jubail English Language and Preparatory Year Institute (JELPYI) in Saudi Arabia. They attended the preparatory year to gain sufficient English proficiency to enable them to pursue college studies, as English is the medium of instruction after their preparatory year. The respondents were mainly from different levels of English proficiency based on the CEFR, as the sample included A2, B1, and B1+ students. The participants were involved in a quarter learning system where they had to finish their assigned language level in eight weeks and then move to the following upper level if they had successfully passed their assigned level. The participants were introduced to the study, and their participation contests were taken. They were informed that they can draw from the study whenever they like. By the end of the second quarter of the 2022 academic year, a survey link was posted on Blackboard, and the participants were asked to complete it online.

B. Instruments

To assess engagement in its three domains (behavioral, emotional, and cognitive), a recent survey by Hiver et al. (2020) (cited in Zhou et al., 2021) was deployed to measure engagement as there is still a need for more appropriate instruments. This survey consisted of 24 items divided into eight items to measure behavioral engagement (e.g., I participated in all the activities), eight items to measure emotional engagement (e.g., I felt good while I was in the class), and eight items to measure cognitive engagement (e.g., I thought about different ways to solve problems in my work). This survey used a six-point Likert scale where one equals 'Disagree very strongly' and six equals 'Agree very strongly.' The internal reliability in this survey was measured, and Cronbach's alpha showed high reliability ($\alpha = 0.87$).

C. Analysis

To the best of the researcher's knowledge, there is no agreed way to assign L2 engagement in levels with particular numerical order. Therefore, the researcher adopted Fisher's (1992) calculation to decide the number of created subgroups and the separation ratio based on the reliability level (Al-Hoorie & Hiver, 2022). Derived from Fisher (1992), the reliability ($\alpha = 0.87$) of the scale in the present study matches the creation of three subgroups or strata. Therefore, the researcher categorized L2 engagement into low, moderate, and high levels, as shown in Table 1 below.

TABLE 1
L2 ENGAGEMENT LEVELS

Likert Scale	Score	Range	Engagement Level
Disagree very strongly	1	0.00 – 2.00	Low
Disagree strongly	2		
Disagree	3	2.01 – 4.00	Moderate
Agree	4		
Agree strongly	5	4.01 – 6.00	High
Agree very strongly	6		

Their grades measured the participants' language performance at the end of the quarter in which they completed the survey. As Table 2 shows, students' grades in English varied from Excellent (A) to Fail (F).

TABLE 2
STUDENTS' SCORES AND GRADES

Score	Weight	Grade	Code
Below 60	0	Fail	F
60 – 69	1	Pass	D
70 – 79	2	Good	C
80 – 89	3	Very good	B
90 – 100	4	Excellent	A

The L2 engagement scale used in the present study contains 11 reversed items (3 behavioral, four emotional, and four cognitive) to reduce response bias (Suárez-Álvarez et al., 2018). Therefore, before running descriptive statistics and other tests in SPSS, the entries of these reverse-worded items were reverse-coded (i.e., 1 becomes 6, 2 becomes 5, 3 becomes 4, 4 becomes 3, 5 becomes 2, and 6 becomes 1).

Pearson correlation was run to examine the relationship between students' scores and the three domains of engagement (behavioral, emotional, and cognitive) and the relationship between students' scores and general L2 engagement.

IV. RESULTS

A. First Research Question: To What Extent Were Learners Behaviorally, Emotionally, and Cognitively Engaged in Learning English?

Table 3 shows the means and standard deviations of participants' responses on the behavioral engagement items. Participants' behavioral engagement was high in all items under this domain, as the means ranged between $M = 4.04$ and $M = 4.93$. The level of behavioral engagement was high, with an overall mean $M = 4.58$, as Table 3 shows.

TABLE 3
BEHAVIORAL ENGAGEMENT LEVELS

No	Behavioral Engagement Items	Mean	SD	Engagement Level
1	I stayed focused even when it was difficult to understand	4.51	1.37	High
2	I participated in all the activities	4.54	1.20	High
3	I kept trying my best even when it was hard	4.79	1.03	High
4	I continued working until I completed my work	4.93	1.01	High
5	I just pretended like I was working (R)	4.55	1.49	High
6	I didn't participate much in class (R)	4.44	1.60	High
7	I did other things when I was supposed to be paying attention (R)	4.04	1.73	High
8	I paid attention and listened carefully	4.81	1.18	High
Overall		4.58	0.81	High

Participants reported high emotional engagement in six items (2, 3, 4, 5, 7, 8) under this domain; however, they reported moderate emotional engagement in two items (1, 6), as Table 4 shows. The means of high emotional engagement ranged between $M = 4.06$ and $M = 4.98$. On the other hand, the means of moderate emotional engagement ranged between $M = 3.50$ and $M = 3.80$, as shown in Table 4. Emotional engagement was high, with the overall mean reported at $M = 4.39$.

TABLE 4
EMOTIONAL ENGAGEMENT LEVELS

No	Emotional Engagement Items	Mean	SD	Engagement Level
1	I looked forward to the next class	3.50	1.46	Moderate
2	I enjoyed learning new things	4.75	1.35	High
3	I wanted to understand what I was learning	4.98	1.26	High
4	I felt good while I was in the class	4.06	1.46	High
5	I felt frustrated while I was in the class (R)	4.60	1.56	High
6	I found it boring to be in the class (R)	3.80	1.58	Moderate
7	I didn't want to be in the class (R)	4.63	1.53	High
8	I felt that I didn't care about learning (R)	4.82	1.56	High
Overall		4.39	1.04	High

Table 5 shows that participants reported high cognitive engagement in seven items (1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6, 7) and moderate cognitive engagement in only one item (8). The means of high behavioral engagement ranged from $M = 4.04$ to $M = 5.04$. The mean of the only moderate cognitive engagement item was $M = 3.40$, as presented in Table 5. The overall mean of cognitive engagement was $M = 4.41$.

TABLE 5
COGNITIVE ENGAGEMENT LEVELS

No	Cognitive Engagement Items	Mean	SD	Engagement Level
1	I went through my work carefully to make sure it was done right	4.29	1.35	High
2	I thought about different ways to solve problems in my work	4.48	1.34	High
3	I tried to connect new learning to the things I already learned before	5.00	1.06	High
4	I tried to understand my mistakes when I got something wrong	5.04	1.06	High
5	I preferred to be told the answer than do the work (R)	4.04	1.55	High
6	I didn't think too hard while I was doing the work (R)	4.36	1.37	High
7	I only studied the easy parts because the class was hard (R)	4.66	1.46	High
8	I did just enough to get by (R)	3.40	1.72	Moderate
Overall		4.41	0.73	High

Table 6 shows that behavioral engagement was the highest ($M = 4.58$), followed by cognitive engagement ($M = 4.41$) and emotional engagement ($M = 4.39$). Participants reported high engagement levels in all three domains, with an overall high level of L2 engagement ($M = 4.46$).

TABLE 6
OVERALL L2 ENGAGEMENT LEVELS

No	L2 General Engagement	Mean	SD	Engagement Level
1	Behavioral Engagement	4.58	0.81	High
2	Emotional Engagement	4.39	1.04	High
3	Cognitive Engagement	4.41	0.73	High
Overall		4.46	0.70	High

B. Second Research Question: Is There a Relationship Between Behavioral, Emotional, and Cognitive Engagement and Students' Learning Success?

To answer this research question, Pearson Correlation analysis was administered to explore the relationship between students' scores and each engagement domain (behavioral, emotional, cognitive) separately. Then, the relationship between students' scores and the general L2 engagement was deployed. Table 7 below shows descriptive statistics of students' scores.

TABLE 7
STUDENTS' SCORES, MEAN AND STANDARD DEVIATION

	Min	Max	Mean	SD	N
Students' Scores	0	4	2.85	1.18	86

Table 8 below shows a statistically significant positive correlation between students' scores and behavioral engagement ($r = 0.307$, $p = 0.004$). This suggests that students' scores tend to increase as behavioral engagement levels increase.

TABLE 8
CORRELATION BETWEEN STUDENTS' SCORES AND BEHAVIORAL ENGAGEMENT

		Score	Behavioral Engagement
Score	Pearson Correlation	1	0.307**
	Sig. (2-tailed)		0.004
	N	86	86
Behavioral Engagement	Pearson Correlation	0.307**	1
	Sig. (2-tailed)	0.004	
	N	86	86

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

Pearson Correlation analysis presented a positive correlation between students' scores and emotional engagement ($r = 0.070$, $p = 0.521$), as shown in Table 9 below. This means students' scores tend to increase as emotional engagement levels increase. However, the correlation between the two variables is not significant.

TABLE 9
CORRELATION BETWEEN STUDENTS' SCORES AND EMOTIONAL ENGAGEMENT

		Score	Emotional Engagement
Score	Pearson Correlation	1	0.070
	Sig. (2-tailed)		0.521
	N	86	86
Emotional Engagement	Pearson Correlation	0.070	1
	Sig. (2-tailed)	0.521	
	N	86	86

Table 10 below shows a statistically significant correlation between students' scores and cognitive engagement ($r = 0.360$, $p = 0.001$). Therefore, students seem to score higher when they are more cognitively engaged.

TABLE 10
CORRELATION BETWEEN STUDENTS' SCORES AND COGNITIVE ENGAGEMENT

		Score	Cognitive Engagement
Score	Pearson Correlation	1	0.360**
	Sig. (2-tailed)		0.001
	N	86	86
Cognitive Engagement	Pearson Correlation	0.360**	1
	Sig. (2-tailed)	0.001	
	N	86	86

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

The relationship between students' scores and general L2 engagement (behavioral, emotional, and cognitive) is positive and statistically significant ($r = 0.280$, $p = 0.009$), as Table 11 below shows. This indicates that as L2 engagement levels increase, students' scores also tend to increase.

TABLE 11
CORRELATION BETWEEN STUDENTS' SCORES AND GENERAL L2 ENGAGEMENT

		Score	L2 General Engagement
Score	Pearson Correlation	1	0.280**
	Sig. (2-tailed)		0.009
	N	86	86
L2 General Engagement	Pearson Correlation	0.280**	1
	Sig. (2-tailed)	0.009	
	N	86	86

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

V. DISCUSSION

This study aimed to examine the levels of students' L2 engagement and to see if there is any relationship between students' L2 learning success and their L2 engagement based on their scores. The participants reported high levels of behavioral engagement ($M = 4.58$). This finding suggests that learners might utilize their behavioral attention, which enables their understanding of given tasks (Reeve, 2013). This finding is congruent with Oga-Baldwin and Fryer (2021) and Alqarni (2023), where behavioral engagement was reported higher than emotional, cognitive, and agentic engagement, and with Carver et al. (2021), where behavioral engagement was reported higher than cognitive and affective engagement in both face-to-face and synchronous computer-mediated communication groups. This highest level of behavioral engagement in the present study might be attributed to students' perception of the benefit of doing given tasks and participation in the classroom (Philp & Duchesne, 2016). Moreover, learners might gain advantages from their persistence and efforts to learn without distractions (Fredricks et al., 2016) to be highly involved in their L2 learning.

The cognitive engagement level was also high, coming in second place after behavioral engagement with a mean of $M = 4.41$. This finding is similar to Alqarni (2023) and Carver et al. (2021), where the means of cognitive engagement came immediately after the means of behavioral engagement and before the means of emotional (affective) engagement. However, means of cognitive engagement were reported higher than behavioral engagement in other studies, such as Hiver et al. (2020) and Dincer et al. (2019). This high level of cognitive engagement in the present study and other studies is likely attributed to the desire of learners to collaborate in the classroom through presenting additional information, assessing materials and opinions, and exchanging ideas (Helme & Clarke, 2001). Another possible explanation for this high cognitive engagement level in the present study might be linked to learners' active self-regulation strategies facilitating L2 learning (Philp & Duchesne, 2016).

Although emotional engagement came with the least mean ($M = 4.39$), it is still a high level of engagement. Other studies like Khajavy (2021) and Kiatkeeree and Ruangjaroon (2022) showed that emotional engagement surpassed behavioral, cognitive, and social engagement. This high emotional engagement in the present study might be linked to learners' positive feelings toward the L2 classroom, including their teachers and classmates (Mercer, 2015). Additionally, enjoyment, interest, and enthusiasm (Skinner et al., 2009) might be important three factors that might be linked to the participants' high level of emotional engagement in the present study. Learners' encouragement to learn (Baralt et al., 2016) might be another reason for learners' high level of emotional engagement.

The findings of the Pearson Correlation analyses indicated a statistically significant positive correlation between students' learning success (scores) and behavioral engagement ($r = 0.307$, $p = 0.004$). Similarly, a statistically significant positive correlation was found between students' scores and their cognitive engagement ($r = 0.360$, $p = 0.001$). Furthermore, the findings indicated a positive correlation between students' scores and their emotional engagement ($r = 0.070$, $p = 0.521$), but it was insignificant this time. The findings showed a statistically significant and positive correlation between students' scores (learning success) and their general L2 engagement ($r = 0.250$, $p = 0.009$). These findings suggest that general L2 engagement positively and significantly predicts students' learning success. These findings support the results of previous studies such as Suarez-Orozco et al. (2009), Hodge et al. (2018), Dincer et al. (2019), Hamed et al. (2020), and Keenan et al. (2008). These findings of the present study emphasize the essential impact of engagement on students' L2 learning success, presumably reflected in how an L2 should be learned and instructed.

VI. CONCLUSION

The present study attempted to measure L2 engagement levels among Saudi college students learning EFL in their preparatory year. It investigated the relationship between students' learning success and their L2 engagement. Based on the study findings, the following conclusions can be drawn. First, L2 engagement in its three domains (behavioral, emotional, and cognitive) was reported at a high level. Second, a statistically significant and positive relationship was reported between students' learning success (scores) and their L2 general engagement. Thus, it can be claimed that L2 engagement predicts L2 learning success.

A. Implications

Accordingly, some pedagogical implications should be taken into account by stakeholders of teaching English in Saudi and similar contexts. First, since the high behavioral engagement level in the present study might be attributed to learners' concentration while achieving a task, participation in the classroom, and persistence to learn, curriculum designers, besides L2 teachers, have some responsibilities over their shoulders to provide more appropriate materials and tasks that not only enhance learning but also encourage students to participate more and continue their persistence to learn. Second, cognitively engaged students represent activating cognition, an essential part of the learning process. Therefore, L2 teachers are assumed to assist students in taking advantage of this cognitive engagement with no limits. This can be achieved by allowing students to comfortably express themselves and their opinions in the classroom, comment and criticize while discussing a topic, share ideas, and agree or disagree with other ideas or students in a free classroom environment. It is also important to raise students' awareness about using self-regulation strategies and encourage them to utilize such strategies for having more effective L2 learning. This can also be accomplished through integrating strategy instruction programs. Third, evidence of students' positive feelings about their L2 classrooms in the present study was a high level of emotional engagement. Undoubtedly, students' emotions and feelings are indispensable in the learning process. Hence, it is the role of educational establishments, including L2 teachers, to consider this pivotal issue. On the

one hand, teachers should be aware of their students' mental and psychological status to enhance the classroom environment and mood. On the other hand, they should create more comfortable and safe classrooms where students can enjoy learning, encourage students to continue learning in and out of the classroom, motivate students using different incentives to enhance their learning, and talk about students' strengths and positive characteristics in order to assist them continue good learning practices.

B. Limitations

The present study has its limitations. One limitation is that only adult male college students participated, whereas female students were absent due to difficulty reaching them. If female students were among the participants, this might contribute to the findings. Thus, it would be beneficial if another study investigated L2 engagement in the same context, including both female and male students. The sample size is another limitation of the present study, where only few students took part in this quantitative study. The results of the present study cannot be generalizable since many aspects of students' engagement need to be discovered through qualitative data. Future studies should mix methods to collect data about L2 engagement and hopefully provide comprehensive explanations. L2 engagement lacks a unified or agreed scale to measure engagement, as many researchers used or created different scales. It would be a good idea if future research makes a consensus on a well-designed scale to measure L2 engagement, agree on engagement domains included, and categorize L2 engagement levels.

REFERENCES

- [1] Al-Hoorie, A. H., Hiver, P. (2022). Complexity theory: From metaphors to methodological advances. In A. H. Al-Hoorie & F. Szabó (Eds.), *Researching language learning motivation: A concise guide* (pp. 175-184). Bloomsbury.
- [2] Alqarni, N. (2023). Language learning strategies and learning engagement as predictors of language learning achievement: An investigation of Saudi EFL learners. *Saudi Journal of Language Studies*, 3(3), 129–143. <https://doi.org/10.1108/SJLS-12-2022-0084>
- [3] Baralt, M., Gurzynski-Weiss, L., & Kim, Y. (2016). Engagement with language: How examining learners' affective and social engagement explains successful learner-generated attention to form. In M. Sato, & S. Ballinger (Eds.), *Peer interaction and second language learning. Pedagogical potential and research agenda* (pp. 209–240). John Benjamins.
- [4] Barkley, E. (2010). *Student engagement techniques: A handbook for college faculty*. Jossey-Bass.
- [5] Chen, M. R. A., Hwang, G. J., Lin, Y. H., Abou-Khalil, V., Li, H., & Ogata, H. (2022). A reading engagement-promoting strategy to facilitate EFL students' mobile learning achievement, behaviour and engagement. *International Journal of Mobile Learning and Organisation*, 16(4), 489-506. <https://doi.org/10.1504/IJMLO.2022.125968>
- [6] Cheung, K. C., Mak, S. K., Sit, P. S., & Soh, K. C. (2016). A typology of student reading engagement: Preparing for response to intervention in the school curriculum. *Studies in Educational Evaluation*, 48, 32–42. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.stueduc.2015.12.001>
- [7] Carver, C., Jung, D. & Gurzynski-Weiss, L. (2021). Examining learner engagement in relationship to learning and communication mode. In P. Hiver, A. H. Al-Hoorie & S. Mercer (Eds.), *Student engagement in the language classroom* (pp. 120–142). Multilingual Matters. <https://doi.org/10.21832/9781788923613-010>
- [8] Dincer, A., Yeşilyurt, S., Noels, K. A., & Vargas Lascano, D. I. (2019). Self-Determination and classroom engagement of EFL learners: A mixed-methods study of the self-system model of motivational development. *Sage Open*, 9(2). <https://doi.org/10.1177/2158244019853913>
- [9] Dörnyei, Z. (2019). Towards a better understanding of the L2 learning experience, the Cinderella of the L2 motivational self-system. *Studies in Second Language Learning and Teaching*, 9(1), 21–32. <https://doi.org/10.14746/ssllt.2019.9.1.2>
- [10] Dörnyei, Z., & Kormos, J. (2000). The role of individual and social variables in oral task performance. *Language Teaching Research*, 4(3), 275–300.
- [11] Fisher, W. (1992). Reliability, separation, strata statistics. *Rasch Measurement Transactions*, 6(3), 238. Retrieved March 15, 2024, from <https://www.rasch.org/rmt/rmt63i.htm>
- [12] Fredricks, J. A., Blumenfeld, P., & Paris, A. (2004). School engagement: Potential of the concept, state of the evidence. *Review of Educational Research*, 74, 59–109.
- [13] Fredericks, J., Filsecker, M., & Lawson, M. (2016). Student engagement, context, and adjustment: Addressing definitional, measurement, and methodological issues. *Learning and Instruction*, 43, 1–4. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.learninstruc.2016.02.002>
- [14] Hamed, S. M., Pishghadam, R., & Fadardi, J. S. (2020). The contribution of reading emotions to reading comprehension: The mediating effect of reading engagement using a structural equation modeling approach. *Educational Research for Policy and Practice*, 19, 211–238. <https://doi.org/10.1007/s10671-019-09256-3>
- [15] Hattie, J. (2009). *Visible learning: A synthesis of over 800 meta-analyses related to achievement*. Routledge.
- [16] Helme, S., & Clarke, D. (2001). Identifying cognitive engagement in the mathematics classroom. *Mathematics Education Research Journal*, 13, 133–153. <https://doi.org/10.1007/BF03217103>
- [17] Hiver, P., Al-Hoorie, A. H., & Mercer, S. (Eds.) (2021). *Student engagement in the language classroom*. Multilingual Matters.
- [18] Hiver, P., Al-Hoorie, A. H., Vitta, J. P., & Wu, J. (2024). Engagement in language learning: A systematic review of 20 years of research methods and definitions. *Language Teaching Research*, 28(1), 201-230. <https://doi.org/10.1177/13621688211001289>
- [19] Hiver, P., Zhou, S., Tahmouresi, S., Sang, Y., & Papi, M. (2020). Why stories matter: Exploring learner engagement and metacognition through narratives of the L2 learning experience. *System*, 91, 102260. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.system.2020.102260>
- [20] Hodge, B., Wright, B. & Bennett, P. (2018). The role of grit in determining engagement and academic outcomes for university students. *Research in Higher Education*, 59, 448–460. <https://doi.org/10.1007/s11162-017-9474-y>

- [21] Keenan, J. M., Betjemann, R. S., & Olson, R. K. (2008). Reading comprehension tests vary in the skills they assess: Differential dependence on decoding and oral comprehension. *Scientific Studies of Reading*, 12, 281–300. <https://doi.org/10.1080/10888430802132279>
- [22] Khajavy, G. (2021). Modeling the relations between foreign language engagement, emotions, grit and reading achievement. In P. Hiver, A. H. Al-Hoorie & S. Mercer (Eds.), *Student engagement in the language classroom* (pp. 241–259). Multilingual Matters. <https://doi.org/10.21832/9781788923613-016>
- [23] Kiatkeeree, J., & Ruangjaroon, S. (2022). Unveiling the relationship between the grit of Thai English language learners, engagement, and language achievement in an online setting. *LEARN Journal: Language Education and Acquisition Research Network*, 15(2), 602–624.
- [24] Lawson, M. A., & Lawson, H. A. (2013). New conceptual frameworks for student engagement research, policy, and practice. *Review of Educational Research*, 83, 432–479.
- [25] Li, J., King, R. B., & Wang, C. (2022). Profiles of motivation and engagement in foreign language learning: Associations with emotional factors, academic achievement, and demographic features. *System*, 108, 102820. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.system.2022.102820>
- [26] Mercer, S. (2015). Learner agency and engagement: Believing you can, wanting to, and knowing how to. *Humanizing Language Teaching*, 17(4), 1–19.
- [27] Mercer, S. (2019). Language learner engagement: Setting the scene. In Gao, X. (Ed.), *Second handbook of English language teaching* (pp. 1–19). Springer.
- [28] Mercer, S., & Dörnyei, Z. (2020). *Engaging language learners in contemporary classrooms*. Cambridge University Press.
- [29] Mercer, S., Talbot, K. R., & Wang, I. K. H. (2021). Fake or real engagement—Looks can be deceiving. In P. Hiver, A. H. Al-Hoorie, & S. Mercer (Eds.), *Student engagement in the language classroom* (pp. 143–162). Multilingual Matters.
- [30] Oga-Baldwin, W. Q., Fryer, L. K. (2021). Engagement growth in language learning classrooms: A latent growth analysis of engagement in Japanese elementary schools. In P. Hiver, A. H. Al-Hoorie & S. Mercer (Eds.), *Student engagement in the language classroom* (pp. 224–240). Multilingual Matters.
- [31] Oga-Baldwin, W. Q., & Nakata, Y. (2017). Engagement, gender, and motivation: A predictive model for Japanese young language learners. *System*, 65, 151–163. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.system.2017.01.011>
- [32] Philp, J., & Duchesne, S. (2016). Exploring engagement in tasks in the language classroom. *Annual Review of Applied Linguistics*, 36, 50–72. <https://doi.org/10.1017/S0267190515000094>
- [33] Reeve, J. (2012). A self-determination theory perspective on student engagement. In S. L. Christenson, A. L. Reschly, & C. Wylie (Eds.), *Handbook of research on student engagement* (pp. 149–172). Springer.
- [34] Reeve, J. (2013). How students create motivationally supportive learning environments for themselves: The concept of agentic engagement. *Journal of Educational Psychology*, 105(3), 579–595. <https://doi.org/10.1037/a0032690>
- [35] Reschly, A. L., & Christenson, S. L. (2012). Jingle, jangle, and conceptual haziness: Evolution and future directions of the engagement construct. In S. L. Christenson, A. L. Reschly, & C. Wylie (Eds.), *Handbook of research on student engagement* (pp. 3–19). Springer.
- [36] Sang, Y., & Hiver, P. (2021). Engagement and companion constructs in language learning: Conceptualizing learners' involvement in the L2 classroom. In P. Hiver, A. H. Al-Hoorie, & S. Mercer (Eds.), *Student engagement in the language classroom* (pp. 17–37). Multilingual Matters.
- [37] Sinatra, G. M., Heddy, B. C., & Lombardi, D. (2015). The challenges of defining and measuring student engagement in science. *Educational Psychology*, 50, 1–13.
- [38] Skinner, E. A., Kindermann, T. A., Connell, J. P., & Wellborn, J. G. (2009). Engagement and disaffection as organizational constructs in the dynamics of motivational development. In H. R. Wentzel & A. Wigfield (Eds.), *Handbook of motivation at school* (pp. 223–245). Routledge.
- [39] Suárez-Álvarez, J., Pedrosa, I., Lozano, L. M., García Cueto, E., Cuesta Izquierdo, M., & Muñoz Fernández, J. (2018). Using reversed items in Likert scales: A questionable practice. *Psicothema*, 30.
- [40] Suárez-Orozco, C., Pimentel, A., & Martin, M. (2009). The Significance of relationships: Academic engagement and achievement among newcomer immigrant youth. *Teachers College Record*, 111(3), 712–749. <https://doi.org/10.1177/016146810911100308>
- [41] Svalberg, A. M. L. (2009). Engagement with language: Interrogating a construct. *Language Awareness*, 18, 242–258.
- [42] Zhou, S., Hiver, P., & Al-Hoorie, A. H. (2021). Measuring L2 engagement: A review of issues and applications. In P. Hiver, A. H. Al-Hoorie, & S. Mercer (Eds.), *Student engagement in the language classroom* (pp. 75–98). Multilingual Matters. <https://doi.org/10.21832/9781788923613-008>

Ibrahim H. Alzahrani is an assistant professor at Jubail English Language and Preparatory Year Institute, Royal Commission for Jubail and Yanbu, Saudi Arabia. He is a PhD holder in applied linguistics and English language teaching from University of Southampton, UK. His research interests are language learning styles and strategies, strategy instruction, and self-regulation.

The Adaptation of William Shakespeare's *Othello* in Nicole Galland's *I, Iago*

Jasmine Mohammad Hasayen

English Language and Literature, Middle East University, Amman, Jordan

Nasaybah Walid Awajan

English Language and Literature, Middle East University, Amman, Jordan

Abstract—This study aims to identify how Nicole Galland's novel *I, Iago* is considered an adaptation of William Shakespeare's play *Othello* in terms of race, class, and the representation of women. Additionally, the study attempts to compare and contrast the adaptation and the source play in terms of the themes of race, class, and the representation of women. To achieve the objectives of the study, the novel is analyzed through the theory of adaptation. The study concludes with an examination of how Galland's *I, Iago* adhered faithfully to the events portrayed in Shakespeare's play *Othello*, while also illuminating the ambiguities inherent in Shakespeare's titular work.

Index Terms—adaptation, race, representation of women, *Othello*, Shakespeare

I. INTRODUCTION

Shakespeare's tragedy *Othello* stands as a timeless masterpiece, delving into the complexities of human nature, jealousy, race, and manipulation. Set against the backdrop of the Venetian Republic, the play follows Othello, the noble Moor, whose marriage to Desdemona is sabotaged by the deceitful machinations of his ensign, Iago. As one of Shakespeare's great tragedies, *Othello* is renowned for its compelling characters, intricate plot, and profound exploration of themes that resonate across cultures and generations. Through its depiction of love, betrayal, and the destructive power of jealousy, *Othello* continues to captivate audiences and scholars alike, inviting interpretations and adaptations that reveal new insights into the complexities of the human psyche.

Adaptation is just as important for preserving the play's relevance and guaranteeing its ongoing influence. Putting *Othello*'s concepts and characters in new surroundings allows present-day viewers to better understand and relate to the story. By doing this, adaptation ensures that the characters are relevant to today's issues, the story is captivating, and the themes are timeless. Hutcheon (2006) states that adaptations are interpretive and creative acts that retain the aura of the adapted text and contain within them a palimpsestic doubleness. Hutcheon (2006) also states that adaptation offers several advantages, one of which is its contemporary relevance. Some audiences might find it hard to relate to the Venetian Republic, the original setting of *Othello*. Nonetheless, alterations have the ability to bring the tale into contemporary settings like high schools, military facilities, and corporate headquarters.

Hutcheon (2006) also explains that diverse perspectives are another crucial aspect of adaptation. By reimagining characters and settings, adaptations can provide alternative viewpoints. Innovation and creativity are fostered by adaptation. Directors, writers, and artists have the opportunity to experiment with storytelling techniques, styles, and mediums. Modern adaptations often delve into issues like racism, gender dynamics, and the consequences of manipulation in today's society. They can provide a fresh take on the narrative, presenting it in innovative and thought-provoking ways. An essential aspect of adaptation is reaching a wider audience. Although the classic productions of *Othello* still hold the attention of theatergoers, adaptations have a wider and more varied audience. They give people who might not have been familiar with the original work an introduction to the themes and characters of the play. This assures that *Othello* will continue to be relevant for a long time to come, thus expanding its legacy.

Moreover, adaptations have intrinsic educational value. They introduce Shakespeare's themes and characters to new audiences and pupils, making them valuable teaching resources. Adaptations of Shakespeare's works make them more approachable for those who might find the original text difficult, bridging the gap between classical literature and modern comprehension. One new aspect of adaptability is multimedia interaction, where multimedia components like movies, virtual reality, or interactive web content are used in modern adaptations. These components allow viewers a variety of interesting experiences that support changing artistic expression mediums and audience participation.

Indeed, many have rewritten Shakespeare's *Othello*. Chambers (2016) declares that interpreting how writers from formerly colonized nations have "written back" to classic works from the English literary canon has been a major focus of postcolonial critics. Peck (2002) states that writers with foreign backgrounds or those who live in other nations and are still impacted by the legacy of British colonial control have made perhaps the most impact with their rewritings in recent years. Singh (2019) explains that Shakespeare's plays explore, reveal, marginalize, and engage issues of race, encounters with people of color, and growing nationalism in England. This causes writers to reflect on the issues that

Shakespeare explores. According to Boccardo (2019), the play *Othello* by Shakespeare is hailed as one of the most influential and enduring pieces of literature ever written. A deep and enduring educational experience, studying *Othello* offers insights into global themes, multifaceted characters, cultural dynamics, and language proficiency. Furthermore, *Othello's* adaptability guarantees its continued relevance by introducing the timeless story to modern audiences through creative reimagining. That is why it is important to study *Othello* and the essential role adaptation plays in keeping this timeless work lively and interesting.

In *Othello*, audiences are welcomed into a universe of ageless ideas that endure for ages. The play's story revolves around a number of themes, including racism, love, envy, and manipulation. Audiences and English researchers alike have come to understand the lasting relevance of these topics in modern society as they examine them within the framework of the Elizabethan age. Indeed, jealousy is still a powerful human feeling, love is still a universal force, and the dynamics of control and manipulation are still as strong now as they were in Shakespeare's day. Racism, one of the main themes of *Othello*, is also still a subject of debate and controversy in society today. By examining *Othello*, researchers can investigate these themes and consider how universal they are to the human condition. Moreover, audiences are introduced to a group of nuanced people in *Othello* who have deep motivations, inner lives, and weaknesses. The terrible demise of Othello, the devious manipulation of Iago, and the innocence of Desdemona all hold a fascination for readers and viewers alike. Studying the complexity of these characteristics helps everyone better comprehend human nature since they provide significant insights into human psychology and behavior.

The current study attempts to explore the adaptation of William Shakespeare's *Othello* in Nicole Galland's *I, Iago* in relation to the themes of race, class, and female representations. The literary work is analyzed by applying the theory of adaptation. Many studies have been conducted on Shakespeare's play *Othello*; however, to the best of the researcher's knowledge, no studies can be found that tackle Galland's novel *I, Iago*. Furthermore, there have hardly been any studies conducted on how Galland's literary work can be considered an adaptation of Shakespeare's *Othello* in relation to the themes of race, class, and the representation of females. The contribution of the study is to fill in the gap.

II. METHODOLOGY

The study approaches Shakespeare's *Othello* through the theory of adaptation to explore the themes of race, class, and representation of females. The work of Galland is a new reading of Shakespeare's play. Sanders (2006) states that many writers and scholars refer to adaptation as "rewriting" or "intertextuality" (p. 3). She makes a distinction between appropriations and adaptations in her capacity as an adaptation theorist. She also goes on to say that, depending on the intertextuality's goal, they are both different. While they both involve interaction with the text, Sanders continues, appropriation "adopts a posture of critique, even assault" (p. 4). She then goes on to define every word. She states, for example, that adaptations of classic literary works identify "themselves as an interpretation or rereading of a canonical precursor" and that "the movement into a new generic mode or context" is occasionally involved (p. 2). Meanwhile, she describes appropriation as "a decision to reinterpret a source text that is shaped by a writer, director, or performer's political or ethical commitment" (p. 2). Moreover, according to her, these theories introduce "multiple and sometimes conflicting productions of meaning" (p. 2).

On the other hand, another adaptation theorist, Hutcheon (2006), offers a fresh method for assessing adaptations that takes into account the narrative techniques and the media in which they are presented. She claims that the notion of adaptation ought to be the foundation of any adaptation. According to her, "adaptation theory should take [the reasons behind adaptation] seriously, even if this means thinking about the role of intentionality in our critical thinking about art in general" (p. 95). She talks about adaptations as a product and as a "process of creation and reception," regarding them as "deliberate, announced, and extended re-visitations of prior works" (p. 115). Hutcheon (2006) also posits that when adaptation is used to create a product, the primary ideas from the original sources will still be present, even though the original text will change. She states that the first step in the process is to identify the "adaptor" and the rationale for the adaptation, keeping in mind that the new work—the adaptation—may be accepted and perceived as a secondary or inferior source to the adapted work source (p. 15). She also claims that when adaptation is considered a process, it essentially turns into an appropriation process (p. 95). One views adaptation as a "formal entity or product". This implies that the adaptation may be taken from a different work or works. This could involve a "shift" to a different genre, medium, or even frame, style, and context—perhaps even just narrating the story from a different point of view—without altering the plot. A change from historical to fictitious, biographical to fictional, or real to fictional could also fall under this category. "Interpretation and their recreation" are where adaptation also begins. It can be viewed as a "form of intertextuality" and the "process of reception" (Hutcheon, 2006, p. 8).

Hutcheon (2006) goes on to say that everyone uses adaptation. She also talks about the significance of the new text, which is an adaptation, as well as the old text, which is an adapted text. She also declares that although no adaptation can match the quality of the "original", the adapted text is nevertheless regarded as superior to any adaptation. It is not the case that an adaptation of a literary work makes it the "original" or "authoritative" version (p. 11). When a text is altered and referred to as the "source" or "original", it might be just as essential as the original. Adaptation creates a "dialogue relation among texts", a phenomenon known as "intertextuality", which "was only a formal issue" (pp. 11–12).

III. ANALYSIS

A. William Shakespeare's *Othello* in Terms of the Themes of Race, Class, and the Representation of Women

Shakespeare's works have stood the test of time and provided inspiration time and time again. *Othello*, as discussed in this current paper, is only one example of the richness of his works. Although Shakespeare's themes are universal, so are their counterparts. Regardless of how we read Shakespeare, we can always end up having a counterpart opinion to the sentiments presented in his works. In hindsight, it depends on how we read Shakespeare that we can provide a counterpart opinion of what is in front of us. *Othello* is one of the most universally acclaimed of his works due to the theme of jealousy. Yet, other themes have started to surface over time that have forced critics to see this work in a new light. Hence, we have three updated themes in this play of race, class, and the representation of women.

(a). *The Theme of Race*

The theme of race plays a central role in shaping the experiences and destinies of the characters, particularly Othello, the Moorish general of the Venetian army. Through Othello's character and the interactions between the other characters, Shakespeare explores the themes of racial prejudice and the impact of societal perceptions of race. Little (1993) states that Shakespeare's play has three main plot points: Othello's blackness, his marriage to Desdemona, a white woman, and his murder of her. Of course, these components are connected. Their marriage is important to the meaning of Othello's murder of Desdemona, and Othello's blackness plays a major role in the meaning of their union. It is believed that Othello's blackness is what first gave rise to the play's fears.

Hogan (1998) also states that even in non-derogatory situations, the Venetian's attitude toward Othello is racial in practically every sense. Many Venetians regard Othello as a friend and colleague and as a superb leader of the Venetian army. Still, they refer to him as "the Moor" significantly more than they do as Othello at a ratio of nearly two to one in favor of the general category over the name. Put another way, they talk about him and even address him regularly, not as a distinctive individual but rather as an example of his race. Some examples to support this are when Roderigo refers to Othello as "the thick lips" (Shakespeare, 1997, p. 63), and again when Iago goes on to characterize Othello as a brute beast, shouting that he is "an old black ram" (Shakespeare, 1997, p. 85). Iago also raises fear in Brabantio with the possibility that Brabantio's grandchildren will be of mixed race, saying, "Your daughter is covered with a Barbary horse; hence, you'll have nephews neigh to you, you'll have coursers for cousins, and gennets for Germans" (Shakespeare, 1997, p. 88).

Iago goes on to degrade Desdemona for loving and marrying Othello, for she is too fair, beautiful, and white to choose "the gross clasps of a lascivious Moor" (Shakespeare, 1997, p. 123). "What delight shall she have to look on the devil?" he asks Roderigo (Shakespeare, 1997, pp. 224-225). Brabantio accuses Othello of using witchcraft, a stereotype of Othello's background, to seduce Desdemona, as he believes only magic, foul charms, and drugs could take Desdemona "from her guardage to the sooty bosom of such a thing as thou, to fear, not to delight" (Shakespeare, 1997, pp. 72-73). Brabantio also questions how she could "fall in love with what she feared to look on" (Shakespeare, 1997, p. 99). Here, Brabantio is commenting on the appearance of Othello, as it is supposed to promote feelings of fear rather than love. Desdemona herself acknowledges the fact that Othello is black, referring to him not as Othello but as "the Moor" (Shakespeare, 1997, p. 187). Even when she expresses deep affection towards him, she still does not call him by his name; instead, she says, "I love the Moor" (Shakespeare, 1997, p. 243).

Later on, when Iago convinces Othello of Desdemona's infidelity, Othello replies, "She's gone" (Shakespeare, 1997, p. 266). He offers two potential explanations for her treachery. One is age; he is "declined into the vale of years" but then dismisses this saying, "yet that's not much" (Shakespeare, 1997, pp. 264-265). The other reason, the reason he accepts, is simply "I am black" (Shakespeare, 1997, p. 263). Racism confronts Othello everywhere he looks. Its many masks or faces – friendship, admiration, love, and even hatred, contempt, and abuse – make it more persistent, alluring, and unstoppable. He ultimately gives in to the racist perception of people around him. The ensuing hopelessness results in suicide and murder (Hogan, 1998).

Othello decides to suffocate Desdemona, suggesting that he has at least partially adopted Venetian society's racism, saying, "I'll not shed her blood nor scar that whiter skin of hers than snow" (Shakespeare, 1997, pp. 3-4). Emilia suggests that her whiteness has become sacred, just as his blackness has become demonic, saying, "The more angel she, and you, the blacker devil" (Shakespeare, 1997, pp. 129-130). Thus, Berry (1990) associates Othello's blackness with "ugliness, treachery, lust, bestiality, and the demonic. This poisonous image of the black man later informs Othello's judgment of himself" (p. 319).

According to the study of Tayyaba and Shamim (2022), the use of negative lexical items to describe character is evident. For example, Brabantio repeatedly uses the words "thief, devils, Barbary horse" to describe and disrespect Othello. Othello is also called "Moor" and "old black ram", which shows the racist attitude of others (p. 391). In contrast, Desdemona is referred to as tender, fair, sweet, and delicate by other characters to emphasize how different she is from Othello (Tayyaba & Shamim, 2022, p. 392). Finally, Neil (1989) states that, in *Othello*, discussions over race are nearly always inextricably linked, whether directly or indirectly, to those of culture, because differences in hue are understood to represent differences in "barbarity", "animality", and "primitive emotion" (p. 393).

(b). *The Theme of Class*

Frazer (2016) states that a jealous subordinate officer brings down Othello, a dependable state officer, for reasons related to race, class, and proper authority while conducting state business. This summarizes what Iago did to Othello,

as people at that time in Venetian society believed that people with darker complexions were seen as being of lower class and status. According to Smith (2013), the strongly racist vocabulary of Iago from the play's opening scenes makes Cassio see himself as "drunken and disorderly" as a monstrous black demon, whom Othello represents as the typical "socially disruptive and animalistic foreign character" (p. 13). In the opening scene, Iago calls Othello "old black ram" (Shakespeare, 1997, p. 85).

When Desdemona runs off and marries Othello behind her father's back, it is Iago who informs him that the daughter of the patriarch should not marry a general in the army. Brabantio refers to this marriage as "treason of the blood" (Shakespeare, 1997, p. 169). Berry (1972) declares that Venetian society does not approve of racial intermarriage, and of course, as Desdemona comes from a patriarchal family, how can she marry a general in the army? This is proven when Brabantio also says, "Have to incur a general mock / run from her guardage to the sooty bosom / of such a thing as thou?" (Shakespeare, 1997, pp. 69-71).

Other than Othello's social status in Venetian society, Iago's social status is looked upon and seen as part of the reason why he was not promoted to lieutenant. The relationship between Cassio and Iago has no trust, as there are hints that Iago comes from a lower social stratum than Cassio. Iago proves this in Act I, Scene I, where he expresses his discontent about Cassio's promotion over him, suggesting that Cassio's higher social status played a role in the decision (Berry, 1972). Iago says, "And I, of whom his eyes had seen the proof / At Rhodes, at Cyprus, and on other grounds / Christian and heathen" (Shakespeare, 1997, pp. 4-5). Iago is fuming because Othello passed him over for the position of lieutenant and instead chose Cassio, a seemingly inexperienced soldier. Here, Iago boasts about his own military experience, as witnessed by Othello himself. He fought alongside Othello in various locations, such as "Rhodes", "Cyprus", and "other grounds", against both Christian and pagan ("heathen") enemies. These examples in Shakespeare's play paint a picture of how Venetian society at the time viewed social class as well as customs and what they considered normal or not. The social class of the characters determines the kind of relationship they have with each other as well as how they advance in promotions and who to marry.

(c). Representation of Women

In Shakespeare's *Othello*, the play shows the oppression women must endure daily. Although Desdemona and Emilia's characters are proven to be of high conduct, patriarchy controls their ends and dooms their favor and fortunes. According to the study by Hussain et al. (2023), since she is educated and the daughter of a senator from Venice, Desdemona is a highly sought-after woman. Nevertheless, she decides to wed Othello, a Moor serving as a Venetian army general. She bravely opposes her father and anyone else who disagrees with her decision (Shakespeare, 1997, pp. 180-192). Here, Desdemona shows that she obeys her husband and follows society's patriarchal rules, even though she defies her father by marrying Othello. "She believes that her faithfulness to her partner is a testament to her position as a spouse and her contribution to their household's happiness" (Hussain et al., 2023, p. 3). She uses manipulation to show where her duty lies according to patriarchal society while defying them at the same time.

Her presence is seen by many Venetians as being essential to Othello's existence (Hussain et al., 2023). This is made clear when Othello's subordinate Cassio addresses her as "She that I spake of, our great captain's captain." (Shakespeare, 1997, p. 76). It is implied that she is one of Othello's main sources of inspiration, giving him the will and drive to ensure Cyprus's triumph. This emphasizes Desdemona's special and significant part in Othello's battle against the Turks (Hussain et al., 2023, p. 4). It is obvious that she is the source of his strength, given that Othello recognizes her as his "fair warrior" (Shakespeare, 1997, p. 175).

Frazer (2016) explains that Emilia struggles with patriarchal authority as well. Like Desdemona, she is destroyed by patriarchal ideals that deny her free will and an independent voice (p. 517). Between giving in to Iago's demands over the handkerchief and meeting her demise at his hands, Emilia starts to realize that someone is discrediting Desdemona. Iago's misogynistic "jest" regarding Emilia's tongue causes Emilia to act reluctantly and become silent when she first lands in Cyprus with Desdemona (p. 517). At the moment, Desdemona finds the joke amusing, saying, "Alas, she has no speech" (Shakespeare, 1997, p. 103). Later, Emilia regrets that she is in so much trouble that she is unable to comprehend because of her free speech on Cassio's behalf. Emilia responds to Othello's charge that Desdemona is a whore by calling him a devil during their confrontation after he has mortally wounded Desdemona. Previously, Emilia had addressed him as "my lord" (Shakespeare, 1997, pp. 130-134). This shows how Emilia's character changes from being silent to someone who will speak their mind.

In her study, Das (2012) argues that the tragedy of *Othello* is the result of following patriarchal norms and prejudices. The play is based on men's misconceptions about women and women's helplessness to defend themselves against how society views them. This is shown by Othello's dominance, violence, and authority, which are far manlier than Desdemona's highly feminine traits of submission, gentleness, and compliance. After being severely beaten and verbally abused by Othello out of jealousy, Desdemona informs Iago, "I am a child to chiding" (Shakespeare, 1997, p. 96). Because of a system that views women as the weaker, more dependent sex, Desdemona is powerless to stop Othello and is ill-prepared to handle such aggression. As a result, Desdemona retreats into infantile behavior as a way to avoid facing reality.

Das continues that Shakespeare acknowledges that women have historically faced social, economic, and political disadvantages throughout human history. Shakespeare has outlined gender concerns through strong female characters. He has presented a thorough analysis of life, giving equal weight to the perspectives of men and women. His female

characters depict the societal stigmas women experienced during this period. By endowing his female characters with qualities and strength, he has conveyed his own appreciation for strong, educated women. Thus, it is reasonable to argue that Shakespeare was a pioneer of the feminist movement. In actuality, he promotes the full liberation of women in society and aims to eradicate gender inequality through the portrayal of female characters in tragedies (Das, 2012).

B. Nicole Galland's I, Iago as an Adaptation in Terms of the Themes of Race, Class, and the Representation of Women

The novel *I, Iago* is the retelling of the play *Othello* by Shakespeare from the point of view of the villain, Iago. It depicts his life before the beginning of the play as well as his point of view during the play. The novel is made up of two parts: "Before", which is considered the prequel to the actions of Shakespeare's play, and "After", which takes place simultaneously with the play. The actions that take place in the "Before" part show how Venetian society is built, how Iago views this society, and how he is made an ensign in the military. He forms a great connection with the general Othello that is full of admiration and love until Othello decides to promote Cassio to lieutenant instead of him, which results in Iago feeling betrayed and wanting revenge. The actions that take place in the "After" part show the flow of thoughts in Iago's head and all his master plans for revenge and the reasons behind them. The themes of race, class, and the representation of women are present in both the novel and the play, as the course of action takes place simultaneously.

(a). Race

Galland (2012) stays true to the representation of racism in *Othello* in her adaptation *I, Iago* as she uses some of the same expressions used in Shakespeare's original play to describe Othello as well as adding her own. In the novel, starting with the "Before" section, Iago first meets Othello at a party. Before seeing him in person, the people around Iago started to describe the newly appointed general. They describe his black face as a mask, saying, "They say it's not a mask at all! They say that is his real face! Can you imagine? So ugly and so dark?" (p. 104).

The people in Venetian society stress the fact that he is of a different color, and some even tried to wipe the paint off his face to no avail. A Venetian society woman says to Iago and his wife, Emilia, that even if he is not quite human, he should not be treated as an animal (Galland, 2012). She says, "Well, it isn't human skin ... Human skin is not that color" (Galland, 2012, p. 105). These examples show how society is racially prejudiced against Othello and how they already formed an idea of him without even knowing him. Iago's first meeting with Othello is not spoken of in Shakespeare's play, yet Nicole Galland managed to create a first meeting that makes sense in the way people are reacting to the sight of a black man and the prejudice that is shown against him. Upon seeing Othello, Iago describes him by saying that even his lips and gums are dark, which makes his teeth even whiter. He also describes that his complexion and dress make him stand out, and the embroidered strawberry kerchief tied around his neck seems out of place (Galland, 2012).

The way Othello is being described shows how fascinated Venetian society is by someone who is different from them by race and background. More stereotypes are mentioned when Roderigo, Iago's childhood friend, sees Othello. He calls him a "barbarian" and adds, "Not likely he'd be buying spices from me; anyhow, he probably eats raw meat" (Galland, 2012, p. 119). These stereotypes are linked to people of darker complexions and are looked down on by the Venetian society set in this novel. The senators of Venice are fascinated by Othello's dark skin and invite him to all sorts of parties and dinners; this makes Othello feel like something to be shown off. Othello states, "I am not Othello to them. I am not even the general of their forces. I am, rather, something to show off to their neighbors and their servants, and themselves. I help them feel pleased with themselves. They are so cosmopolitan and perhaps even brave that they chat with somebody who hardly looks human to them. I am so sick of it, Iago. I am so damn tired of it all. I cannot wait until we quit this damned city again" (Galland, 2012, p. 144).

Othello is invited to Barbantio's home to dine, where he fancies Desdemona, Barbantio's daughter, but Iago knows of the patrician's way of thinking, and other than the fact that Othello is neither a patrician himself nor a Venetian, he also states that Othello will change the race of the family (Galland, 2012). This is not acceptable in Venetian society. Upon explaining the way of Venetian society to Othello, Othello argues with Iago: "Here, in this great republic, where my race has not prevented me from ascending to the heights of..." (Galland, 2012, p. 163). Iago explains that he may ascend in his military status, but never to the position where he could marry the daughter of a patrician in Venetian society.

In the "After" section, when Othello eloped with Desdemona, Roderigo, with the encouragement of Iago, told Desdemona's father, Barbantio, that they ran away to be married; Roderigo calls Othello "the Moor" (Galland, 2012, p. 223). The word "Moor" is used continuously in both the novel *I, Iago* and the play *Othello* as a way to describe Othello's dark skin in an insulting manner. Furthermore, Barbantio accuses Othello of using black magic to make Desdemona marry him, saying, "Have you used your heathen magic to enslave her with lust?" (Galland, 2012, p. 224). This stereotype is typically associated with third-world countries, and thus, Othello is accused of using magic, as it is unbelievable that a fair white woman from Venetian society would willingly fall in love and marry a black man. Barbantio also states that he will take the case to the members of the Council, and he will accuse Othello of kidnapping Desdemona because no member of the Council will side with a "foreign black heathen" (Galland, 2012, p. 255).

(b). The Theme of Class

The theme of class in Shakespeare's *Othello* serves to highlight the complexities of social hierarchy and the ways in which it can impact relationships and interactions between characters. It is subtly woven into the fabric of the play, particularly through the characters' interactions and social statuses. In Nicole Galland's *I, Iago*, she shows how social status plays an important part in how the characters act and how they perceive each other.

In the novel, starting with the "Before", Nicole Galland paints a picture of how Venetian society is at this time. The reader can see this in how Iago describes Roderigo's family's financial state. He explains how Roderigo's family could not afford a nursemaid for their child as his father was a failing spice merchant, while Iago's family could afford one as his father was a thriving silk trader (Galland, 2012, p. 5). Iago even helped out his friend, Roderigo, when they were children by giving him his share of money that they earned together so that Roderigo would be able to buy new clothes for himself (Galland, 2012, p. 14). The author also shows us how Iago's family had many servants and adored the frivolous social culture where they attended multiple balls wearing fancy masks (Galland, 2012).

When describing Emilia's house, Iago sees that they are not a wealthy family as he looks around the furniture of the house, stating, "I smiled politely, aware that Emilia was waiting to see if I would judge her for her family's modest means" (Galland, 2012, p. 95). This shows how the characters view each other in the social hierarchy of Venetian society. This plays an important role in how one chooses the person they will marry.

Othello's otherness as a Moor occupies a unique position in Venetian society. While he holds a high rank as a general, his race and outsider status make him a target for discrimination and prejudice. This highlights the rigid class boundaries of the time and the challenges faced by those who do not fit into the established social hierarchy. This is seen when Othello starts to fall in love with Desdemona and asks Iago to explain the "Venetian courting customs" (Galland, 2012, p. 162). Iago explains that since Desdemona is the daughter of a patrician, she can only marry someone of the same rank. He also explains that no one can ascend to become a patrician; one must be born into a family of patricians (Galland, 2012, p. 162). Othello is upset by this and starts to think about how his race prevents him from ascending through the ranks of Venetian society, which proves that he will be forever considered an outsider (Galland, 2012, p. 163). Here, Othello somehow accepts that he will not marry Desdemona and asks Iago to come with him when he is to dine at Brabantio's house to "help [me] remember my place" (Galland, 2012, p. 164).

Roderigo also fancies Desdemona, and when he tries to ask her father for permission to marry her, her father says, "Of course we won't accept this. The man is not even a patrician, for the love of angels. Why does he think I would let him near my daughter?" (Galland, 2012, p. 173). This also shows that even Roderigo, who became a wealthy spice trader, is rejected by Brabantio for not being a patrician.

Desdemona's decision to marry Othello, a man of lower social standing, is seen as her rebelling against the norms of her class. Her father, Brabantio, expresses shock and dismay at her choice, highlighting the importance of social status and reputation in their society. We can see this in the "After" part of the novel where Brabantio accuses Othello of using witchcraft to kidnap Desdemona in front of the court (Galland, 2012, p. 226). When Desdemona states that her duty lies with her husband, Brabantio expresses disapproval and says to Othello, "She deceived me. She may deceive you just as easily" (Galland, 2012, p. 235).

Iago's resentment towards Othello is fueled in part by his own ambition and desire for upward social mobility. He wants the lieutenantcy that was given to Cassio, which will give him better rank in the army. He sees Othello's marriage to Desdemona as an affront to his own ambitions and uses it as a pretext for his schemes. He plots to make it seem like Desdemona betrayed Othello with Cassio, which will "indulge [my] righteously vengeful imagination" (Galland, 2012, p. 243). By acting upon his plan, he will be given the lieutenantcy that he longed for, which will make him rise in social status. Iago manipulates the characters' perceptions of each other based on their class, using stereotypes and prejudices to turn them against each other. This manipulation highlights the ways in which class differences can be used to show discord and division (Galland, 2012, p. 246).

(c). Representation of Women

In Shakespeare's *Othello*, the representation of women is nuanced, mainly in the roles of Emilia and Desdemona. Even though these women have important parts in the play, the patriarchal culture in which they live also has an impact on the characters. Through a retelling of the events from the perspective of Iago, the antagonist of William Shakespeare's *Othello* and Galland's novel, *I, Iago* presents an original retelling of the drama. Galland's book has a complex and multidimensional portrayal of women, especially Emilia and Desdemona. Emilia is shown as a multifaceted person with her own goals, reasons, and challenges. She is shown as Iago's devoted wife, yet she dares to disagree with her husband's decisions and deeds. In Galland's novel, Emilia's character is given more nuance and agency, and her connection with Iago is examined in greater detail. Desdemona is similarly given more depth in *I, Iago*. She has a more detailed portrayal of her relationship with Othello, and her choices and actions are given more meaning. Desdemona's character is revealed to be independent and strong-willed, defying the stereotype of her as a helpless victim. The following evidence from the novel will explain this further.

In the "Before" section, Galland paints a picture of how women were treated at the time in Venetian society. When Iago goes to a brothel with his cadets, he talks suggestively of the women, explaining how they are dressed in revealing clothing. He also talks to them disrespectfully (Galland, 2012, pp. 39-41). Iago states, "The city of Venice boasts approximately one whore for every seven male citizens. Many of the prostitutes are mistresses who live better than proper wives (Galland, 2012, p. 39)." This suggests the normality of having wives as well as mistresses for one man.

Women at the time wore makeup, and Iago looked down on it as unnecessary and something that ruined their natural beauty. He describes his mother as “creating a new face for herself” and says all the women look identical. He also describes this by saying they were “looking ridiculous” (Galland, 2012, p. 49).

After Iago marries Emilia and they meet Othello, Iago is asked to leave Venice without Emilia. She does not approve of this and says something to Othello to convince him that she should come along. At first, Iago believes she offered herself to him and accuses Emilia of this, saying that this was expected (Galland, 2012). He asks her, “Did you say you’d make yourself available to him as well? Do you plan to whore yourself to the higher ranks? Don’t think I haven’t heard about what officers expect of lower-ranking wives” (Galland, 2012, p. 121). When she says that she merely said that her being with Iago improves his performance with the military, he says that this kind of talk is unacceptable from a woman, stating, “He thinks you’re loose. When a woman talks to a man like that, a man knows what it means” (Galland, 2012, p. 122). This suggests that men thought of women only as sexual objects during this time.

When Othello showed interest in Desdemona, Iago declared that her father would not “dispose” of her to someone who was not a patrician or Venetian and would change the race of the family (Galland, 2012, p. 156). The use of the word “dispose” shows that women did not have a choice in their marriage and that their male guardians had control of this choice. In this case, Desdemona’s father is the only person who chooses whom she will marry. Iago continuously calls Desdemona “that girl”, to which Emilia replies, “You’ve never once to my ear called her that [Desdemona]. You call her ‘that girl’, as if she were an object, not a person” (p. 157). Iago states that she “essentially is an object. She will be married off according to her father’s will” (p. 157), which further proves that women had no choice whatsoever. Brabantio, Desdemona’s father, does give her the choice to reject different suitors, which makes Iago describe him as an “indulgent father” (Galland, 2012, p. 164). This shows that Desdemona had the right to reject but will nonetheless marry someone her father approves of. She is given part of the choice.

In the “After” section of the novel, Desdemona later chooses to marry Othello against her father’s wishes and states in front of the court, “My duty lies with my husband” (Galland, 2012, p. 232). This shows Desdemona’s character as a strong-willed and independent woman. When Iago, Emilia, and Desdemona reach Cyprus, Iago talks to the ladies in a demeaning manner. He says, “Speaking as a man renowned for his honesty, I am pained to inform you that you – and all ladies, if her ladyship will excuse me – you are three kinds of dishonest. In public, you’re the very picture of innocence, but at home, you nag and complain, and then in bed, of course, as every man knows –” (Galland, 2012, p. 251). Emilia stops him from continuing, as this talk is disrespectful, especially when he is addressing Desdemona. This shows the patriarchal society that they lived in and how men view women.

Violence was apparent in the way men treated women. When Othello receives a letter about the state and it upsets him, he slaps Desdemona across the face (Galland, 2012, p. 331). This is the start of Othello’s violence toward his wife. This violence surprises Iago and Lodovico, who witnessed it. After Othello killed Desdemona and Emilia found out, Iago tried to keep her quiet so that she would not expose him. He asks her to “stop your tongue”, but she refuses, claiming, “I am honor bound to speak now” (Galland, 2012, p. 360). She accused Othello of murdering an innocent woman and denied everything Iago claimed about Desdemona. Iago, feeling betrayed by her, tried to get her to leave and go home, to which Emilia turned to the gentlemen in the room and asked, “Give me leave to speak” (Galland, 2012, p. 362). Here, Emilia’s character shows strength, as she will not be silenced and will speak the truth. Iago sees this as betrayal, as he expects his wife to obey him. Emilia continues to clarify that she is the one who found the handkerchief and accuses Iago of being a lying devil. She further states, “The truth will out, Iago! It will out! I will speak if the heavens and the devils together conspired to shut me up! I’ll speak, you evil creature!” (Galland, 2012, p. 363). Iago then starts to curse at her and call her a liar as he states, “She was betraying me” (Galland, 2012, pp. 364-365). He tries to justify killing her by stating that she is betraying him. He then stabs and murders her to keep her quiet (Galland, 2012, pp. 364-365). This shows how Iago felt threatened by Emilia’s words and the power that her words held.

IV. CONCLUSION

Galland’s novel *I, Iago* is a retelling of Shakespeare’s play *Othello* from the point of view of the character Iago. The novel is made up of two sections. In the first section, Iago talks about his childhood, explains how he got into the army, and talks about how he met and married his wife, Emilia. The first section ends with Othello choosing Cassio to be his lieutenant instead of Iago. The second section begins with Iago plotting revenge against Othello and Cassio in order to get the lieutenantcy that he deserves. The second section is where the events align with those in Shakespeare’s play *Othello*. The writer retells the events in the play from the point of view of Iago, giving readers a reason for his actions and thoughts that were ambiguous in the original play. Galland used some of the same expressions and words used in the original play and incorporated them into her novel. She also stayed true to the sequence of events in the original play. This study analyzed the novel in comparison with Shakespeare’s play based on the themes of race, class, and the representation of females. In sum, Galland’s *I, Iago* can be considered an adaptation of Shakespeare’s *Othello* based on the evidence that supports the themes of race, class, and the representation of females. The evidence shows how the novel took the events of the play and retold them from the point of view of Shakespeare’s antagonist, Iago.

ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

We would like to thank Middle East University in Amman, Jordan, for their financial support granted to cover the publication fees of this research article.

REFERENCES

- [1] Berry, E. (1990). Othello's Alienation. *Studies in English literature, 1500-1900*, 30(2), pp. 315-333. <https://doi.org/10.2307/450520>.
- [2] Berry, R. (1972). Pattern in Othello. *Shakespeare Quarterly*, 23(1), pp. 3-19. <https://doi.org/10.2307/2868648>.
- [3] Boccardo, B. (2019). *Moving through Time and Race: Othello and The Tempest adapted for New Millennials*. MA thesis. University of Venice.
- [4] Chambers, C. G. (2016). "To Love the Moor": Postcolonial Artists Write Back to Shakespeare's Othello. *Postcolonial Interventions: An Interdisciplinary Journal of Postcolonial Studies*, 1(2), 1-39.
- [5] Christine, C. P. Y. (2012). *Shakespearean Character Fictions: Contemporary Re-presentations of Ophelia, Desdemona and Juliet*. National University of Singapore. Thesis. National University of Singapore.
- [6] Croft, K. (2023). "She Never Yet was Foolish that was Fair": Whiteness as Erasure in William Shakespeare's Othello. In *Selected Papers of the Ohio Valley Shakespeare Conference*, 13(1), 1-23. Available at: <https://ideaexchange.uakron.edu/spovsc/vol13/iss1/2>
- [7] Das, P. (2012). Shakespeare's representation of women in his tragedies. *Prime Journal*, 6(2), pp. 37-56.
- [8] Frazer, E. (2016). Shakespeare's Politics. *The Review of Politics*, 78(4), pp. 503-522. <http://www.jstor.org/stable/24890014>. Retrieved 4/2/2024.
- [9] Galland, N. (2012). *I, Iago*. Harper-Collins Publishers. New York. USA.
- [10] Hogan, P.C. (1998). Othello, Racism, and Despair. *CLA Journal*, 41(4), pp. 431-451. <https://www.jstor.org/stable/44323165>. Retrieved 4/3/2024.
- [11] Hussain, A. & Khan, S. & Bin Zubair, H. (2023). Representation of Elizabethan women in William Shakespeare's Othello. *Contemporary Research in Education and English Language Teaching*, 5(1), pp. 1-7. DOI: 10.55214/26410230.v5i1.409
- [12] Hutcheon, L. (2006). *A Theory of Adaptation*. Routledge. New York. USA.
- [13] Neil, M. (1989). Unproper beds: Race, Adultery, and the Hideous in Othello. *Shakespeare Quarterly*, 40(4), pp. 383-412. <https://doi.org/10.2307/2870608>.
- [14] O'Neal, P. (2016). *An examination of Shakespeare and Adaptations of his works throughout time*. Academia.
- [15] Peck, J. (2002). *A Brief History of English Literature*. Palgrave Macmillan. London, Great Britain.
- [16] Sanders, Julie. (2006). *Adaptation and Appropriation*. Routledge, Taylor & Francis Group.
- [17] Shakespeare, W. (1997). *Othello* (C. Watts, Ed.). Wordsworth Editions.
- [18] Singh, J. (2019). Shakespeare and postcolonial theory. *Renaissance Quarterly*, 73(2), 756-757. DOI: 10.1017/rqx.2020.105.
- [19] Smith, I. (2013). Othello's Black Handkerchief. *Shakespeare Quarterly*, 64(1), pp. 1-25. <http://www.jstor.org/stable/24778431>. Retrieved 15/12/2024.
- [20] Tayyaba, Y. and Shamim, A. (2022). Critical Discourse Analysis of William Shakespeare's play Othello. *Pakistan Language and Humanities Review*, 6(2), pp. 386-399. [https://doi.org/10.47205/plhr.2022\(6-II\)33](https://doi.org/10.47205/plhr.2022(6-II)33).

Jasmine Mohammad Hasayen is an MA holder in English language and literature.

Nasaybah W. Awajan is an associate professor at the English Language and Literature Department at Middle East University. She is the Head of the English Language and Literature Department at MEU. She earned her Ph.D. from the University of Jordan in English Literature. She has taught as a part-time lecturer at the Arab Open University and the University of Jordan. She has also worked as a teacher educator for English language students and the Academic Reading and Writing Lead at Queen Rania Teachers Academy.

Measuring Vocabulary Knowledge for Secondary Graduate Students

Yasser Alsuhaibani

Department of Curriculum and Instruction, College of Education, King Saud University, Riyadh, Saudi Arabia

Abstract—This study examines the extent of vocabulary knowledge among Saudi students who have recently graduated from secondary school, and its potential connection to their performance in English. The study involved 83 participants taking the Updated Vocabulary Levels Test by Webb et al. (2017). The findings reveal that the mean score of the test is below expectations: minimum scores suggested by Webb et al. (2017) are 29/30 for the first three word levels (1,000, 2,000, and 3,000) and 24/30 for the last two word levels (4,000 and 5,000). However, the average scores for participants in the study are 22.6/30 for the 1,000-word level, 16.4/30 for the 2,000-word level, 9.3/30 for the 3,000-word level, 8.9/30 for the 4,000-word level, and 7.7/30 for the 5,000-word level. These low scores could indicate an inadequate performance in English and imply that participants will struggle with receptive and productive skills. Therefore, a thorough evaluation of the EFL curriculum from K-12, especially for teaching vocabulary, is strongly recommended. Moreover, the adequacy of learners' vocabulary knowledge will be a crucial boost for their performance in communicative tasks.

Index Terms—vocabulary size, vocabulary knowledge, Vocabulary Levels Test, Updated Vocabulary Levels Test

I. INTRODUCTION

A number of second language (L2) acquisition researchers agree that learning vocabulary is the primary means for successfully achieving L2 proficiency (e.g., Samuels, 1967; Wilkins, 1972; Gairns & Redman, 1986; Cameron, 2002; Nation, 2001, 2006, 2022; Thornbury, 2002; Webb et al., 2017; Altalhab, 2019). However, educators have given relatively little attention to vocabulary learning compared to grammar or the four skills (listening, speaking, reading and writing). This situation reminds us of the well-said quote: “Without grammar very little can be conveyed, without vocabulary nothing can be conveyed” (Wilkins, 1972, pp. 111-112). In fact, Nation (2001) stated that vocabulary is necessary for achieving these skills successfully. Therefore, the association between vocabulary richness and the level of second language learners is inevitable (Milton, 2013; Nation, 2022). Consequently, measuring vocabulary knowledge is essential for diagnostic or placement determination. Namaziandost et al. (2020) argue that a lack of grammar ability leads to very little communication, however, without vocabulary nothing can be communicated. Therefore, the proficiency level of an individual in any language is linked to the size of the possessed receptive vocabulary.

Vocabulary size is linked to different language skills such as academic accomplishment in particular subjects. Vocabulary knowledge is a key feature in the determination of proficiency in all facets of language, for example, writing, reading, listening, and speaking (Qian & Linda, 2019). Moreover, in the process of writing, vocabulary knowledge is a key feature in characterizing the level of the writing feature (Chen et al., 2021). Asiah et al. (2020) argued that a lack of vocabulary knowledge will affect the quality of writing. Therefore, it is important to gain knowledge of vocabulary in the understanding of different features of a language, especially in the learning process of a second language and the appropriate quantity of vocabulary words is paramount (Milton, 2013). It is evident that as soon as learners of a second language develop their vocabulary, they become capable of developing greater fluency and expression.

A number of linguists divided vocabulary into receptive and productive mastery knowledge (Read, 2000; Nation, 2001; Schmitt & Schmitt, 2014). Similarly, Dana (2022, p. 1) has categorized the vocabulary into active (learners can use and utter) and passive vocabulary (limited to recognition, cannot utter). Receptive vocabulary knowledge concerns reading and listening activities of learners. According to Webb (2013), receptive vocabulary only impacts meaning, and particular words are identified and understood but cannot be used in spoken and written language. Research on vocabulary in a foreign or second language is a multifaceted and perplexing phenomenon. The findings of different studies affirm the numerous challenges faced by the researchers in coping with the exact nature of vocabulary: how vocabulary develops in the learning process, and the effects of contextual and individual disparity. The notable patterns that emerge in the process of acquiring a second language vocabulary are educational and social (Lou & Noels, 2019). Teachers mainly record the volume of vocabulary receptivity or productivity of a student when he or she joins the school and at the end of the session or course to show an increased pattern of what the student can easily achieve (Rezai et al., 2022). Also, it is necessary to evaluate the lexical extent of students before the commencement of a particular course to set language levels, organize language activities, and design and implement the appropriate syllabus for encouraging results (Çetin, 2019). In this regard, the Vocabulary Levels Test (VLT), which is a tool to measure the

written receptive vocabulary knowledge of an individual, and the Yes/No vocabulary test, which is a simple test format that is used to measure learners' receptive vocabulary size, have a significant effect on vocabulary studies (Read, 2019). Researchers have attempted to rectify issues such as what is a word, what it means to identify a word, what is the least vocabulary size for academic programs to adopt in a specific second language as a medium of teaching, and what is the least amount needed to comprehend a specific language text (Read, 1988; Hunt & Beglar, 2005; Nagy & Townsend, 2012).

II. VOCABULARY TESTING

Two prominent tests commonly used in English as a second language research are the VLT and the VST (Vocabulary Size Test). The VLT was designed with a pedagogical goal to enable teachers to highlight second language learners' receptive vocabulary gaps (Nation & Webb, 2011; Webb & Nation, 2017). It encompasses sampled words from the Academic Word List, including 2,000, 3,000, and 5,000, as well as the 10,000 common words in English. Each of its three sections contains five frequency levels, requiring the examinee to match definitions to six words. This test initially, the focuses on frequently occurring words and progressively increases in vocabulary difficulty. However, the VLT was later updated by Webb et al. (2017) and is employed as an instrument in this study.

The Yes/No vocabulary test, inspired by Meara's (1992) work, serves as an alternative to the manifold choice in vocabulary testing and develops the Eurocentres VST. This test employs a simpler format compared to the VLT with the same objectives. Academic words are also a focus of the VLT Yes/No test. In this test, examinees receive a checklist and are instructed to recognize given words within the list. This test is used at various levels, encompassing 2,000, 3,000, 4,000, and 5,000-word levels, each with 60 words. Both tests use distinct materials to evaluate the receptive vocabulary of learners, avoiding inaccurate scores that can result from examinees misjudging word knowledge, including imaginary words. However, the VLT uses graded frequency lists for word selection and word knowledge. Nevertheless, both tests have advantages and drawbacks, but they are generally acknowledged as reliable measures of receptive vocabulary.

III. LANGUAGE PROFICIENCY AND VOCABULARY SIZE

Vocabulary plays a crucial role in language proficiency and academic performance (Roche et al., 2014). It is evident that vocabulary knowledge increases with proficiency. Qian and Lin (2019) affirmed that the size and proficiency of L2 lexical capabilities develop in tandem with L2 skills, with other factors such as metacognitive awareness being less proficiency-dependent. They employed a yes/no checklist test and found that vocabulary size is a dominant factor in determining language proficiency. Sadullaev (2021) identified vocabulary as the most influential component for text comprehension. He attempted to identify the adequate vocabulary size for reading comprehension and noted that this is a complex phenomenon, with different contexts yielding divers results. Nonetheless, there is consensus that a congenial reading level requires a minimum acquaintance with 5,000 words (Liu, 2020). In fact, Hsu (2020) recommended that a richer vocabulary of 8,000-9,000 words is needed to comprehend written texts such as newspapers and novels.

In a similar context to the current study, Altalhab (2019) investigated the vocabulary knowledge of Saudi EFL Tertiary Students at King Saud University. These students shared similarities in terms of their mother language, locality, age, and educational level. The researcher employed a vocabulary knowledge test comprising 140 items, each with four options to select the correct meaning of the target word, based on Nation and Beglar's (2011) design. The findings revealed that the vocabulary size of the students was approximately 3,000 words. Moreover, the study showed that students could communicate at a basic level, capable of reading simple texts and understanding listening materials. However, comprehending more complex texts, understanding English TV programs and films, and writing high-quality compositions remained challenging for them. Thus, the study recommends a greater focus on vocabulary learning in schools and universities. Similar findings were observed in comparable contexts (Milton & Al-Masrai, 2012; Alqarni, 2019).

Stoeckel et al. (2021) examined the vocabulary size test designed to measure the vocabulary required for reading skills, suggesting that the existing test formats might miscalculate receptive vocabulary knowledge. They recommended shifting from a recognition format to a recall format, employing word families instead of lemmas, and increasing the size of items to improve test accuracy. Amenta et al. (2021) developed LexITA assessment tool to objectively measure the Italian receptive vocabulary knowledge of learners. Their study aimed to fill the gap in objectively assessing Italian L2 lexical knowledge. Group 1 was comprised of 58 university students and Group 2 consisted of 141 students at different universities in Belgium and the Netherlands. The findings of the study showed that LexITA was authenticated to measure and assess the vocabulary knowledge of L2 speakers of Italian spanning different levels of proficiency. Furthermore, it was revealed that L1 speakers scored higher than L2 speakers.

Miralpeix and Munoz (2018) explored the relationship between receptive vocabulary size and EFL language skills for advanced learners. The population of the study was 42 learners of advanced and EFL students who were fluent in all language skills. The findings of the study affirmed that the vocabulary plays a crucial role in language proficiency. Learners with smaller vocabularies exhibited lower proficiency in receptive and productive skills, with the most significant impact on writing skills. Cameron (2002) studied the memory size of English as an additional language

(EAL). The researcher employed the VLT and the Yes/No test to measure the size of the possessed vocabulary amongst UK secondary-level students. The first stage findings show that VLT is useful compared to a Yes/No test because non-words in it cause variable results. In the second stage of the study, the researcher included 63 students who were studying English as an additional language and 84 students who spoke exclusively in English. The outcomes of the results show a distinct pattern between both contexts. EAL students illustrate shortcomings in frequently used words of English and these gaps were extended for the less used words. Moreover, mean scores of EAL and t-tests show a significant difference (at the 3,000- and 5,000-word levels) for both participants of the study. Thus, it is concluded that VLT is a viable research and pedagogical tool in EAL and provides a compliant image of the receptive vocabulary test.

Ha (2021) examined the correlation between different aspects of receptive vocabulary knowledge and second language listening and reading comprehension. He adopted the IELTS, UVLT (Updated Vocabulary Levels Test), and LVL (Listening Vocabulary Levels Test) testing techniques for different listening and reading exercises to assess the capabilities of Vietnamese language learners (EFL). The findings of the study entailed that orthographic and receptive vocabulary knowledge were powerfully correlated and of significance to second language listening and reading knowledge. Receptive vocabulary was a great aspect of the fluency of receptive language skills. Moreover, academic listening and reading performance is highly linked with academic vocabulary knowledge. The findings of different studies highlight the significance of vocabulary knowledge to gain the appropriate listening and reading capabilities of any language. Furthermore, different researchers agree that the acquaintance of 95% to 98% of frequently employed words in the text is mandatory for an adequate understanding of the text (Laufer, 2003; Schmitt et al., 2011). Moreover, Cheng and Matthews (2018) distinguished between reading and listening skills based on perceived vocabulary and characterized reading text as a temporary permanent, which can be accessed by the readers repeatedly, whereas listening activities provide a short period of time to the learners. Therefore, listening is perceived as a comparatively challenging activity when compared to reading in subjects to provision common lexical items. Albashtawi et al. (2016) examined the performance of Jordanian students in different English language skills and revealed they performed poorly due to inadequate capabilities of acquired vocabulary. Atas (2018) investigated the role of vocabulary knowledge in the listening skills of English as a second language. The Vocabulary Levels Test (Schmitt et al., 2001), which was a revised version of Nation's (1983) VLT, was employed for assessing the vocabulary proficiency of participants while a standardized listening test, the Cambridge Certificate of Proficiency in English, was utilized for the evaluation of listening levels. The results of the study showed that vocabulary knowledge had a significant correlation with listening capabilities. Furthermore, the 5,000-word frequency emerged as the most effective predictor of the variance in listening comprehension, and both of these findings carried significant implications for enhancing listening comprehension in EFL contexts.

In summary, various studies highlight the significance of vocabulary knowledge in language proficiency and academic performance. A robust vocabulary is essential for comprehension and proficiency in reading, listening, and writing. Different researchers emphasize the importance of vocabulary knowledge in reaching a satisfactory level of language understanding. These findings underline the critical role of vocabulary in language learning and proficiency. This study attempts to seek the vocabulary level of students in their transitional phase (graduated from high school, but still have not joined university). This study employed Webb et al.'s (2017) UVLT as it is considered to have the largest vocabulary knowledge besides its size.

IV. METHODOLOGY

Participants in this study were 83 Saudi students. All were male native speakers of Arabic who started learning English in the upper levels of primary school at the age of 9, taking part in two 45-minute classes per week. However, when they moved to intermediate, and also secondary school, English was taught for four classes per week, with each class being 45 minutes in length. Their age group is 19-21 years old and they finished secondary school yet did not join university (at the time of writing). The transition from schools to universities (post-secondary education) is a crucial stage for most students (Parker et al., 2006; Wilson et al., 2022). Therefore, this age group was chosen, in addition, to see an indication of students' English progress after completing general education. English textbooks used in the Kingdom "follows the Common European Framework of Reference (CEFR), which is divided into the basic, intermediate, and advanced levels. Basic is A1-A2, intermediate is B1-B2, and advanced is C1-C2" (Aljouei & Alsuhailani, 2018, p. 143). Students, according to the Ministry of Education (2013), should achieve a B2+ (upper intermediate) level.

UVLT¹ utilized in this study was designed or perhaps modified and updated by Webb et al. (2017). The uniqueness of this test is that it measures knowledge rather than size, which is considered more authentic and reliable. Hence, frequently used words were chosen. These words were selected from Nation's (2012) British National Corpus/Corpus of Contemporary American English (BNC/COCA) word lists. The chosen words were seen as more appropriate and useful for EFL learners when compared to other lists (Dang & Webb, 2016). Unlike the previous VLT, UVLT checks the most frequently used vocabulary of the 1,000-, 2,000-, 3,000-, 4,000-, and 5,000-word levels. According to Webb et

¹ The test can be found on Webb's university webpage <https://www.edu.uwo.ca/faculty-profiles/stuart-webb.html>.

al. (2017), the test was validated with around 1,500 participants from more than 20 countries, one of them being Saudi Arabi although a relatively small portion, namely 74 participants.

A. Procedure

Participants were given 150 items with each level consisting of 30 items. They needed to match each meaning with its word by placing a tick (see Table 1). Test-takers should score a minimum of 29/30 (96.7%) for mastery of the 1,000-, 2,000-, and 3000-word levels; however, for the 4,000- and 5,000-word levels, the cut-off point of mastery would be 24/30 (80%) (Webb et al., 2017). Participants were given 60 minutes to complete the test.

B. Data Analysis

Each student from the 83 students had his actual score awarded according to his answers. For each word level, the mean for students' scores and percentages were calculated in order to identify the cut-off point for each word level according to Webb et al.'s (2017) suggestions (see Table 2).

TABLE 1
EXAMPLE OF ITEMS IN THE UPDATED VOCABULARY LEVELS TEST (WEBB ET AL., 2017)

	check	fight	return	tell	work	write
do things to get money						
go back again						
make sure						

V. FINDINGS AND DISCUSSION

To ascertain the receptive vocabulary knowledge of participants at specific frequency levels (1,000-5,000) based on the UVLT employed, the mean and percentages were calculated for each word level (see Table 2). For the first 1,000-word level, the mean and percentages were 22.63/30 (75.30%), 16.39/30 (54.70%) for the 2000-word level, and 9.31/30 (31%) for the 3,000-word level. These scores were below the suggested cut-off point for the mastery of the 1,000-, 2,000-, and 3,000-word levels, as it was 29/30 (96.67%) (Webb et al., 2017). However, there were a number of students who achieved the minimum recommended scores for these levels, namely 24 students for the 1,000-word level, 7 students for the 2,000-word level, and one student for the 3,000-word level. For the 4,000-word level, the mean and percentages were 8.90/30 (29.70%), and 7.68/30 (25.60%) for the 5,000-word level (see Table 2). Again, these results were below the suggested cut-off point for each level, as it should equal or exceed 24/30 (80%) (Webb et al., 2017). However, 6 and 4 students, respectively, managed to achieve the threshold. The findings of this study indicate poor outcomes of mainly public schools in English, even after the reforms in 2004 when English was introduced at the primary stage in public schools. Therefore, introducing English from the primary stage has not shown any significant effect. In similar contexts, a number of studies corroborate this conclusion, as the English level of students, unfortunately, is far from meeting expectations (Al-Hazemi, 1993; Al-Nujaidai, 2003; Al-Johani, 2009; Alnasser, 2013; Al-Tamimi, 2019). The Ministry of Education asserted that students are expected to possess a vocabulary of approximately 3,000 words upon secondary graduation, yet this claim has been subject to doubt and does not consistently align with reality (Alqarni, 2019). Therefore, Alsuhailani et al. (2023) have reported that there is a gap between the official objectives for English levels and the actual level that students ascertain. These findings, along with the current one, suggest that there should be a reconciliation between the objectives and outcomes and what is happening in the field. In addition, the results of even English major undergraduate students were also below expectations, although a different test was conducted (Alqarni, 2019; Altalhab, 2019). This gives us a clear picture of the level of most public school graduate students, especially in vocabulary acquisition.

Despite strict standards in the current test – with 29/30 required to master the first three (1,000-3,000) word families – the average score is far from the desired goal. However, participants presumably could have known some of these words, especially in the 1,000- and 2,000-word levels, perhaps in simple contexts (sentences). The current test reviews vocabulary knowledge more than the vocabulary size for each participant. Even though UVLT is considered stricter than similar tests, it is highly recommended to have familiarity with 95% to 98% of frequently used words in a text for a comprehensive understanding of the text (Laufer, 2003; Schmitt et al., 2011). The empirical evidence presented in this study and other studies offers important insights into pedagogical considerations related to enhancing ELT, particularly in terms of vocabulary knowledge. These findings underscore the significance of incorporating or enhancing both the breadth and depth of vocabulary knowledge to boost overall EFL proficiency. Therefore, Enayat and Derakhshan's (2021) suggested guidance for developing assessment rubrics that specifically address the lexical aspect of L2 speaking is important to note.

TABLE 2
THE MEAN AND PERCENTAGE SCORES IN UVLT

Word Level	Mean	Percentage
1,000	22.62651	75.30%
2,000	16.38554	54.70%
3,000	9.313253	31.00%
4,000	8.903614	29.70%
5,000	7.674699	25.60%
Total	65.08434	43.39%

VI. CONCLUSION

This study has examined the vocabulary knowledge of Saudi students who have recently graduated from secondary school. The results of UVLT indicate that the participants' vocabulary knowledge is below the expected levels for each vocabulary category. The low performance of participants in the realm of low-frequency vocabulary offers valuable insights into students' English language abilities and their capacity to handle various language skills, hence insufficient performance at perhaps a basic communication level. Although scores obtained from vocabulary tests can be interpreted in various ways such as assessing learners' receptive vocabulary knowledge, it can also be seen as a potent indicator for educational institutions' programmes. The current study sheds light on the vocabulary proficiency of Saudi graduate students who have been studying the same textbooks and attending the same number of classes in mostly public schools. Hence, a comprehensive evaluation of the English curriculum, number of classes, and teaching techniques is urgently recommended. This study has arrived at similar conclusions to other studies conducted since 1993. For example, Al-Hazemi (1993) indicated that post-high school military cadets had a vocabulary ranging from 800 to 2,000 words, with an average mean score hovering around 1,000 words. Al-Nujaidi's (2003) study reported that first-year Saudi university students performed inadequately in vocabulary size assessments. His results demonstrated an average vocabulary size of roughly 500 to 700 words at the 2,000- and 3,000-word levels and approximately 75 words in the realm of academic vocabulary. Despite the insights offered by this study into the vocabulary competency of Saudi secondary graduate students, it is crucial to recognize a potential limitation for future studies. This would include other factors that could lead to better understanding, such as scores in general and in English in particular, other types of schools (such as private school students), female students, and different demographic backgrounds. These factors have the potential to impact the overall outcomes in similar research endeavours. Future research should encompass a wider array of assessments aimed at evaluating academic vocabulary and gauging academic listening and reading comprehension to substantiate these findings such as TOEFL, IELTS, or STEP. In addition, it is worth noting that the relatively limited sample size may constrain the applicability of the findings to a broader population. Therefore, subsequent studies should readdress this matter with more extensive participant cohorts to arrive at more dependable and comprehensive conclusions.

ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

I would like to thank my colleague Dr Sultan Altalhab for his assistance in collecting the data. Without his support, this paper could not be completed.

REFERENCES

- [1] Albashtawi, A. H., Jaganathan, P., & Singh, M. (2016). Linguistic Knowledge Aspects in Academic Reading: Challenges and Deployed Strategies by English-Major Undergraduates at a Jordanian Institution of Higher Education. *Higher Education Studies*, 6(3), 61-71.
- [2] Al-Hazemi, H. (1993). *Low level EFL vocabulary tests for Arabic speakers*. Unpublished doctoral dissertation. University of Wales, Swansea, UK.
- [3] Aljouei, K., & Alsuhailbani, Y. (2018). Evaluating traveller English textbook series from Saudi Secondary School EFL Teachers' Perspectives. *English Language Teaching*, 11(12), 138-153.
- [4] Al-Nujaidi, A. H. (2003). *The Relationship between Vocabulary Size, Reading Strategies, and Reading Comprehension of EFL Learners in Saudi*. Unpublished doctoral dissertation. Colorado State University: Fort Collins, Colorado.
- [5] Alqarni, I. R. (2019). Receptive vocabulary size of male and female Saudi English major graduates. *International Journal of English Linguistics*, 9(1), 111-119.
- [6] Alsuhailbani, Y., Altalhab, S., Borg, S., & Alharbi, R. (2023). 15 years' experience of teaching English in Saudi Primary Schools: Supervisors' and teachers' perspectives. *Linguistics and Education*, 77, 101222, 1-12.
- [7] Altalhab, S. (2019). The Vocabulary Knowledge of Saudi EFL Tertiary Students. *English Language Teaching*, 12(5), 55-65.
- [8] Amenta, S., Badan, L., & Brysbaert, M. (2021). LexITA: A quick and reliable assessment tool for Italian L2 receptive vocabulary size. *Applied Linguistics*, 42(2), 292-314.
- [9] Asiah, N., Ardian, E., & Amri, S. (2020). A Study on The Students' factor Difficulty in Writing Narrative Text at Viii Grade of Mts Sabila Muhtadin Tembilahan. *J-Shelves of Indragiri (Jsi)*, 1(2), 84-97.
- [10] Atas, U. (2018). The Role of Receptive Vocabulary Knowledge in Advanced EFL Listening Comprehension. *TESL-EJ*, 21(4), 1-12.

- [11] Cameron, L. (2002). Measuring vocabulary size in English as an additional language. *Language Teaching Research*, 6(2), 145-173.
- [12] Çetin, K. B. (2019). *Evaluating the Lexical Component of EFL Course Books*. Doctoral dissertation. Bursa Uludag University, Turkey.
- [13] Chen, C. H., Hung, H. T., & Yeh, H. C. (2021). Virtual reality in problem-based learning contexts: Effects on the problem-solving performance, vocabulary acquisition and motivation of English language learners. *Journal of Computer Assisted Learning*, 37(3), 851-860.
- [14] Cheng, J., & Matthews, J. (2018). The relationship between three measures of L2 vocabulary knowledge and L2 listening and reading. *Language Testing*, 35(1), 3-25.
- [15] Dana, I. K. W. (2022). Contextual Teaching and Learning (CTL) Strategy in Vocabulary Acquisition in the Correlation of Improving Learner's Listening Skill Comprehension. In *Proceedings 5th International Conference of Sustainable Development (ICSD) 2021* (pp. 1-8).
- [16] Dang, T. N. Y., & Webb, S. (2016). Evaluating lists of high-frequency words. *ITL-International Journal of Applied Linguistics*, 167(2), 132-158.
- [17] Enayat, M. J., & Derakhshan, A. (2021). Vocabulary size and depth as predictors of second language speaking ability. *System*, 99, 102521, 97-114.
- [18] Gairns, R. and Redman, S. (1986). *Working with words: a guide to teaching and learning vocabulary*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.
- [19] Ha, H. T. (2021). Exploring the relationships between various dimensions of receptive vocabulary knowledge and L2 listening and reading comprehension. *Language Testing in Asia*, 11(1), 1-20.
- [20] Hsu, W. (2020). Can TED talk transcripts serve as extensive reading material for mid-frequency vocabulary learning? *TEFLIN Journal*, 31(2), 181-203.
- [21] Hunt, A., & Beglar, D. (2005). A framework for developing EFL reading vocabulary. *Reading in a Foreign Language*, 17, 23-59.
- [22] Laufer, B. (2003). Vocabulary acquisition in a second language: Do learners really acquire most vocabulary by reading? Some empirical evidence. *Canadian Modern Language Review*, 59(4), 567-587.
- [23] Liu, S. (2020). *Sentiment analysis of Yelp reviews: a comparison of techniques and models*. arXiv preprint arXiv:2004.13851.
- [24] Lou, N. M., & Noels, K. A. (2019). Promoting growth in foreign and second language education: A research agenda for mindsets in language learning and teaching. *System*, 86, 102126, 102-126.
- [25] Meara, P. M. (1992). *EFL vocabulary tests*. New York: ERIC Clearinghouse.
- [26] Milton, J. (2013). Measuring the contribution of vocabulary knowledge to proficiency in the four skills. C. Bardel, C. Lindqvist, & B. Laufer (Eds.) *L*, 2, 57-78.
- [27] Milton, J., & Al-Masrai, A. (2012). The vocabulary knowledge of university students in Saudi Arabia. *Perspectives (TESOL Arabia)*, 19(3), 13-19.
- [28] Ministry of Education. (2013). *English Language Curriculum for Elementary, Intermediate, and Secondary Schools in the Kingdom of Saudi Arabia Grades 4 to 12 (2014-2020)*. Saudi Arabia: English Language Department.
- [29] Miralpeix, I., & Muñoz, C. (2018). Receptive vocabulary size and its relationship to EFL language skills. *International Review of Applied Linguistics in Language Teaching*, 56(1), 1-24.
- [30] Nagy, W., & Townsend, D. (2012). Words as tools: Learning academic vocabulary as language acquisition. *Reading Research Quarterly*, 47(1), 91-108.
- [31] Namaziandost, E., Hosseini, E., & Utomo, D. W. (2020). A comparative effect of high involvement load versus lack of involvement load on vocabulary learning among Iranian sophomore EFL learners. *Cogent Arts & Humanities*, 7(1), 1715525, 1-15.
- [32] Nation, I. S. P. (1983). Testing and teaching vocabulary. *Guidelines*, 5, 12-25.
- [33] Nation, I. S. P. (2001). *Learning vocabulary in another language*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.
- [34] Nation, I. S. P. (2006). How large a vocabulary is needed for reading and listening? *Canadian Modern Language Review*, 63(1), 59-82.
- [35] Nation, I. S. P. (2012). *Notes on the BNC/COCA lists*. Wellington: New Zealand: Victoria University of Wellington. Retrieved October 10, 2023, from <http://www.victoria.ac.nz/lals/staff/paul-nation.aspx>
- [36] Nation, I. S. P. (2022). *Learning Vocabulary in Another Language*. Cambridge University Press.
- [37] Nation, I.S.P. & Beglar, D. (2007). A vocabulary size test. *The Language Teacher*, 31(7), 9-13.
- [38] Nation, I. S. P., & Webb, S. A. (2011). *Researching and analyzing vocabulary*. Boston, MA: Heinle, Cengage Learning.
- [39] Parker, J. D., Hogan, M. J., Eastabrook, J. M., Oke, A., & Wood, L. M. (2006). Emotional intelligence and student retention: Predicting the successful transition from high school to university. *Personality and Individual Differences*, 41(7), 1329-1336.
- [40] Qian, D. D., & Lin, L. H. (2019). The relationship between vocabulary knowledge and language proficiency. *The Routledge Handbook of Vocabulary Studies*, 66-80.
- [41] Read, J. (1988). Measuring the vocabulary knowledge of second language learners. *RELJ Journal*, 19(2), 12-25.
- [42] Read, J. (2000). *Assessing vocabulary*. Cambridge university press.
- [43] Read, J. (2019). Key issues in measuring vocabulary knowledge. *The Routledge Handbook of Vocabulary Studies*.
- [44] Rezai, A., Rahul, D. R., Asif, M., Omar, A., & Reshad Jamalyar, A. (2022). Contributions of E-portfolios assessment to developing EFL learners' vocabulary, motivation, and attitudes. *Education Research International*.
- [45] Roche, M., Haar, J. M., & Luthans, F. (2014). The role of mindfulness and psychological capital on the well-being of leaders. *Journal of Occupational Health Psychology*, 19(4), 476-489.
- [46] Sadullaev, D. B. (2021). Renaissance and Renaissance Philosophical Texts Through the Prism of Historical Approach. *The American Journal of Social Science and Education Innovations*, 3(05), 364-371.
- [47] Samuels, S. (1967). Attentional process in reading: The effect of pictures on the acquisition of reading responses. *Journal of Educational Psychology*, 58, 337-442.

- [48] Schmitt, N., Jiang, X., & Grabe, W. (2011). The percentage of words known in a text and reading comprehension. *The Modern Language Journal*, 95(1), 26-43.
- [49] Schmitt, N., & Schmitt, D. (2014). A reassessment of frequency and vocabulary size in L2 vocabulary teaching. *Language Teaching*, 47(4), 484-503.
- [50] Schmitt, N., Schmitt, D., & Clapham, C. (2001). Developing and exploring the behaviour of the two new versions of the Vocabulary Levels Test. *Language Testing*, 18, 55-89.
- [51] Stoeckel, T., McLean, S., & Nation, P. (2021). Limitations of size and levels tests of written receptive vocabulary knowledge. *Studies in Second Language Acquisition*, 43(1), 181-203.
- [52] Thornbury, S. (2002). *How to teach vocabulary*. Harlow: Longman.
- [53] Webb, S. (2013). Depth of vocabulary knowledge. *The Encyclopedia of Applied Linguistics*, 346-354.
- [54] Webb, S., & Nation, P. (2017). *How vocabulary is learned*. Oxford University Press.
- [55] Webb, S., Sasao, Y., & Ballance, O. (2017). The updated Vocabulary Levels Test: Developing and validating two new forms of the VLT. *ITL-International Journal of Applied Linguistics*, 168(1), 33-69.
- [56] Wilkins, D. A. (1972). *Grammatical, Situational and Notional Syllabuses*.
- [57] Wilson, C. A., Dave, H., D'Costa, M., Babcock, S. E., & Saklofske, D. H. (2022). Reaching the Finish Line: Personality and Persistence in Post-Secondary Education. *Canadian Journal of Higher Education*, 52(2), 1-16.

Yasser Alsuhaibani was born in Riyadh, Saudi Arabia. He earned his Ph.D. in Applied Linguistics from Newcastle University, United Kingdom. He is currently an Associate Professor in the Department of Curriculum and Instruction at the College of Education, King Saud University, Riyadh. His research interests focus on English language teaching, bilingualism, language education policies, and vocabulary instruction. In addition to his teaching and consulting work, Dr. Alsuhaibani serves as the Head of the Educational Centre for Professional Development at King Saud University.

Benefits of Digital Editing for Japanese Writing Instruction

Kazuhito Uni*

Faculty of Cultural Sciences, Universitas Gadjah Mada, Yogyakarta, Indonesia

Abstract—This study examined the benefits of digital editing for Japanese writing instruction for Indonesian students. The participants of this study were 44 Indonesian university students who had majored in Japanese language and culture for approximately one year. The author of this study taught this course online for seven weeks and asked the participants to email photographs of their essays to him. The teacher first typed the texts of the participants' essays into Microsoft Word and then he corrected them, adding notes to the students. In this study, students were assigned points for their practice essay and final examination to the maximum of 50 to facilitate the comparison of the scores across individuals. The participants' practice essays were not scored. The participants were asked to compose on a sheet of 400-character manuscript paper. The teacher deducted one point for each error in grammar, spelling, particle, vocabulary, and conjugation. On average, out of 50 possible points, the participants obtained 37.82 points in the first writing practice and 46.91 points in the final examination. At a 5% level, the scores before and after the instruction through digital editing showed statistically significant differences ($p < 0.001$, $df = 43$, $t = 15.33$). These results show that digital editing using Microsoft Word improves Japanese-language learners' writing proficiency.

Index Terms—awareness, correction, digital editing, Japanese, writing

I. INTRODUCTION

A. Writing Systems in Japanese

Cook and Bassetti (2005), who explored learning the writing systems of various languages, including Japanese, indicated that the degree of morphological and phonological transparency in the target language determines its difficulty for learners. Japanese is written in two systems of phonetic characters called *hiragana* and *katakana*. Chinese characters, referred to in Japanese as *kanji*, are also used, and they have limited phonological transparency. The complex Japanese writing system affects writing instruction for learners of Japanese.

B. Importance of Correction in Writing Activities

Ensuring grammatically accurate writing is an important part of improving learners' productive skills. To this end, teachers should correct learners' writing to highlight repetitive errors and propose the most appropriate grammatical structures and lexical items.

The Society for Teaching Japanese as a Foreign Language (1990) suggested that the accurate use of characters, deployment of lexical and grammatical items, and expression of thoughts and opinions should be clearly distinguished as different elements that should be considered and given balanced attention in writing instruction, although this is difficult to balance the focus on these three elements.

C. Disadvantages of Manual Editing

The weekly composition assignments were handwritten, which was inconvenient for the teacher to edit. Texts edited by hand are difficult for students to read. Moreover, the reason or type of error marked is often not mentioned owing to space limitations.

For this reason, the teacher adopted digital editing on a trial basis, as this was a more learner-friendly approach. The most convenient aspect of digital editing using Microsoft Word is that this method suggests corrected texts in a typed form. This allows learners to easily correct their writing and save it for future use, such as for reviewing their mistakes or creating a learning portfolio. In addition, the corrections are easier to read in the digital format than in manually edited texts.

II. LITERATURE REVIEW

The Japan Foundation's (2011b) study stressed that instruction for intermediate learners focuses on the language content rather than the form. At this stage, topics closely related to learners' interests are used to motivate them to express their opinions and enhance their grammatical and lexical knowledge.

* Corresponding Author. Email: kazuhito.uni@gmail.com

Uni (2022b) investigated the effectiveness of using Japanese writing exercises that express moral values when teaching Japanese to Malaysian students and highlighted the importance of such exercise content. Extracts from a Japanese entrepreneur's book that discussed moral values were used as sample texts in writing exercises. The themes of these extracts, which included developing good habits and expressing gratitude, attracted the learners' interest.

Sugiura and Kido (2020) provided numerous practical suggestions on Japanese writing instruction for intermediate learners. Their study emphasized the importance of identifying a central idea and explicitly stating topics at the beginning of each paragraph. Next, learners present reasons and add other details regarding their opinions. In addition, their research recommended conducting discussion among learners to enable them to become aware of the differences in their viewpoints. When relativizing their ideas and values, learners can write texts objectively.

Learners' writing skills are closely associated with lexical and grammatical knowledge. Ringbom (2007) described the positive and negative impacts of the lexical and grammatical similarities between learners' first and their target languages. For instance, Swedish-speaking English learners in Ringbom's study wrote and spoke English more accurately than Finnish-speaking participants. Ringbom conjectured that the Finnish-speaking participants' performance was a result of the grammatical, morphologic, and phonetic differences between English and Finnish. Ringbom's (2012) review of recent studies in applied linguistics from Finland and Sweden identified positive effects of cross-linguistic similarities. English and Dutch vocabularies have thousands of items that share etymologies, called cognates. Poort and Rodd (2017) explored the usefulness of cross-linguistic cognates by observing Dutch-English bilinguals' lexical choices between cognates and noncognates. Lithuanian is among the most remote Indo-European languages in Europe from English. Uni's (2022a) study suggested that using the many shared cognates of Latin or Greek origin that are similar between the two languages would enable English speakers to learn Lithuanian more easily.

However, etymological similarity seldom exists between unrelated languages such as Japanese and Southeast Asian languages. The study by the Japan Foundation (2007) suggested that grammatical and lexical differences between learners' first language and Japanese can lead to difficulty in understanding certain features of the target language.

Uni (2022c) explored the advantages of using the Instagram and WhatsApp software for online Japanese instruction for Malaysian university students during the COVID-19 pandemic. The study found that the effective use of social network systems appeared to support learning Japanese. Uni's study focused in particular on interference caused by the learners' first language. A participant in that study incorrectly rendered ゆうめい (*yūmei*) and アニメーション (*animēshon*) as ゆめい (*yumei*) and アニメション (*animeshon*), respectively. This suggests that the absence of long vowels in that learner's first language, Malay, caused phonetic and orthographic errors.

Malay and Indonesian belong to the Austronesian family of languages and are somewhat mutually intelligible as Indonesian is based on a Malay dialect that has been standardized as the national language of Indonesia since the mid-twentieth century (Crystal, 2010). Because learners' first language affects their foreign language learning, the errors that Malay and Indonesian speakers make in Japanese may be similar.

Learners' lexical knowledge can be improved using vocabulary lists and maps. Tokuhiko (2010) proposed the use of vocabulary maps with English, Korean, and Mandarin translations, exemplifying groups of lexical items in 14 fields, such as nature, daily life, food, and hobbies. For instance, 音楽 (*ongaku*) "music" is at the center of a cluster of words including 歌 (*uta*) "song," 歌手 (*kashu*) "singer," 歌う (*utau*) "sing," and ピアノ (*piano*) "piano." Such categorization can enhance writing skills.

However, the Japan Foundation's (2011a) study pointed out the disadvantages of the use of vocabulary lists and maps, noting that these materials carry the risk of demotivating certain learners who are unaccustomed to rote memorization. Therefore, teachers should use lists and maps carefully based on students' needs and preferences.

Matsumoto (2013), who investigated word recognition models for Chinese characters in Japanese and Mandarin, discovered that when the study participants read semantic information on Chinese characters, their orthographic processing was more closely connected with comprehension of meaning than was their phonological processing. Thus, semantic features are important for the reading, writing, and vocabulary learning in Japanese.

Uni (2019) proposed an approach to learning Japanese vocabulary that focuses on semantic similarities between Japanese words, such as 光 (*hikari*) ("light") and 輝く (*kagayaku*) ("shine"), and their Malay equivalents, such as *cahaya* ("light") and *bercahaya* ("shine"). These cross-linguistic pairs share radicals that mean "light." In addition, Rose (2013) analyzed Japanese-language learners' use of mnemonic strategies for learning *kanji* characters and their components. His study suggested that semantic aspects primarily helped learners memorize *kanji* characters.

III. METHODOLOGY

A. Participants

The participants of this study were 44 Indonesian university students who had majored in Japanese language and culture for approximately one year. They attended a composition class once per week and took conversation, listening, and reading classes in the first semester of their second year.

B. Details of the Writing Activities

The learners were asked to handwrite their writing assignments. This requirement was imposed to prevent students from plagiarizing texts on the internet for their compositions. Moreover, the learners had had few opportunities to write Japanese by hand, and this strategy enabled them to spend more time on honing this skill. The participants were asked to compose on a sheet of 400-character manuscript paper. The direction of writing was vertical, as is the convention in composition classes.

The author of this study taught this course online for seven weeks and asked the participants to email photographs of their essays to him. The teacher first typed the texts of the participants' essays into Microsoft Word and then corrected them, adding notes for the students.

In this study, students were assigned maximum 50 points for their practice essay and final examination to facilitate the comparison of scores between individuals. The teacher deducted one point for each error in grammar, spelling, particle, vocabulary, or conjugation. The participants' practice essays were not scored. The main purpose of digital editing using Microsoft Word was to raise the participants' awareness about their errors and the reasons that they were incorrect.

C. Editing Notes Used in the Corrected Texts

The first type of note indicated the deletion of unnecessary words, as in “(→ ×).” For example, the editing note “大学(の→ ×)一年生” meant that the particle *の* (*no*) “of” between 大学 (*daigaku*) “university” and 一年生 (*ichinensei*) “first-year student” should be removed. The second type of note suggested using an alternative spelling using *kanji* for a word, indicated by “(→ write in *kanji*, i.e., [...]).” In particular, participants frequently used Arabic numerals even in vertically written Japanese texts that conventionally spell numerals in *kanji*.

The third type of note recommended movement of words, primarily as in “(→ move to the previous position)” or “(→ move to the following position).” This note indicated that a word or phrase should be moved to a more appropriate position in the sentence. The fourth type of note was correction, shown using “(→)” together with the corrected words. Additionally, error categories such as incorrect tense and informal tone were marked in this note. For example, the editing note “いる(→ いた <past tense>)” indicated that the present verb *いる* (*iru*) “there is” should be changed to *いた* (*ita*) “there was,” the past tense of *いる* (*iru*). As an optional correction, *今* (*ima*) “now” was amended to “今(or 現在 <formal>)” in the revision, which suggested 現在 (*genzai*) “present” as a more formal word than *今* (*ima*) “now.”

The fifth type of note was an addition, indicated by “(+)” along with additional words. When amending a student's text to recommend additions, the author corrected the phrase 高校生から (*kōkōsei kara*) “from a high school student” to 高校生(+のころ)から (*kōkōsei no koro kara*) “since I was a high school student,” as it appeared with the phrase 日本語を勉強しています (*nihongo o benkyō shiteimasu*) “I have been studying Japanese.”

Finally, a clean revision was presented separately below the text, with editing directions to allow the participants to save the clean text as part of their learning portfolio, making it useful for review at the end of the semester. Table 1 provides an example of the corrected text (above) and its clean revision (below).

TABLE 1
CORRECTED TEXT (ABOVE) AND ITS CLEAN REVISION (BELOW)

将来の夢 “dream for the future” 私は将来インドネシア語のきょうし(→ write in <i>kanji</i>, i.e., 教師)になりたいです。それは、いつか日本の大学でインドネシア語を教えたい(+から)です。 (+大学)一年生のころ、初めて小学生(+にインドネシア語)を教えました。(→それは、とても楽しい経験でした。)そして、(+同じころ、)日本から留学している友達は私たちの大学で日本語を教えて(+いて)、かつこい(→かつこよく)そうです(→見えました <past tense>。(→そのため、私も大学で教えたいと思いはじめました。) そのころから、私は(+将来、)日本に行ってインドネシア語を教えるために、日本語(+や日本に関するさまざまなこと)をよく(→個人的にも)勉強しています。今(or 現在 <formal>)も、私は日本語能力試験を(→に)合格するために、日本語(+を)きちんと(→熱心に)勉強しています。 そつぎょうこ(→ write in <i>kanji</i>, i.e., 卒業後)、私は日本へ行って(→留学し <more specific than 行って>)、日本語を(続けて→ ×)勉強する(→し続ける)つもりです。
将来の夢 “dream for the future” 私は将来インドネシア語の教師になりたいです。それは、いつか日本の大学でインドネシア語を教えたいからです。 大学一年生のころ、初めて小学生にインドネシア語を教えました。それは、とても楽しい経験でした。そして、同じころ、日本から留学している友達は私達の大学で日本語を教えていて、かつこよく見えました。そのため、私も大学で教えたいと思いはじめました。 そのころから、私は将来、日本に行ってインドネシア語を教えるために、日本語や日本に関するさまざまなことを個人的にも勉強しています。現在も、私は日本語能力試験に合格するために、日本語を熱心に勉強しています。 卒業後、私は日本へ留学し、日本語を勉強し続けるつもりです。

D. Topics of Practice Essays and the Final Examination

The themes “dream for the future”, “funny stories”, and “tourist sites I have visited”, used for practice essays were based on topics from the textbook *Minna no Nihongo: Intermediate I*. “The hardest thing I have attempted” was used

instead of “my failure”, the theme of a reading passage in Lesson 10. This substitution was made because learners may benefit more from describing their experiences positively. Another assignment was to write a practice essay on the theme of “hobbies and things I am good at” instead of the theme “karaoke,” the theme of the reading passage in Lesson 9.

The topic of the final exam was “a country I would like to visit.” This theme was announced to the students three days before the exam. They were then required to elaborate on the content of their texts before the exam. The use of cell phones and electronic dictionaries was prohibited during the exam, and the students were required to compose their texts by themselves.

IV. DATA ANALYSIS

A. Respondents' Scores

The participants averaged 37.82 points for the first practice and 46.91 points for the final examination. Microsoft Excel Version 2312 was used to perform statistical analyses of these data. At a 5% level, the scores before and after the instruction through digital editing showed statistically significant differences ($p < 0.001$, $df = 43$, $t = 15.33$). Table 2 presents the details of the respondents' scores, including their t - and p -values. Tables 3 and 4 in the appendix present the scores obtained for each respondent in the first writing practice and the final examination, respectively.

TABLE 2
DETAILS OF THE RESPONDENTS' SCORES

	First Practice	Final Examination
Mean	37.82	46.91
Standard Deviation	17.78	3.85
Total Number	44	44
t -Value	15.33	
p -Value	< 0.001	

B. Characteristics of Errors Observed in the Final Examination

Confusion regarding vowel length errors was noted in the exam results. For instance, しょうらい (*shōrai*) “future” was incorrectly spelled しょらい (*shorai*), showing a shortened vowel. Another similar example is that of アティスト (*atisuto*) instead of アーティスト (*ātisuto*) “artist”. Further, a student misspelled おいしそう (*oishisō*) “it seems delicious” as おいしそ (*oishiso*). The absence of long vowels in Indonesian may have led to their omission in learners' Japanese. However, a participant mistakenly spelled ばしょ (*basho*) “place” as ばしょう (*bashō*), lengthening the vowel in hypercorrection.

A much smaller number of errors were made in this exam compared with the first writing practice. A respondent incorrectly wrote いっしょに (*issho ni*) “together” as いしょに (*isho ni*), simplifying the double consonant; the Japanese homophone いしょ (*isho*) “testament”, which is similar to the incorrect spelling, risks confusing readers.

The errors in vowels and consonants observed in this study resemble those observed in Uni's (2022a, 2022b) studies conducted in Malay-speaking learners. Thus, interference caused by learners' first language was similar for speakers of both Malay and Indonesian.

A common error regarding the use of *kanji* is the absence of a component. One participant wrote 実祭 while intending to write 実際 (*jissai*) “in fact”; the left-side component of 際 was missing. The Chinese-origin pronunciation of the characters 祭 and 際 is *sai*, which may have confused the participant. A similar error was 里由 instead of 理由 (*riyū*) “reason” because the Chinese-origin pronunciations of the characters 里 and 理 (*ri*) are identical. In some cases, the stroke length of the characters was incorrect. For example, a student used 各 “each” instead of 名 “name” to write the adjective 有名な (*yūmeina*) “famous”.

Vocabulary errors were also greatly reduced in the exam. However, a respondent wrote アニメ物 (*anime mono*) when intending to write アニメグッズ (*anime guzzu*) “animation goods.” The use of collocated words such as グッズ (*guzzu*) “goods” seemed difficult for this participant at the upper beginner level. There were also minor errors, such as the use of 食物 (*shokumotsu*), primarily meaning “food” as a term in natural science, instead of 食べ物 (*tabemono*), meaning “food” as a common word. In a possible confusion with the word ふたつ (*futatsu*) “two things”, the respondent used ふたり (*futari*) “two people” to refer to two places. The most appropriate word is 二か所 (*ni kasho*) “two places”. The noun 試験 (*shiken*) “examination”, as well as the collocation 試験を受ける (*shiken o ukeru*) “take an examination”, includes the verb 受ける (*ukeru*) “accept”. Another participant incorrectly used the verb 受け取る (*uketoru*) “receive” because of confusion between the two verbs, which both include the *kanji* 受, meaning “accept” and “receive”.

Regarding demonstratives, the misuse of あそこ (*asoko*) “over there” and あの国 (*ano kuni*) “that country”, which includes an inappropriate demonstrative, was observed at instances where words such as そこ (*soko*) “there” or その国 (*sono kuni*) “that country” should be used.

There were mistakes with particles. For example, the particle を (*o*), which is used with the verb 訪れる (*otozureru*) “visit” to indicate a place as an object, was incorrectly replaced with に (*ni*) “to”. Additionally, the particle を (*o*) before 卒業する (*sotsugyō suru*) “graduate” also seemed difficult for learners to grasp. One reason for this may be that prepositions such as “from” are used in similar expressions in English. A participant wrote イギリスにお茶文化 (*Igirisu ni ocha bunka*), which may be modified to イギリスにおける紅茶文化 (*Igirisu ni okeru kōcha bunka*) “tea culture in the United Kingdom”. Because the particle に (*ni*) “in” cannot be directly connected to a noun, おける (*okeru*) was added. In addition, the noun お茶 (*ocha*), meaning “tea” generally, was corrected to 紅茶 (*kōcha*) “black tea” as a more specific term.

Some learners used the incorrect verb conjugation たいである (*tai de aru*), although たい (*tai*) “want to (+ a verb)” is sufficient. In Japanese, the combination of まだ (*mada*) “yet” and the negative verb form means “have not done yet”. A participant wrote まだ見ませんでした (*mada mimasendeshita*), including a past form, instead of まだ見ていません (*mada miteimasen*) possibly because an equivalent English structure includes a past participle.

A participant interested in Kyoto explained the reason by writing the sentence 京都にはたくさんの歴史があるからです (*Kyōto ni wa takusan no rekishi ga aru kara desu*), where たくさんの (*takusan no*) “many” does not match the noun 歴史 (*rekishi*) “history”. The combination of 京都には (*Kyōto ni wa*) and がある (*ga aru*) means “Kyoto has (+ an object)”. The correct expression would be modified to 歴史的建築物 (*rekishiteki kenchikubutsu*) “historical constructions”.

V. CONCLUSION

This study examined the benefits of digital editing for Japanese writing instruction for Indonesian university students who had majored in Japanese language and culture for about one year. On average, of the maximum 50 points, the participants obtained 37.82 points in the first writing practice and 46.91 points in the final examination. At a 5% level, the scores before and after instruction via digital editing showed statistically significant differences ($p < 0.001$, $df = 43$, $t = 15.33$). These results indicate that digital editing using Microsoft Word improves Japanese-language learners’ writing proficiency.

A major limitation of this study is that typing out learners’ handwritten texts is time-consuming. Educators who have no time to type learners’ texts may wish to type and return only clean revisions to allow learners to make the best of the corrections for review and other learning purposes.

APPENDIX. ADDITIONAL TABLES

TABLE 3
RESPONDENTS’ SCORES FOR THE FIRST WRITING PRACTICE

1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14	15	16	17	18	19	20
30	39	41	45	45	38	40	42	39	38	35	42	40	34	36	35	39	38	41	38
21	22	23	24	25	26	27	28	29	30	31	32	33	34	35	36	37	38	39	40
40	34	35	44	38	32	45	44	33	37	39	36	33	37	37	42	30	30	30	44
41	42	43	44																
40	35	38	36																

TABLE 4
RESPONDENTS’ SCORES FOR THE FINAL EXAMINATION

1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14	15	16	17	18	19	20
48	48	42	48	48	48	45	48	48	48	48	48	48	48	50	47	46	49	49	48
21	22	23	24	25	26	27	28	29	30	31	32	33	34	35	36	37	38	39	40
49	49	45	49	45	47	47	49	42	46	44	45	44	47	48	48	46	45	43	48
41	42	43	44																
47	44	48	47																

ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

The author sincerely thanks the participants. This study received no specific grant from any funding agency in the public, commercial, or nonprofit sectors.

REFERENCES

- [1] Cook, V., & Bassetti, B. (Eds.). (2005). *Second language writing systems*. Multilingual Matters.
- [2] Crystal, D. (2010). *The Cambridge encyclopedia of language* (3rd ed.). Cambridge University Press.
- [3] Matsumoto, K. (2013). Kanji recognition by second language learners: Exploring effects of first language writing system and second language exposure. *The Modern Language Journal*, 97(1), 161–177. <https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1540-4781.2013.01426.x>
- [4] Poort, E. D., & Rodd, J. M. (2017). The cognate facilitation effect in bilingual lexical decision is influenced by stimulus list composition. *Acta Psychologica*, 180, 52–63. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.actpsy.2017.08.008>
- [5] Ringbom, H. (2007). *Cross-linguistic similarity in foreign language learning*. Multilingual Matters.
- [6] Ringbom, H. (2012). Review of recent applied linguistics research in Finland and Sweden, with specific reference to foreign language learning and teaching. *Language Teaching*, 45(4), 490–514. <https://doi.org/10.1017/S0261444812000225>
- [7] Rose, H. (2013). L2 learners' attitudes toward, and use of, mnemonic strategies when learning Japanese kanji. *The Modern Language Journal*, 97(4), 981–992. <https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1540-4781.2013.12040.x>
- [8] Sugiura, C., & Kido, M. (2020). *Oshaberi shinagara kaku koto o tanoshimu chūkyū sakubun* [Intermediate-level Japanese compositions elaborated through discussion among learners]. Bonjinsha.
- [9] The Japan Foundation. (2007). *The Japan Foundation teaching Japanese series 9: Teaching beginners*. Hitsuji Shobo.
- [10] The Japan Foundation. (2011a). *The Japan Foundation teaching Japanese series 3: Teaching Japanese characters and vocabulary*. Hitsuji Shobo.
- [11] The Japan Foundation. (2011b). *The Japan Foundation teaching Japanese series 10: Teaching intermediate and advanced learners*. Hitsuji Shobo.
- [12] The Society for Teaching Japanese as a Foreign Language. (Ed.). (1990). *Nihongo kyōiku handobukku* [Japanese-language teaching handbook]. Taishukan.
- [13] Tokuhito, Y. (Ed.). (2010). *Goi mappu de oboeru kanji to goi: Chūkyū 1500* [1500 intermediate-level kanji and vocabulary items to be learned using vocabulary maps]. J Research Publishing.
- [14] Uni, K. (2019). Connecting Kanji radicals with their Malay equivalents in Japanese Kanji instruction to native Malay-speaking students. *GEMA Online Journal of Language Studies*, 19(4), 128–147. <https://doi.org/10.17576/gema-2019-1904-07>
- [15] Uni, K. (2022a). Benefits of international loanwords for English-speaking learners of Lithuanian. *Acta Linguistica Lithuanica*, 86, 209–226. <https://doi.org/10.35321/all86-09>
- [16] Uni, K. (2022b). Effectiveness of Japanese writing exercise with moral values for Malaysian students. *E-Journal of Economics, Entrepreneurship and Management Sciences*, 1(1), 19–26. Retrieved February 2, 2024, from <https://jeems.tijarahcsr.com/wp-content/uploads/2022/06/Uni.pdf>
- [17] Uni, K. (2022c). Efficacy of the use of Instagram and WhatsApp for online Japanese lectures to Malaysian students. *E-Journal on Artificial Intelligence and Computer Science*, 7, 1–8. Retrieved February 2, 2024, from <https://aicsjournal.files.wordpress.com/2022/01/kazuhito.pdf>

Kazuhito Uni was born in Hyogo, Japan, in 1983. In 2010, he obtained his master's degree in human and environmental studies at Kyoto University, Kyoto, Japan. In 2018, he received a Ph.D. in Linguistics from the University of Malaya, Kuala Lumpur, Malaysia.

In 2015, he was invited to make an academic presentation at the National Institute of Education, Singapore, and he has published research papers in SCOPUS-cited journals, including Connecting Kanji radicals with their Malay equivalents in Japanese Kanji instruction to native Malay-speaking students. *GEMA Online Journal of Language Studies*, 19(4), 128–147. His research interests include teaching Japanese, English, French, German, Swedish, and Malay as foreign languages.

Dr. Uni obtained the Journal Publication Award in 2019 from the Islamic Science University of Malaysia. In addition, he received the best paper award at the Sixth World Conference on Integration of Knowledge 2020 on August 27, 2020, and at the Ninth International Conference on Social Science Research on November 30, 2020.

Implementing a Genre-Based Approach to Enhance Essay Writing Skills in Saudi EFL Learners

Albandary Ibrahim Alhammad

English Department, College of Science and Humanities, Prince Sattam bin Abdulaziz University, Alkharj, Saudi Arabia

Abstract—This study investigates the impact of explicit instruction in writing using a genre-based approach (GBA) on Saudi EFL students. It examines emergent themes derived from learner interviews and assesses teachers' awareness of employing this pedagogical approach. Conducted at Prince Sattam bin Abdulaziz University (PSAU), the mixed methods study involved 32 EFL learners and 4 teachers from the BA program. A specifically designed intervention aimed to train teachers in genre-based essay writing instruction. Results indicate a significant improvement in students' writing performance, with scores increasing from 12.97 in the pretest to 14.90 in the post-test (Sig. = .000). Students reported heightened confidence in utilizing GBA for writing, while teachers displayed a positive disposition towards adopting efficacious methods to enhance student writing skills, despite potential gaps in their knowledge of recent developments in ELT.

Index Terms—EFL learners, essay writing, genre-based approach, teaching

I. INTRODUCTION

Writing is perceived as a demanding and arduous skill by EFL learners, given its inherent complexity. Despite the presence of a prescribed syllabus in the Saudi EFL curriculum across all English learning levels, writing remains the least developed skill among Saudi EFL learners. The language learning process is primarily skills-based rather than content-based, emphasizing that proficiency in these skills comes through practice (Al-Ahdal & Abduh, 2021). To illustrate, teaching someone to swim cannot be accomplished solely by observing others; learners must comprehend the principles involved and engage in practical application (Al-Ahdal & Alqasham, 2020).

Traditionally, as noted by Schröter and Molander Danielsson (2016), teaching in the language classroom involved a unidirectional flow of information from teacher to learner, with learners heavily reliant on teachers and minimal opportunities for independent practice. This paradigm persisted in English language teaching until the first half of the last century. Meanwhile, advancements in fields such as psychology and linguistics were enhancing classroom dynamics, prompting the ELT community to integrate these developments into English language instruction (Yazan, 2017; Khazaie & Ebadi, 2023).

Theories pertaining to language and language acquisition have laid the foundation for various methodological approaches. Early theories can generally be categorized into three perspectives: Structuralist, Functionalists, and Interactionists. The Structuralist view regards language as a system built upon elements across different levels, such as phonemes, morphemes, and grammatical structures (Kwok, 2017). Grammatical operations, such as shifting and substituting these elements, are seen as essential for constructing meaningful units (Piaget, 2015). In contrast, the Functionalist perspective emphasizes language as a tool for conveying functional meaning, expanding beyond grammatical structure to include communicative and contextual dimensions. Interactionists view language as a means for establishing interpersonal relations and facilitating social transactions (Saville-Troike & Barto, 2017).

A critical factor influencing language learning is the methodological design adopted, which is shaped by the chosen theory of language acquisition. Another pivotal component is the classroom procedure encompassing techniques, practices, and behaviors applied during teaching, production, practice, and feedback phases (Richards & Rodgers, 2014). The genre-based approach, often categorized as a methodological "approach", primarily concerns itself with this procedural aspect of classroom instruction.

Writing, particularly free writing, presents significant challenges due to its less spontaneous nature compared to speaking or listening. It demands cognitive effort, precision in language usage, coherence, cohesion, and clarity for the reader (Albelihi & Al-Ahdal, 2022). Learners commonly struggle with writing due to inadequate skills and confidence in their expressive abilities (Al-Ahdal & Abduh, 2021). In EFL contexts, such as Saudi schools or colleges where Arabic is the predominant medium of education, writing anxiety is exacerbated as students often navigate the task independently (Aljafen, 2013). This isolating process can be daunting for non-proficient learners, compounding the challenges in an EFL classroom setting (Ramadan, 2018).

Writing instruction in Saudi EFL classrooms often faces delays and uncertainties, exacerbated by the absence of prescribed textbooks offering systematic guidance. Teachers, consequently, may struggle to effectively teach writing

processes, leading to reluctance in providing formulaic guidance to learners (Bin-Hady et al., 2020). However, both formulaic writing training and genre-based approaches have demonstrated positive impacts on EFL writing in prior research. This study thus focuses on the genre-based approach to essay writing within the Saudi EFL context, aiming to address these educational challenges. In this research I aim to answer the following questions:

1. Does the provision of explicit instruction in the genre-based approach to essay writing significantly influence the writing proficiency of Saudi EFL students?
2. What are the predominant themes derived from students' perspectives regarding the utilization of genre-based instruction?
3. To what extent are writing instructors at Prince Sattam bin Abdulaziz University (PSAU) knowledgeable about and familiar with the genre-based approach in essay writing?

II. LITERATURE REVIEW

In recent years, the genre-based approach (GBA) has garnered increasing attention among researchers, resulting in a substantial body of literature on its application in English language instruction. Halliday's (1994) Genre Theory has profoundly influenced the implementation of EFL writing instruction, as evidenced by various studies. Additionally, Hyon (1996) underscored the formal instruction and linguistic characteristics intrinsic to the genre-based methodology. Derewianka (2003) provided an initial definition of "Genre Theory", emphasizing its focus on text, purpose, meaning, and choice.

Genre-based Approach to Essay Writing

The genre-based approach (GBA) in teaching essay writing emphasizes understanding and adopting the conventions and styles specific to various essay genres, such as persuasive, argumentative, narrative, and expository essays (Truong, 2017). This approach integrates both process and product approaches, akin to a dual-faced coin (Chen & Su, 2011). From a process perspective, it involves strategies and techniques for teaching and learning writing, while from a product standpoint, it emphasizes the structure, content, communicative intent, and linguistic features of essays (Malek & Myriam, 2020).

GBA begins by encouraging learners to analyze the characteristics of specific essay genres using provided samples to identify common patterns and structures (Haryanti & Sari, 2019). This process provides insight into reader expectations and establishes a framework for writing (Alkodimi & Al-Ahdal, 2021). Each essay genre serves a distinct purpose, whether informative, persuasive, entertaining, or analytical, guiding learners in organizing their ideas accordingly (Carina et al., 2019). Linguistic features also vary by genre; for example, narrative essays use descriptive language, whereas argumentative essays employ logical reasoning and persuasive language (Trinh & Truc, 2014). Furthermore, effective writing considers the audience's knowledge, interests, and background to effectively convey ideas and engage readers (Bean & Melzer, 2021).

Pham and Bui (2022) addressed the insufficient measures for teaching writing skills in Vietnamese universities, highlighting the need for a refined genre-based approach in classrooms to improve proficiency. Similarly, Huang and Zhang (2020) investigated the impact of a process-genre approach on argumentative writing among L2 learners in a Chinese university, revealing significant improvements in writing quality. Bin-Hady et al. (2020) explored the efficacy of GBA in enhancing opinion essay writing among Yemeni students, demonstrating notable improvements in post-test scores.

Malek and Myriam (2020) evaluated a GBA informed by systemic functional linguistics (SFL) for teaching Arabic as a Foreign Language learners to narrate routine events in Arabic writing, reporting positive changes in writing skills. Hermansson et al. (2019) conducted a quasi-experimental study on primary students to assess the effects of genre-based instructional practices on narrative writing abilities, highlighting mixed results regarding the effectiveness of Joint Construction stages in enhancing writing quality.

Suksawas (2018) emphasized the integration of ESP, SFL, and EAP within a genre-based approach, emphasizing the importance of combining linguistic and communicative skills for effective EFL writing. Additionally, mind-mapping has shown promise as a pre-writing exercise to structure writing, complementing the genre-based approach's focus on specific writing tasks (Alqasham & Al-Ahdal, 2022).

Dirgeyasa (2016) reviewed various implementations of GBA in teaching essay writing, demonstrating significant improvements in student performance post-intervention. Similarly, Tuan (2011) and Chen and Su (2011) conducted studies on genre-based approaches to enhance writing skills, revealing positive impacts on students' ability to structure and compose essays effectively.

The genre-based approach benefits both instructors and learners by providing opportunities to engage with authentic texts and understand how language functions in real-world contexts. Its aim is to enable learners to use language meaningfully and effectively across different genres of writing.

III. METHODOLOGY

A. Research Design

This study employed an experimental design to investigate the impact of genre-based essay writing instruction on students' writing proficiency. Pre-intervention and post-intervention assessments were conducted to evaluate changes in

students' ability to write narrative essays. Additionally, semi-structured interviews were conducted with a subset of seven students at the end of the semester to gather qualitative insights. The research was conducted during the second semester of 1444 A.H. at Prince Sattam bin Abdulaziz University, Saudi Arabia.

B. Participants

Participants included 32 students and 4 teachers from the Bachelor of Arts program at the Department of English, Prince Sattam bin Abdulaziz University. The sample was homogenous and convenient. Student participants were female, with English proficiency ranging from lower intermediate to intermediate levels, having undergone a minimum of eleven years of English education. They came from urban backgrounds with at least one moderately fluent English-speaking parent, and their ages ranged from 18 to 21 years. All teacher participants were female, held post-graduate qualifications specializing in TESOL or ESL, possessed a minimum of eight years of teaching experience, and had attended teacher development programs within the past six months.

Prior to commencement, ethical approval was obtained from the relevant ethics and research committee. Participants were informed about the research objectives, and confidentiality of data was assured throughout the study. The researcher personally conducted data collection activities, including classroom observations and in-person interviews with students, which were audio-recorded with consent and later transcribed to identify key themes.

C. Instruments

Pre-intervention data collection involved two instruments administered to students: a perception survey regarding their essay writing abilities and analysis of random writing samples to establish baseline performance. At the conclusion of the intervention, semi-structured interviews were conducted with seven voluntarily participating students to gain deeper insights into their experiences with the genre-based essay writing approach. Additionally, essay writing samples were collected post-intervention to assess improvements in writing skills.

A panel discussion was also organized with teachers to gather information on their awareness and implementation of the genre-based essay writing approach. Based on positive feedback, a two-hour workshop was conducted in the subsequent week to familiarize teachers with the approach, share recent research findings, and solicit their feedback.

D. Intervention

Saudi EFL teachers, primarily trained in TESOL or ESL, typically do not approach essay writing as a genre with explicit teachable conventions. This study reaffirmed previous findings that explicit instruction in genre-based essay writing steps significantly enhances writing performance, as evidenced by the improved performance of participants following specialized coursework in the pre-intervention assessment and the entire group in the post-intervention assessment.

Each of the four teacher participants was randomly assigned eight learners for twelve hours over three weeks to implement the genre-based approach in their essay writing classes. A rubric was provided to guide their lesson planning, starting with analyzing exemplary essays provided by the researcher to identify key attributes of effective writing. Subsequently, learners were tasked with evaluating their own essays against these criteria and identifying areas for improvement (two hours dedicated to this activity). To scaffold their writing development, participants received a structured essay outline with incomplete sentences, which they were instructed to complete under guided supervision (four hours allocated for this exercise). The remaining six hours focused on extensive free writing of essays, with each written piece meticulously reviewed by the assigned teacher to address specific weaknesses and enhance overall quality.

Throughout the intervention, the researcher provided guidance to the teachers as needed, ensuring adherence to detailed lesson plans and maintaining a consistent focus on the genre-based approach to essay writing.

IV. RESULTS

RQ1: Does imparting explicit instruction in the genre-based approach to essay writing have significant impact on Saudi EFL students' writing?

The impact of explicit instruction in the genre-based approach to essay writing on Saudi EFL students' performance was assessed using paired samples t-tests. Table 1 presents the results of this analysis.

TABLE 1
STUDENTS' PRE AND POST RESULT IN THE ESSAY WRITING TESTS

	Mean	N	Std. Deviation	t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)
Pretest	12.97	32	2.29	-9.213-	31	.000
Posttest	14.90	32	2.26			

The results indicate that students' writing performance significantly improved following explicit instruction in the genre-based approach (pretest mean = 12.97, post-test mean = 14.90, $p < .001$).

In the pre-intervention phase, demographic data revealed that only two students had prior exposure to essay writing as a genre, primarily through online courses preparing them for the IELTS exam. Unsurprisingly, these two students outperformed their peers in the initial writing assessments. Figure 1 illustrates the distribution of students' confidence levels in English essay writing.

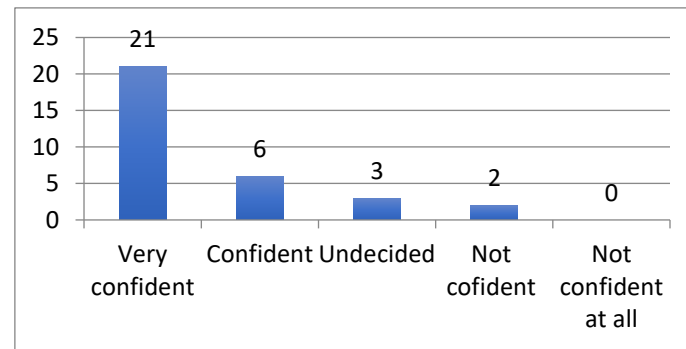


Figure 1. Students' Confidence About Essay Writing

These findings underscore the positive impact of explicit genre-based instruction on enhancing Saudi EFL students' essay writing skills, particularly among those with limited prior exposure to structured essay writing instruction.

Research Questions 2 and 3: Emergent Themes of Students' Perceptions and Teachers' Awareness

RQ2: What are the emergent themes of students' perceptions in using genre-based instruction?

At the conclusion of the three-week intervention, seven students volunteered for interviews conducted by the researcher. Themes emerged from these interviews were categorized into two primary areas:

Emergent Theme 1: Writing Confidence

The interviews revealed that enhanced writing confidence was a prominent theme among the students. Many participants expressed relief and satisfaction with their improved ability to structure and present their narratives effectively. One student candidly shared that prior to the intervention, writing was a daunting task due to disorganized and incoherent essays.

Emergent Theme 2: Challenges in Using the Genre-Based Essay Writing Approach

The second prevalent theme identified was the challenges associated with adopting the genre-based approach. Despite overall positive feedback, students acknowledged initial difficulties. However, they appreciated having a structured framework that supported their creativity in expression. Many students mentioned relying on online resources for vocabulary and expression while adapting to this new approach.

RQ3: What is the awareness of writing teachers about the genre-based approach in essay writing at PSAU?

A panel discussion with the four participating teachers aimed to assess their awareness and perceptions of the genre-based essay writing approach. The discussion yielded the following insights:

1. Limited Prior Awareness: The majority of teachers admitted to having minimal to no prior knowledge of genre-based instructional approaches, despite recent professional development activities.

2. Vague Familiarity: One teacher had some familiarity with the concept, albeit limited.

3. Interest in Efficacy: Teachers expressed willingness to explore and adopt the genre-based approach upon learning about its potential effectiveness in enhancing EFL learners' essay writing skills.

These findings underscore the need for further professional development and training to familiarize educators with effective pedagogical approaches like genre-based instruction, potentially improving the quality of writing instruction at Prince Sattam bin Abdulaziz University.

V. DISCUSSION

The students' writing demonstrated notable improvement due to training in the Genre-Based Approach (GBA). Their performance increased from a mean score of 12.97 in the pretest to 14.90 in the post-test, indicating the effectiveness of the GBA in familiarizing students with the elements of essay writing. This improvement can be attributed to the explicit instruction they received, which is consistent with findings from Bin-Hady et al. (2020), Huang and Zhang (2020), and Pham and Bui (2021), all of whom reported the positive impact of explicit instruction on enhancing students' essay writing skills.

Pham and Bui (2021) specifically noted that Vietnamese students' expository essays often struggled with lexico-grammatical usage and adherence to the prescribed move-step structure. Their study recommended further research and provided best practices for EFL teachers and students interested in adopting the GBA for writing.

Additionally, the study revealed that teachers were not fully aware of how to implement the GBA. However, they expressed positive attitudes towards using this approach if provided with appropriate training and if research validated its effectiveness. This finding underscores the readiness of Saudi EFL teachers to enhance their students' writing competencies, as illustrated by Jerdhaf's (2021) case study. In a multi-ethnic Swedish grade-eight classroom, students were exposed to a variety of writing genres within a genre-based history lesson. The flexibility in presenting these genres fostered a writing environment that balanced autonomy and structure, thus not impeding the writing process but rather empowering learners.

Merely teaching a writing method or approach may not suffice to motivate learners to adopt it. Therefore, it is recommended that the genre-based writing approach be integrated with the evaluation process. For instance, Lee (2012)

examined how L2 schools utilizing genre as an organizational framework could effectively combine instruction and evaluation. This study aimed to understand how instructors applied genre-based instruction and assessment in traditional product- and exam-oriented writing classes, as well as to gauge the perceptions of both students and teachers towards this approach. Data collected from lesson observations and interviews in two Secondary 1 (Grade 7) classes in Hong Kong revealed that teachers integrated teaching and evaluation by emphasizing genre collaboratively and with a shared vision, despite acknowledging the limitations of the genre approach. Therefore, it is recommended that.

VI. CONCLUSIONS

There exists a relationship between the content and method of writing, particularly for learners who are less proficient and may require assistance in both areas. For those whose writing proficiency is significantly below expectations, a logical approach would involve focusing initially on structuring and guided writing exercises. EFL teachers should emphasize the writing process, which can be effectively facilitated through the Genre-Based Approach (GBA). Explicit instruction in areas such as cohesion, coherence, style, design, and audience can serve as foundational elements in the GBA. This approach is particularly beneficial in learning environments where the target language is not used regularly for daily communication.

For instance, Phan and Ngu (2020) conducted a study with the indigenous Orang Asli in Malaysia, investigating the impact of the GBA on improving secondary students' descriptive writing skills. The study highlighted how Orang Asli EFL students perceived the GBA as a framework to address challenges encountered during the teaching and learning process. The findings demonstrated the effectiveness of the GBA in enhancing writing abilities and recommended its application in rural and indigenous schools with students of low proficiency.

Globally, universities are increasingly adopting genre-focused research writing education at the graduate level to address the diverse needs of their student populations. In China, where there is a significant demand for research writing training among graduate students across various disciplines, aspiring EAP instructors are gaining practical experience with genre-based pedagogies as a foundational step towards real classroom application.

Based on the findings of this study, it is recommended that EFL teachers integrate genre-based writing lessons into their curricula, taking into account learners' writing needs and proficiency levels. Additionally, teachers should ensure that learners' creativity is not compromised and that writing remains largely spontaneous. In other words, EFL teachers should adopt the GBA in a manner that allows the writing process to be driven by learners, both constructively and creatively.

It is important to note that the gender of participants can be a limitation in achieving broadly applicable conclusions in language research, as some studies have established gender as an influential factor. This study was limited to female participants, and it is recommended that future research replicate the study with male learners to provide a more comprehensive understanding. Additionally, the sample size was a limitation, and generalizing the conclusions would be more robust with a larger dataset. Finally, this study focused solely on the narrative essay genre. Further research is needed to determine whether the GBA is equally effective with other types of essays.

APPENDIX

Section 1: Demographic and Background Information

1. Gender: [Female/Other/Prefer not to say]
2. Age: [Open-ended question]
3. Native Language: [Open-ended question]
4. Parents' English Proficiency: [Open-ended question]
5. English Proficiency Level: [Beginner/Intermediate/Advanced as allotted by the University]

Section 2: Pre-Test Assessment

1. Have you received any previous instruction on essay writing as a specific skill? [Yes/No]
2. On a scale of 1 to 5, rate your confidence level in writing essays in English, with 1 being "Not confident at all" and 5 being "Very confident."

Section 3: Panel Discussion Tool using a set of questions to assess the teachers' understanding and perceptions of genre-based instructional approaches in teaching essay writing:

1. Have you heard of genre-based instructional approaches before?
2. How familiar are you with the concept of genre-based instructional approaches?
3. Do you believe that the genre-based instructional approach can enhance learners' essay writing skills?

Section 4: Semi-Structured Interviews of learners

Individual interviews with a subset of participants (volunteered) to explore their experiences and perceptions of the genre-based instructional approach to writing of essays, using the following open-ended questions:

1. How do you feel about using genre-based instructional approach to learn essay writing?
2. What challenges, if any, did you face while writing with the genre-based essay writing approach?
3. In your opinion, how did your writing confidence fair when using the genre-based methods in essay writing?
4. How has the use of genre-based instructional approach influenced your writing skills and performance?

Section 5: Post-Test Assessment

Participants' samples of essays before and after the genre-based instruction were analyzed. This aim was to gauge their essay writing skills and performance improvement, if any.

ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

The authors extend their appreciation to Prince Sattam bin Abdulaziz University for funding this research work through the project number (PSAU/2023/01/26169).

REFERENCES

- [1] Al-Ahdal, A., & Abduh, M. (2021). English writing proficiency and apprehensions among Saudi College students: Facts and remedies. *TESOL international journal*, 16(1), 34-56.
- [2] Al-Ahdal, A., & Alqasham, F. (2020). EFL writing tasks and the application of the concept of situatedness: Evaluating the theoretical and practical aspects of the Saudi EFL context. *TESOL International Journal*, 15(4), 167-190.
- [3] Albelihi, H. & Al-Ahdal, A. (2022). EFL students' writing performance: A study of the role of peer and small-group feedback. *Journal of Language and Linguistic Studies*, 17(4), 2224-2234.
- [4] Aljafen, B. S. (2013). *Writing anxiety among EFL Saudi students in science colleges and departments at a Saudi university*. Indiana University of Pennsylvania.
- [5] Alkodimi, K. & Al-Ahdal, A. (2021). Strategies of Teaching Writing at Saudi Tertiary-Level Institutions: Reality and Expectations. *Arab World English Journal*, 12(2), 399- 413.
- [6] Alqasham, F. H., & Al-Ahdal, A. A. M. H. (2022). Effectiveness of mind-mapping as a digital brainstorming technique in enhancing attitudes of Saudi EFL learners to writing skills. *Journal of Language and Linguistic Studies*, 17(2), 1141-1156.
- [7] Bean, J. C., & Melzer, D. (2021). *Engaging ideas: The professor's guide to integrating writing, critical thinking, and active learning in the classroom*. John Wiley & Sons.
- [8] Bin-Hady, W. R. A., Nasser A. N. A. , & Al-Kadi, A. T. (2020). A pre-experimental study on a process-genre approach for teaching essay writing. *Journal of Language and Education*, 6(4), 44-54.
- [9] Carina, H. & Bert, J. & Maria, L. & Lindhé, A. & Lundgren, B. & Norlund, S., Annika. (2019). The (non)effect of Joint Construction in a genre-based approach to teaching writing. *The Journal of Educational Research*, 112, 1-12.
- [10] Chen, Y., & Su, S.-W. (2012). A genre-based approach to teaching EFL summary writing. *ELT Journal*, 66(2), 184-192.
- [11] Derewianka, B. (2003). Trends and issues in genre-based approaches. *RELC journal*, 34(2), 133-154.
- [12] Dirgeyasa, I. (2016). Genre-Based Approach: What and How to Teach and to Learn Writing. English Language Teaching. *Proceeding of 4th International Conference on Language Education*. 2015. State University of Makasar South Sulewesi Indonesia.
- [13] Halliday, M. A. K. (1994). *An Introduction to Functional Grammar*. London: Edward Arnold.
- [14] Haryanti, H., & Sari, F. (2019). The use of genre-based approach to improve writing skill in narrative text at the eleventh-grade students of SMA Ethika Palembang. *English Community Journal*, 3(1), 280-288.
- [15] Hermansson, C., Jonsson, B., Levlin, M., Lindhé, A., Lundgren, B., & Norlund Shaswar, A. (2019). The (non) effect of Joint Construction in a genre-based approach to teaching writing. *The Journal of Educational Research*, 112(4), 483-494.
- [16] Huang, Y. & Zhang, L. (2020). Does a process-genre approach help improve students' argumentative writing in English as a foreign language? Findings from an intervention study. *Reading and Writing Quarterly*, 36, 339-364.
- [17] Hyon, S. (1996). Genre in three traditions: Implications for ESL. *TESOL Quarterly*, 30(4), 693-722.
- [18] Jerdhaf, O., Santini, M., Lundberg, P., Karlsson, A., & Jönsson, A. (2021). Implant Term Extraction from Swedish Medical Records-Phase I: Lessons Learned. In *Eighth Swedish Language Technology Conference (SLTC-2020)*, 25-27, November 2020.
- [19] Khazaie, S., & Ebadi, S. (2023). Exploring the feasibility of augmented reality game-supported flipped classrooms in reading comprehension of English for Medical Purposes. *Computer Assisted Language Learning*, 1-34.
- [20] Kwok, K. (2017). Social Change and Educational Change: Toward an Interactive Approach. *When Education Meets Politics in Taiwan*, 5-19.
- [21] Lee, I. (2012). Genre-based teaching and assessment in secondary English classrooms. *English Teaching: Practice and Critique*, 11(4), 120-136.
- [22] Malek, A., Myriam. (2020). Empowering Arabic learners to make meaning: A Genre-Based Approach. *System*, 94. 102329. 10.1016/j.system.2020.102329.
- [23] Melissourgou, M., & Frantzi, K. (2017). Genre identification based on SFL principles: The representation of text types and genres in English language teaching material. *Corpus Pragmatics*, 1(4), 373-392.
- [24] Pham, V. P. H., & Bui, T. K. L. (2021). Genre-based approach to writing in EFL contexts. *World Journal of English Language*, 11(12), 95-106.
- [25] Phan, H. P., & Ngu, B. H. (2020). Schooling experience and academic performance of Taiwanese students: the importance of psychosocial effects, positive emotions, levels of best practice, and personal well-being. *Social Psychology of Education*, 23(4), 1073-1101.
- [26] Piaget, J. (2015). *Structuralism (psychology revivals)*. Psychology Press.
- [27] Ramadan, N. I. (2018). *Problems in Using English Written Discourse Markers by Libyan EFL Undergraduate Students* (Doctoral dissertation, Ministry of Higher Education).
- [28] Richards, J. C., & Rodgers, T. S. (2014). *Approaches and methods in language teaching*. Cambridge university press.
- [29] Saville-Troike, M., & Barto, K. (2017). *Introducing second language acquisition*. Cambridge University Press.
- [30] Schröter, T., & Molander Danielsson, K. (2016). English for Young Learners in Sweden: Activities, materials and language use in the classroom. *Litteratur och språk [Literature and Language]*, 11, 47-73.

- [31] Suksawas, W. (2018). The study of the genre-based approach and EFL student journalism writing. *International Journal of Business and Society*, 19(2), 235-248.
- [32] Tardy, C. M., Buck, R. H., Pawlowski, M., & Slinkard, J. R. (2018). Evolving conceptions for genre among first-year writing teachers. *Composition Forum*, 38. Retrieved [Jun 5, 2022], from <http://compositionforum.com/issue/38/evolving.php>
- [33] Trinh, Q. L., & Truc, N. T. (2014). Enhancing Vietnamese learners' ability in writing argumentative essays. *Journal of Asia TEFL*, 11(2), 63-91.
- [34] Truong, T. N. T. (2017). Teaching writing using genre-based approach: A study at a Vietnamese university. *Language Education in Asia*, 8(2), 192-212.
- [35] Tuan, L. (2011). Teaching writing through genre-based approach. *BELT - Brazilian English Language Teaching Journal*, 2(1), 121-136.
- [36] Wette, R. (2017). Using mind maps to reveal and develop genre knowledge in a graduate writing course. *Journal of Second Language Writing*, 38, 58-71.
- [37] Yazan, B. (2017). "It just made me look at language in a different way:" ESOL teacher candidates' identity negotiation through teacher education coursework. *Linguistics and Education*, 40, 38-49.

Albandary Ibrahim Alhammad. With PhD in Linguistics from Liverpool University, UK, Dr. Albandary Ibrahim Alhammad is an Assistant Professor at the English Department, College of Science and Humanities, Prince Sattam bin Abdulaziz University, Alkharj, Saudi Arabia. She is interested in Pragmatics and Discourse analysis. She is a powerful negotiator and fluent in English and Arabic, with very efficient interpersonal communication skills. She loves research and believes that it is the key solution to all classroom problems and issues. Email: a.alhammad@psau.edu.sa

Gender Differences in Using Expressions of Agreement in Jordanian Spoken Arabic

Entessar M. Alharahsheh

Language Center, The Hashemite University, Zarqa, Jordan

Rashed A. Alharahsheh

Ministry of Education, Jordan

Abstract—This research explores the different ways Jordanian male and female university students use expressions of agreement in correlation with the contextual situation in which a different addressee is involved. The sample of students consisted of 233 males and 380 females from different Jordanian universities. To collect the required data, a questionnaire was developed and given to the respondents. The questionnaire contained three different situations, each asking the respondents about the agreement expression that they would use with three different addressees. Jordanians males and females mostly use /t'ayeb/ طيب, /ma:fi/ ماشي, /tama.m/ تمام, and /əv 'kei/ اوك to show agreement when they are asked to do something by somebody. The study shows that these expressions are synonymous but vary according to the gender of both the speaker and the addressee. Females tend to use the variant /tama.m/ تمام in most formal contextual situations, i.e., with a university professor, whereas males are more apathetic regarding the formality of this situation, using the more casual variant /əv 'kei/ اوك. Furthermore, both males and females tend to be polite with their parents and avoid using borrowed foreign expressions, using the most polite variant, /t'ayeb/ طيب. In another contextual situation, i.e., a close friend, males tend mostly to use /ma:fi/ ماشي within their closed networks, showing that they are more strict in using the vernacular in such situations, whereas even with their close friends, females tend to use the borrowed variant /əv 'kei/ اوك to seem more casual and cool.

Index Terms—sociolinguistics, gender, men's and women's language, agreement expressions, contextual situation

I. INTRODUCTION

Sociolinguists seek to explain why people speak differently in different social contexts and give reasons for that. Moreover, they are also interested in investigating the effects of social factors such as social distance, social status, age, gender, class, and the like on language varieties whether they are dialects, registers, or genres. Furthermore, sociologists attempt to identify the social meanings that language conveys in different social situations (Holmes, 2006). Indeed, the belief that men and women speak differently has been the subject of many sociolinguistic studies in the world, including within the Hashemite Kingdom of Jordan. Coates (1998) points out that “the way men speak is held in high esteem, while women's ways of talking are compared unfavorably with men's” (p. 2). She uses the term “folk linguistics” to refer to this belief.

In addition, the study of speech style has been the concern of many sociolinguists. Eckert and Rickford (2001) define style as a set of linguistic variants or linguistic practices with specific social meanings. In this regard, William Labov is interested in the concept of “attention paid to speech”, and he proposes that the style a speaker uses is dependent on how much attention the speaker is paying to their own speech. This, in turn, is dependent on the formality of the situation (Labov, 1972). However, with the accommodation theory, Giles (2016) proposes that style-shifting occurs in two ways. First, it changes through convergence where the speaker shifts his speech in order to get social approval. The second way it changes is through divergence where the speaker shifts his speech to show social disapproval or to distance himself from others (Giles, 2016). Nevertheless, in both Labov's and Giles's theories, all of these factors lead to what is called “stylistic variation”, which means that an individual speaker's speech varies across contexts and situations. Consequently, differences in the choice of vocabulary, grammatical patterns, and lexical expression depend on the context and its content, and according to these contexts, men and women have been found to use language differently.

Lakoff (1975) proposed theories on the existence of women's language in her book *Language and Woman's Place*, which have served as the basis for countless studies on the subject. In her book, she mentions ten features of women's language:

1. Lexical hedges or fillers (“you know”, “sort of”, “well”, “you see”)
2. Tag questions (“She's very nice, *isn't she?*”)
3. Rising intonation on declaratives (“It's really good!”)
4. “Empty” adjectives (“divine”, “charming”, “cute”)
5. Precise color terms (“magenta,” “aquamarine”)
6. Intensifiers such as “just” and “so” (“I like him so much!”)

7. "Hypercorrect" grammar (consistent use of standard verb forms)
8. "Super-polite" forms (indirect requests, euphemism)
9. Avoidance of strong swear words ("fudge", "my goodness")
10. Emphatic stress (It was a *BRILLIANT* performance!) (Lakoff, 1975, pp. 53-55).

In addition, the level of politeness a speaker uses toward an addressee is one factor that makes speakers modify their speech. This level is affected by the social distance between the speaker and the addressee. In terms of gender differences in politeness, Lakoff (1975) asserts that women are more linguistically polite than their male counterparts. Also, Brown and Levinson (1987) argue that "women operate more positive politeness strategies to a higher degree because they operate dense social networks" (p. 31). This is in accord with Labov's (2006) conclusion that women use more prestigious dialect variables than men do.

The richness of spoken Arabic makes it a valuable domain for investigation due to the unlimited number of social and linguistic terms that it includes. However, only a handful of these terms and expressions have been researched, and of the expressions that still need further investigation are those used to express agreement. For linguists, agreement is considered a sign of cooperation and solidarity between interlocutors, and in each language, there are a range of expressions used for the purpose of showing collaborative agreement. Furthermore, expressions of agreement can be investigated in light of politeness. Regarding the function of agreement expressions, Brown and Levinson (1987) point out that the speaker demonstrates "common ground" with the hearer by using agreement expressions since agreement is considered a positive face strategy. As for Jordanian Spoken Arabic (JSA), a range of expressions are used to indicate agreement between interlocutors. Speakers of JSA alternate in the use of these expressions, though they have the same meaning. Therefore, these expressions have captured the attention of this paper's researchers due to their high frequency of use in JSA.

The present study will take these concepts into account while discussing how Jordanian males and females use agreement expressions in correlation with contextual situations in which different addressees are involved. The main hypothesis of this study says that males and females use different lexical choices to agree in conversations when taking into account the addressee. In addition, females use more formal ways to agree in situations where there is more social distance between the interlocutors.

II. LITERATURE REVIEW

Jordanian Spoken Arabic (JSA) is one of the Levantine Spoken Arabic dialects of the Greater Syria, or "Levant", region, comprised today of Jordan, Syria, Palestine, and Lebanon. In Jordan, Modern Standard Arabic (MSA) is the language of newspapers, courts, education, and other formal situations. However, in terms of dialects, there are three that are recognized in Jordan and which vary according to regional and socio-economic factors.

The first, and perhaps most well-known, of these dialects is the urban dialect, which is mostly used in Jordan's bigger cities (Suleiman, 1985). Al-Harabsheh (2014) maintains that "fascinatingly, this dialect has been used by young Jordanian females, whatever their regions are, because they consider this dialect to be the most prestigious and favorable in society; they use it to show off" (p. 874). The second dialect is the rural variety and is mostly spoken by farmers and others living in agricultural communities in northern Jordan. Finally, there is the Bedouin dialect that Al-Harabsheh (2014) points out "is spoken by people who are living in the eastern and southern regions of the Kingdom" (p. 874).

Moreover, the study of stylistic variation in JSA seems to be of little interest to researchers. Indeed, in terms of gender, there are a number of studies that have investigated the differences in Jordanian Spoken Arabic between men and women. However, these studies are restricted to the syntactic and phonological conversational aspects of the vernacular. Nonetheless, there have been some studies that have investigated the different styles of Jordanian Spoken Arabic used by men and women in a variety of domains.

For instance, Abudalbuh (2011) studied the effects of gender on how emphasis is produced in Jordanian Arabic through the manifestation of pharyngealized consonants, a feature of Semitic languages. After measuring some acoustic parameters in the speech of both males and females in the study, the researcher found that emphasis was more acoustically evident in the speech of males than in the speech of females.

Malkawi (2011) investigated the different ways men and women talk in Jordanian society on occasions of happiness, consolation, thankfulness after a banquet, and farewell. The study showed that females tend to avoid the use of old and archaic words, preferring to use more contemporary vocabulary. For example, females tend to use the borrowed English word "bye" instead of the Arabic *mah assallameh* when saying goodbye.

Al-Omari and Abu-Melhim (2013) investigated the various types of promising used by speakers of Jordanian Arabic and the gender differences in using such ways when promising. It shows that males tend to use more direct promising words and phrases than females do.

Al-Harabsheh (2014) studied male and female conversational styles and phonological variations. The study shows that Jordanian women and men have different linguistic styles that distinguish their gender in conversation. The study found that women tend to be more linguistically conservative than men, concluding that "women tend to avoid direct disagreement, and they tend to maintain the social rapport with the other interlocutor" (p. 881). Also, women have tendencies toward avoidance to produce more facilitative strategies, so they are more cooperative than men.

Recently, Al-Sallal and O. Ahmad (2020) conducted a study to investigate the different ways Jordanian males and females use to apologize. The study shows that "little or no difference was found between females' and males' use of

apology strategies (p. 61). However, it shows that females prefer certain strategies over others. For instance, “females used polite strategies like expressions of gratefulness, congratulations, and consolation”, whereas males “preferred to use convincing strategies like praising the name of God” (Al-Sallal & O. Ahmad, 2020, p. 61).

Finally, it is evident that the previous studies on gender differences in Jordanian Spoken Arabic have tackled many language issues. However, because it concentrates on gender differences in using different expressions for agreement, the present study is distinguished in terms of its purpose. It is also the first study that, to the best of the researchers’ knowledge, tackles this crucial issue because these expressions have not been studied before. Also, this study is unique and original because it incorporates the effects of both gender and addressee together to study the variation in using agreement expressions.

III. METHODOLOGY

This research is interested in answering the following questions:

1. Do men and women in Jordan use different lexical expressions for agreement?
2. If there is a difference, what are the motives for both men and women to use these lexical expressions differently?

To answer these questions, a questionnaire was distributed randomly among respondents consisting of university students from three different universities in Jordan, ranging in age between 18 and 26 years old. The questionnaire was designed to discover the variation in the use of different expressions used for agreement in Jordanian Spoken Arabic. In the personal information section, the informants were asked about their gender. The second part of the questionnaire contained three questions, each of them in a different contextual situation with a different addressee. The language used in the questionnaire is Jordanian Spoken Arabic (JSA), making it easier for the respondents to answer the questions. In this paper, the questionnaire, located in Appendix B, has been translated from Arabic to English. A total of 627 questionnaires were distributed. However, 14 of them were not completed, leaving the total of completed questionnaires at 613.

A. Social Variables

The social factors discussed in this study are the genders of both the speaker and the addressee. Addressees may be parents, a university professor, or a close friend. The researchers chose these three types of addressees to show whether different addressees affect the speaker’s choice of one lexical expression over another. The distribution of the respondents is shown in Table 1.

TABLE 1
THE DISTRIBUTION OF RESPONDENTS ACCORDING TO GENDER

Gender	Frequency	Percent
Female	380	62%
Male	233	38%
Total	613	100%

B. Linguistic Variables

The linguistic variables being studied are the lexical expressions Jordanians use to express agreement. Among these linguistic variables are: 1.) /t'ayeb/ طيب; 2.) /ma:fi/ ماشي; 3.) /əu 'kei/ اوك; and 4.) /tama:m/ تمام. These expressions are synonymous with “okay” in English. The tendency to use one of these expressions, as the researchers hypothesize in this study, may be affected by the gender of the speaker and the addressee.

IV. RESULTS

This study clarified the differences in speech between males and females in Jordanian Spoken Arabic regarding the use of certain expressions for agreement. The researchers concentrated on studying these expressions in the following situations: 1.) with parents; 2.) with a university professor; and 3.) with a close friend. There are many synonymous expressions that Jordanians use in the mentioned situations; however, the researchers focused on the most frequently used ones. In this section, the researchers will present the responses of the informants to each question. It should be noted that each of the three questions contains a different contextual situation in which a different addressee is involved. To analyze the data in this study, the researchers made use of frequency counts and their percentages using SPSS software. Additionally, the researchers took advantage of percentage figures to show the distribution of each expression by both gender and addressee variables.

In Tables 2, 3, and 4 below, the responses of the informants are shown without taking the gender of the speaker into account.

Question One: If your father or mother tells you, “Go and do your homework”, and you agree to do it, what agreement expression do you use?

TABLE 2
THE FREQUENCIES AND PERCENTAGES OF RESPONSES WHEN THE ADDRESSEE IS ONE OF THE PARENTS

Expression	Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
/t'ayeb/ طيب	274	44.7	44.7	44.7
/ma:fi/ ماشي	224	36.5	36.5	81.2
/əv 'kei/ اوک	96	15.7	15.7	96.9
/tama:m/ تمام	19	3.1	3.1	100.0
Total	613	100.0	100.0	

Table 2 shows that 44.7% of the respondents tend to use /t'ayeb/ طيب if the addressee is one of the parents. However, only 15% of them tend to use /əv 'kei/ اوک with their father or mother. Moreover, /tama:m/ تمام is rarely used in this situation.

Question Two: If your professor tells you, "Come to my office within the office hours", and you agree, which word do you use?

TABLE 3
THE FREQUENCIES AND PERCENTAGES OF RESPONSES WHEN THE ADDRESSEE IS A UNIVERSITY PROFESSOR

Expression	Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
/t'ayeb/ طيب	104	17.0	17.0	17.0
/ma:fi/ ماشي	106	17.3	17.3	34.3
/əv 'kei/ اوک	220	35.9	35.9	70.1
/tama:m/ تمام	183	29.9	29.9	100.0
Total	613	100.0	100.0	

It is clear from Table 3 that respondents mostly tend to use /əv 'kei/ اوک with their professors rather than /t'ayeb/ طيب or /ma:fi/ ماشي, which scored only 17%. It is important to note that /tama:m/ تمام is used by 29.9% of the respondents, which is very close to the percentage of /əv 'kei/ اوک in this situation. In contrast, the use of both /t'ayeb/ طيب and /ma:fi/ ماشي is very limited.

Question Three: If your close friend tells you, "Go home and bring your cell phone. I'm waiting for you", and you agree to do it, which word do you use?

TABLE 4
THE FREQUENCIES AND PERCENTAGES OF RESPONSES WHEN THE ADDRESSEE IS A CLOSE FRIEND

Expression	Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
/t'ayeb/ طيب	130	21.2	21.2	21.2
/ma:fi/ ماشي	198	32.3	32.3	53.5
/əv 'kei/ اوک	257	41.9	41.9	95.4
/tama:m/ تمام	28	4.6	4.6	100.0
Total	613	100.0	100.0	

As shown in Table 4 above, respondents mostly use /əv 'kei/ اوک (41.9%) with their close friends, while they rarely use /tama:m/ تمام. Also, the use of /ma:fi/ ماشي is 32.3%, somewhat close to the use of /əv 'kei/ اوک. As the data indicates, the use of /tama:m/ تمام is very limited.

On the other hand, when we take the gender of the speaker into account, the following results appear:

In Question 1 of the questionnaire, informants were asked which expression they use in a specific situation; i.e., with their parents. The responses of both males and females are shown below in Table 5.

TABLE 5
AGREEMENT EXPRESSIONS BY GENDER WITH PARENTS

			Gender		Total
			Female	Male	
Q1	/t'ayeb/طيب	Frequency	180	94	274
		%	65.7%	34.3%	100.0%
	/ma:fi/ماشي	Frequency	138	86	224
		%	61.6%	38.4%	100.0%
	/əv 'kei/اوک	Frequency	53	43	96
		%	55.2%	44.8%	100.0%
	/tama:m/تمام	Frequency	9	10	19
		%	47.4%	52.6%	100.0%
Total	Frequency	380	233	613	
	%	62.0%	38.0%	100.0%	
	% of Total	62.0%	38.0%	100.0%	

As shown in Table 5, both males and females rarely use /əv 'kei/ اوک with their parents. However, both gender groups are in favor of /t'ayeb/ طيب in the same situation. Meanwhile, 47.4% of females responded to this question with /t'ayeb/

طيب, and 40.3% of males responded the same. These results are also shown below in Figure 1.

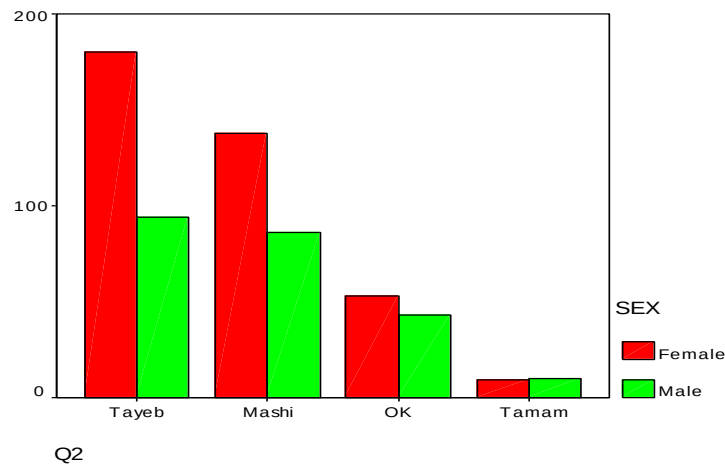


Figure 1. The Responses of Respondents by Gender in the Parents' Situation

In the second question, informants were asked about the expression of agreement they used in another situation. This time, the question involved a university professor. The responses of both males and females are shown in Table 6.

TABLE 6
AGREEMENT EXPRESSIONS BY GENDER WITH A UNIVERSITY PROFESSOR

			Gender		Total
			Female	Male	
Q2	/t'ayeb/ طيب	Frequency	59	45	104
		%	56.7%	43.3%	100.0%
	/ma:fi/ مائني	Frequency	59	47	106
		%	55.7%	44.3%	100.0%
	/əv `keɪ/ اوڭ	Frequency	127	93	220
		%	57.7%	42.3%	100.0%
	/tama:m/ تمام	Frequency	135	48	183
		%	73.8%	26.2%	100.0%
Total		Frequency	380	233	613
		%	62.0%	38.0%	100.0%

In contrast to the situation with parents, 39.9% of males tend to /əv 'keɪ/ اوک when in agreement with a university professor. On the other hand, 35.5% of female respondents favor /tama:m/ تمام when they speak to their professors. These results are also shown in Figure 2.

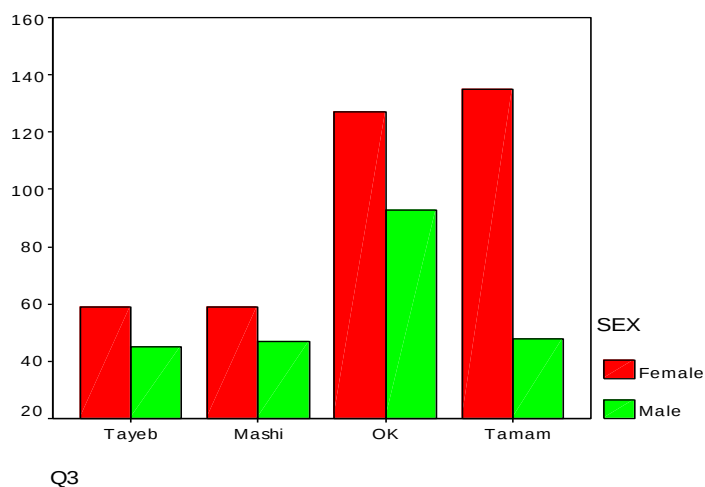


Figure 2. The Responses of Respondents by Gender in the Professor Situation

In the third question, the informants were asked about the agreement expression they mostly use with their close friends. The responses of both genders are shown in Table 7.

TABLE 7
AGREEMENT EXPRESSIONS BY SEX WITH A CLOSE FRIEND

			Gender		Total
			Female	Male	
Q3	طيب/ <i>/t'ayeb/</i>	Frequency	82	48	130
		%	63.1%	36.9%	100.0%
	ماشي <i>/ma:fi/</i>	Frequency	107	91	198
		%	54.0%	46.0%	100.0%
	اوڭ <i>/əʊ 'keɪ/</i>	Frequency	177	80	257
		%	68.9%	31.1%	100.0%
	تمام <i>/tama:m/</i>	Frequency	14	14	28
		%	50.0%	50.0%	100.0%
Total		Frequency	380	233	613
		%	62.0%	38.0%	100.0%

It is clear from Table 7, above, that females mostly tend to use /əʊ 'keɪ/ اوڭ with close friends at 46.6%, whereas males tend mostly to use /ma:fi/ ماشي with their friends at 39.1%. These results are also shown below in Figure 3.

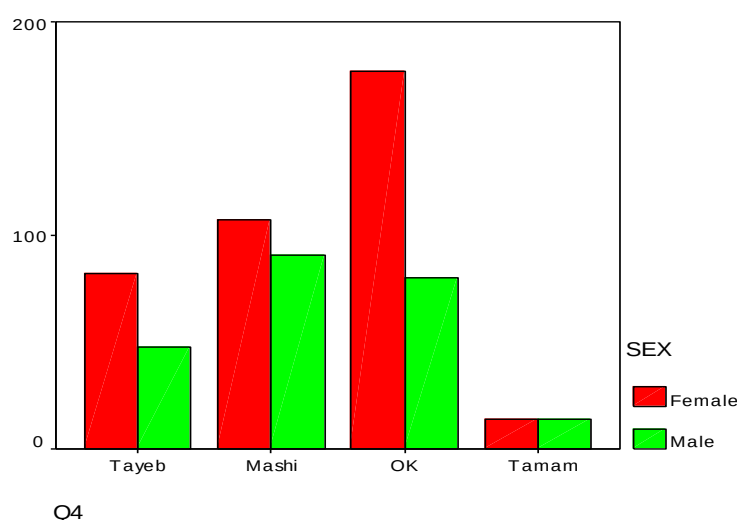


Figure 3. The Responses of Respondents by Gender in the Close Friend Situation

Table 8, below, summarizes the results in terms of gender and addressee:

TABLE 8
THE MOST USED EXPRESSION IN EACH SITUATION BY MALES AND FEMALES

	In General	Parents	Professor	Close Friend
Males	اوڭ /əʊ 'keɪ/	طيب /t'ayeb/	اوڭ /əʊ 'keɪ/	ماشي /ma:fi/
Females	اوڭ /əʊ 'keɪ/	طيب /t'ayeb/	تمام /tama:m/	اوڭ /əʊ 'keɪ/

Table 8 shows that the expressions used by both males and females vary according to the addressee. For example, females use /t'ayeb/ طيب with their parents, but they use /əʊ 'keɪ/ اوڭ with their close friends. On the other hand, males use /t'ayeb/ طيب with their parents, but they use /ma:fi/ ماشي with their close friends. If the addressee were a university professor, males tend mostly to use “okay”, whereas females tend mostly to use /tama:m/ تمام.

V. DISCUSSION

In this section, the researchers discuss the results obtained from the analysis of the data. The discussion is divided into three parts. The first one tackles how informants use these four expressions in general and will account for the most used expression. The second will discuss how the informants use these expressions in different situations without taking the interaction of the gender variable with the addressee variable into account. The final part will focus on the main question of this study: whether males and females use agreement expressions differently, taking into account the different situations that include different addressees.

First, as shown in Table 9, note the overall use of each of the expressions in all questions of the study. It is clear that the expression /əʊ 'keɪ/ اوڭ is the expression most frequently used.

TABLE 9
THE OVERALL FREQUENCIES OF EACH VARIANT

The Expression	The Overall Frequency
/t'ayeb/ طيب	508
/ma:fi/ ماشني	528
/əv'keɪ/ اوک	573
/tama:m/ تمام	230

Taking into account that all informants are undergraduate university students, this finding is supported by the hypotheses of both Al-Btoush (2014) and Sulieman (1985) that university students tend to use loan words and borrowed English expressions to appear cool and modern.

Second, the results in Tables 2, 3, and 4 show that there are differences in the most used expressions with the parents and the other two situations, that is, a university professor and a close friend. However, /əv'keɪ/ اوک appears to be used the most in situations involving both the professors and close friends. Thus, there is no difference in the most commonly used expression in these two situations. On the other hand, there is no big difference in the use of /tama:m/ تمام and /əv'keɪ/ اوک when in agreement with a university professor, and /ma:fi/ ماشني and /əv'keɪ/ اوک when agreeing with close friends. Therefore, as the small differences between the frequency of the four expressions reveal (whether in the same situation or in different situations), an analysis based on the variable “the addressee” alone would not be adequate.

Additionally, Tables 5, 6, and 7 show different results when we take the gender variable into account. This conclusion is supported by the strong tendency of females to use /tama:m/ تمام when the addressee is a university professor and the tendency of males to use /əv'keɪ/ اوک in the same situation. Also, the tendency of males to use /ma:fi/ ماشني when the addressee is a close friend and the tendency of females to use /əv'keɪ/ اوک in the same situation are supportive of the conclusion that an analysis based on interaction between the gender variable and the addressee is more adequate.

Third, and perhaps most importantly, the concept that males and females use language differently is a fact verified by many sociolinguistic studies in many speech communities. This study also reveals that there is a variation in the linguistic devices utilized by males and females, more specifically in the use of agreement expression in JSA.

In the situation where the addressee is one of the parents, we notice that both male and female respondents mostly use the expression /t'ayeb/ طيب. /t'ayeb/ طيب is considered a vernacular expression, but it is more polite than /ma:fi/ ماشني. So, both males and females tend to use polite expressions with their parents without abandoning the intimacy that is supposed to exist between the parents and their children by using /t'ayeb/ طيب rather than /ma:fi/ ماشني. In contrast, in the situation where the addressee is a close friend, we notice that males tend to use the least formal and most vernacular expression /ma:fi/ ماشني.

The tendency of males to use /ma:fi/ ماشني with their close friends, which could be considered a closed network, proves the hypothesis of Coates (1993) that men maintain vernacular forms in their closed networks for reasons of solidarity. On the other hand, the tendency of females to use /əv'keɪ/ اوک in situations where the addressee is a close friend is justified by the suggestion that they use it for casualness and coolness with their friends rather than to appear more prestigious. Therefore, the strictness of using informal and vernacular forms is more apparent in the speech of males than that of females because, as argued by Holmes (2008), they relate the vernacular to “masculinity and toughness” (p. 167).

In addition, women generally tend to use more formal or polite forms than men do, as argued by Lakoff (1975). This hypothesis proves the tendency of females in this study to use the most formal expression among the four observed ones, i.e., /tama:m/ تمام, in the situation where the addressee is a university professor, which is considered a formal situation. A justification for this tendency is that females use more formal forms than males because they are more status-conscious than males, and the social norms of a society pressure women into being more conservative and polite in their behavior. Therefore, this pressure will affect the language that females use (Holmes, 2008). On the other hand, we notice that in the same situation, i.e., with a university professor, which is supposed to be a formal situation, males tend mostly to use /əv'keɪ/ اوک in this situation. It suggests that males are less status-conscious and do not tend to be conservative; thus, in this situation, they do not conform to the norms and use the formal expression, i.e., /tama:m/ تمام, in our case. However, males use the casual expression /əv'keɪ/ اوک in this formal situation.

VI. CONCLUSION

The study aimed to accomplish two objectives: (a) identify agreement expressions mostly used by Jordanians and their frequency of occurrence; and (b) examine the influence of gender on the choice of agreement expression. The findings showed that Jordanians tend to use multiple agreement expressions. It has been observed that there are more than four ways Jordanian males and females agree when they are asked to do something for somebody. They mostly use /t'ayeb/ طيب, /ma:fi/ ماشني, /tama:m/ تمام, and /əv'keɪ/ اوک. All of these expressions mean “okay” in English. These expressions are synonymous but vary according to the gender of the speaker and the addressee. Thus, they cannot be used interchangeably.

It is clear from the findings that each of the four expressions used for agreement in Jordanian society has a suitable contextual use. These expressions vary in their formality, with /tama:m/ تمام being used in the most formal situation and /ma:fi/ ماشني being the most vernacular and informal; on the other hand, /əv'keɪ/ اوک is used for casualness and /t'ayeb/ طيب being vernacular, but it is more polite than /ma:fi/ ماشني since the use of these two expressions proves these functions.

The findings of the study indicate that the variation in the linguistic styles utilized by both males and females is apparent in Jordanian society as compared to other societies that sociolinguists have investigated. This variation appears in the use of agreement expressions. It is shown that females tend to use the formal variant, i.e., /tama:m/ تمام, in its suitable formal contextual situations, whereas males are less concerned with the suitability of this variant and use a more casual variant, i.e., /əʊ'keɪ/ اوک in a formal situation. Furthermore, both males and females tend to be polite with their parents, avoid using borrowed foreign expressions, and use the vernacular polite variant, i.e., /t'ayeb/ طيب. In another contextual situation, i.e., a close friend, males tend to be stricter in using the vernacular form, i.e., /ma:fi/ ماشي within their closed networks, whereas females, even with their close friends, use less vernacular and tend to use the casual variant, i.e., /əʊ'keɪ/ اوک.

APPENDIX A

The Phonemes of Spoken Jordanian Arabic (adopted from Al-Harabsheh, 2014):

- ʔ: voiceless glottal stop ء
- b: voiced bilabial stop ب
- t: voiceless dental stop. ت
- θ: voiceless inter-dental fricative. ث
- ʒ: voiced palatal affricate ج (Jordanian Arabic)
- dʒ: fricative voiced alveolar ج (Standard Arabic)
- ħ: voiceless pharyngeal fricative ح
- X: voiceless velar fricative خ
- d: voiced dental stop د
- ð: voiced inter-dental fricative ذ
- r: alveolar tap ر
- z: voiced dental fricative ز
- s: voiceless dental fricative س
- ʃ: voiceless palatal fricative ش
- tʃ: voiced palatal fricative تش
- s': voiceless fricative alveolar ص
- t': stop voiceless emphatic ط
- ð': Voiced fricative emphatic ظ
- d': voiced emphatic stop ض
- ʕ: voiced pharyngeal fricative ع
- ɣ: voiced velar fricative غ
- f: voiceless labio-dental fricative ف
- g: voiced velar stop ق (Jordanian Arabic)
- q: voiceless uvular stop ق (Standard Arabic)
- k: voiceless velar stop ك
- l: alveolar lateral ل
- m: bilabial nasal stop م
- n: alveolar nasal stop ن
- h: voiceless glottal fricative هـ
- w: approximant velar و
- y: palatal semi-vowel ي

APPENDIX B

Survey

Kindly answer this survey for a linguistic study.

This survey asks you to answer questions about the expressions you use for agreement. The answers should take you only a few minutes to answer.

Gender: *Male (.....) * Female (.....)

1. If your father or mother tells you, "Go and do your homework", and you agree to do it, what agreement expression do you use?
 - a) /t'ayeb/ طيب
 - b) /ma:fi/ ماشي
 - c) /tama:m/ تمام
 - d) /əʊ'keɪ/ اوک
2. If your professor tells you, "Come to my office within the office hours", and you agree, which word do you use?
 - a) /t'ayeb/ طيب
 - b) /ma:fi/ ماشي
 - c) /tama:m/ تمام

- d) /əʊ 'keɪ/ اوڤك
3. If your close friend tells you, "Go home and bring your cell phone. I'm waiting for you", and you agree to do it, which word do you use?
- a) /t'ayeɪb/ طيب
- b) /ma:ʃi/ ماشي
- c) /tama:m/ تمام
- d) /əʊ 'keɪ/ اوڤك

REFERENCES

- [1] Abudalbh, M. (2011). Effects of Gender on the Production of Emphasis in Jordanian Arabic: A Sociophonetic Study. *Kansas Working Papers in Linguistics*, 32, 20–47. <https://doi.org/10.17161/KWPL.1808.8096>
- [2] Al Btoush, M. A. (2014). English loanwords in colloquial Jordanian Arabic. *International Journal of Linguistics*, 6(2), 98. <http://dx.doi.org/10.5296/ijl.v6i2.5086>
- [3] Al-Harashsheh, A. M. A. (2014). Language and Gender Differences in Jordanian Spoken Arabic: A Sociolinguistics Perspective. *Theory and Practice in Language Studies*, 4(5), 872-. <https://doi.org/10.4304/tpls.4.5.872-882>
- [4] Al-Omari, S., & Abu-Melhim, A. (2013). Promising as a Speech Act in Jordanian Arabic. *International Forum of Teaching and Studies*, 9(1), 30-34, 51.
- [5] Al-Sallal, R., & Ahmed, M. (2020). Gender Differences in Using Apology Strategies in Jordanian Spoken Arabic. *International Journal of English Linguistics*. <https://doi.org/10.5539/ijel.v10n6p54>
- [6] Brown, P., & Levinson, S. C. (1987). *Politeness: some universals in language usage*. Cambridge University Press.
- [7] Coates, J. (1993). *Women, men, and language: a sociolinguistic account of gender differences in language* (2nd ed.). Longman.
- [8] Coates, J. (1998). *Language and gender: a reader*. Blackwell.
- [9] Eckert, P. (1998). Gender and Sociolinguistic Variation. In J. Coates (Ed.), *Language and Gender: A reader* (pp. 64-76). Oxford: Blackwell Publishers.
- [10] Eckert, P., & Rickford, J. R. (2001). *Style and sociolinguistic variation*. Cambridge University Press.
- [11] Giles, H. (Ed.). (2016). *Communication accommodation theory: negotiating personal relationships and social identities across contexts*. Cambridge University Press.
- [12] Holmes, Janet. (2008). Introduction to Sociolinguistics (3rd Ed). Pearson Longman: New York.
- [13] Labov, W. (1972). Some principles of linguistic methodology. *Language in Society*, 1(1), 97-120. <https://doi.org/10.1017/S0047404500006576>
- [14] Labov, W. (2006). *The Social Stratification of English in New York City* (2nd ed.). Cambridge University Press. <https://doi.org/10.1017/CBO9780511618208>.
- [15] Lakoff, R. (1975). *Language and woman's place* (Harper colophon books; CN 389). New York: Harper & Row.
- [16] Malkawi, Abeer H. (2011). Males' and Females' Language in Jordanian Society. *Journal of Language Teaching and Research*, 2(2), 420-423. <https://doi.org/10.4304/jltr.2.2.424-427>
- [17] Suleiman, S. M. (1985). *Jordanian Arabic between Diglossia and Bilingualism: Linguistic analysis* (1st ed.). John Benjamins Publishing Company.



Entessar M. Alharahsheh was born in Mafrqa, Jordan, in 1985. She received a B.A. in English for Specific Purposes from Jordan University of Science and Technology 2007, an M.A. in Linguistics from Yarmouk University, Jordan, in 2010, and her Ph.D. in Discourse Analysis from Memorial University of Newfoundland, Canada, in 2024. She served as a full-time lecturer of English at the University of Tabuk, Saudi Arabia, for five years, teaching English language and linguistics. She is currently a full-time lecturer of English at Hashemite University, Jordan. Her research interests include sociolinguistics and language variation, critical discourse analysis, and corpus linguistics.



Rashed A. Alharahsheh was born in Mafrqa, Jordan, in 1984. He received a B.A. in English and English Literature from Al Albait University, Jordan, in 2006, an M.A. in Translation from Yarmouk University, Jordan, in 2010, and an M.A. in Curriculum and Methods of Teaching from Al Albait University, Jordan, in 2010. He currently serves as IB Coordinator and Head of the English Department at King Abdullah II School for Excellence. Additionally, he is a part-time lecturer at various Jordanian university language centers. His research interests include language variation and translation studies.

Expanding English Learning Beyond Classroom Boundaries: Investigating EFL Students' Perceptions of the Effects of Listening to Online Stories on Incidental Vocabulary Acquisition

Amal Abdul-Aziz Mohammad Al-Othman

Department of English Language and Literature, College of Languages and Translation, Imam Mohammad Ibn Saud Islamic University (IMSIU), Riyadh, Saudi Arabia

Abstract—This study investigated EFL students' perceptions of how listening to online stories impacts incidental vocabulary acquisition. Conducted at an English department at a public university in Riyadh, Saudi Arabia, the research examined cognitive processes and assessment methods related to vocabulary learning, including dynamic and self-assessment. Quantitative results showed that listening to online stories significantly improved incidental vocabulary acquisition, with a mean score of 3.59 ± 0.84 . About 89.8% of students reported enhanced vocabulary, covering aspects such as word recognition, formation, and usage, while 84.2% observed better word recognition in different contexts. Additionally, 80% of students found that online stories were more effective than reading for increasing vocabulary knowledge. Self-assessment also played a significant role in understanding vocabulary acquisition processes, with a mean score of 3.70 ± 0.90 . Qualitative results identified six key methods for assessing vocabulary acquisition: dynamic assessment, technology-based tools, vocabulary tests, self-assessment, vocabulary journals, and storytelling assignments. Vocabulary journals were identified for their effectiveness in developing cognitive skills, functional vocabulary use, and contextual understanding, and reinforcing retention through repetition. The study underscores the benefits of online stories for authentic vocabulary learning and suggests incorporating modern methods, such as mobile applications, to extend English learning beyond the classroom.

Index Terms—English as a Foreign Language, incidental vocabulary acquisition, listening to online stories, self-assessment

I. INTRODUCTION

Mastering English as a Foreign Language (EFL) relies primarily on vocabulary acquisition, which is crucial for proficiency in reading, speaking, and writing, and for effective communication. Researchers agree on the importance of vocabulary development but differ on the best learning methods (Knaak et al., 2021). In this regard, Karami and Bowles (2019) indicate that intentional vocabulary learning involves direct instruction, such as using word lists, flashcards, morphological analysis, and semantic mapping, which helps with acquiring low-frequency words and improves specific vocabulary contexts. Incidental vocabulary learning, on the other hand, occurs through exposure to vocabulary in various materials and contexts, leading to a more spontaneous acquisition. Direct instruction significantly benefits intentional vocabulary acquisition, while incidental learning, through repeated exposure, can foster substantial vocabulary development (Black & Wright, 2023). In the same line, Dang et al. (2022) contended that while direct instruction can be beneficial for single-word acquisition at the level of meaning recall, they primarily do not lead to notable improvements in vocabulary acquisition. Vocabulary acquisition involves more than just knowing many words; learners must be able to access this knowledge frequently and use it effectively when engaging in diverse spoken, reading, or written tasks (Chang & Wu, 2019; Feng & Webb, 2020; Jiang & Grabe, 2020; Lee & Jang, 2021; Sun et al., 2023; Stoffelsma et al., 2024). In this respect, Ellis (1997) states that in L2 language acquisition, it is important to consider more than just the strategies for effective learning and retrieval (pp. 15-25). Methods such as word substitution and crossword puzzles may be less effective for language learning, often promoting rote memorization rather than meaningful engagement and leading to limited cognitive development. In contrast, incidental vocabulary acquisition, which occurs naturally through activities like reading or listening, tends to be more effective as it allows learners to encounter and assimilate new words in context (Webb et al., 2020). This learning occurs as learners gradually understand each new word through its use in different contexts. In this regard, Krashen (1982) argues that incidental learning is more efficient, as it integrates new vocabulary into learners' knowledge, developing their vocabulary competence. Similarly, Arndt and Woore (2018), Majuddin et al. (2021), Teng (2022), and Webb and Rodgers (2020) have shown that incidental acquisition occurs when learners interact with content outside the classroom, such as watching TV, listening to the radio, viewing captioned videos, or watching YouTube. Engaging with various audio-visual materials can significantly boost incidental vocabulary learning (Ramezanali & Faez, 2019; Ramezanali et al., 2020; Teng, 2022). Furthermore, previous research (Abdollahpour &

Maleki, 2023; Kwak, 2020; Nie et al., 2022; Smith, 2022; Teng & Mizumoto, 2023) has found that listening to stories substantially affects vocabulary acquisition. These studies also indicate that technology offers various tools to aid vocabulary learning beyond the classroom. Tools such as podcasts, mobile applications, websites, and other AI-based technologies are effectively used to enhance incidental vocabulary acquisition.

Therefore, the current study aimed to investigate EFL students' perceptions of how listening to online stories affects incidental vocabulary acquisition, focusing on three key areas: word recognition, meaning connection, and usage.

The goal is to understand the complex relationship between vocabulary knowledge and overall language proficiency. Many undergraduate students in the English department at the public university, Riyadh, Saudi Arabia, believe that direct vocabulary instruction is insufficient for their vocabulary development, noting that their reading materials emphasize comprehension and memorization rather than providing opportunities for authentic vocabulary use. Consequently, their vocabulary development often relies heavily on exposure to written and spoken language in academic settings. Despite previous research on vocabulary acquisition, there is limited investigation into incidental vocabulary learning through listening (Stoffelsma et al., 2024), particularly through listening to online stories. This study seeks to address this gap by examining both the immediate and long-term effects of such learning and exploring students' awareness of the cognitive processes involved and the role of self-assessment in improving vocabulary acquisition.

II. LITERATURE REVIEW

A. Theoretical Framework: Cognitive Processes in Vocabulary Acquisition

Vocabulary acquisition draws from various theoretical perspectives. Extensive research links vocabulary learning with theories such as social constructivism, schema theory, psycholinguistic theories, dual-coding theory, and motivation theory (Black & Wright, 2023). For example, schema and psycholinguistic theories (Anderson, 1980; Bartlett, 1969; Chomsky, 1960; Rumelhart, 1970, 2011; cited in Black & Wright, 2023) propose that language is mentally processed and that learners use predictions to derive meaning while reading. In this respect, Black and Wright (2023) noted that learners use background knowledge, and conceptual skills, to process, encode, organize, and retrieve information. Consequently, psycholinguistic and schema theories emphasize the importance of analyzing morphological features, linking new words to synonyms and antonyms, and creating concept maps and organizers (Black & Wright, 2023). In this regard, Wright et al. (2016) argue that schema and psycholinguistic theories in vocabulary development rely on structured strategies where teachers intentionally activate prior knowledge to connect new learning to existing concepts, thereby emphasizing the expansion of learners' vocabulary. From another perspective, social constructivism (Bruner, 1966; Vygotsky, 1986; cited in Schunk, 2019; McVe et al., 2005) posits that language development is constructed socially through interaction. In this respect, Quoc and Van (2023) found that using a constructivist approach in language education helps EFL learners enhance vocabulary retention, particularly in meaning recall during reading comprehension. A different view was proposed in Krashen's (1982) acquisition-learning hypothesis, which differentiates between *acquisition*, which is a subconscious process, and *learning*, which is a conscious process involving formal instruction (pp. 20-29). Krashen (1982) argues that acquisition is far more effective for gaining language proficiency. Cognitive theories also emphasize the importance of metacognition, where learners become aware of their own learning processes and strategies. This awareness enables them to consciously apply techniques such as mnemonic devices or contextual clues to better acquire and retain vocabulary. For example, the Dual Coding Theory (DCT) suggests that language development occurs when verbal and nonverbal codes are connected (Thomas & Lenox, 2014; cited in Black & Wright, 2023). According to DCT, the verbal code is responsible for processing and representing language, while the nonverbal code represents abstract ideas in a concrete form. Therefore, in vocabulary acquisition, strategies should emphasize concreteness, imagery, and sensory experiences. As Wright et al. (2016) put it, these strategies are a "brain-based multisensory approach to deeply embedding vocabulary in the individual learner's mind and memory" (p. 1275). On the other hand, motivation theory proposes that vocabulary acquisition is enhanced when learners engage with reading/listening materials aligned with their goals and desires (Wright & Cervetti, 2017). In this regard, Gu (2020) asserts that individual factors like motivation, and learning styles impact the choice and effectiveness of vocabulary learning strategies. Thus, vocabulary strategies vary in their usefulness among English learners, and students need to understand the cognitive processes that aid in vocabulary development. Based on these theories, vocabulary acquisition involves complex cognitive processes that help learners understand, store, and retrieve words in a second language. In this regard, Moody et al. (2018), and Wright et al. (2016) highlight several key processes: comprehension for understanding new words, semantic mapping to link new words with known concepts, and memory encoding to connect new vocabulary with existing knowledge. Effective storage requires repeated exposure and practice, using tools like flashcards and word lists, while retrieval involves recalling and recognizing vocabulary through regular practice in various contexts. Cognitive strategies, such as mnemonic devices and imagery, enhance vocabulary retention and retrieval, leading to improved communication skills and language proficiency. In this respect, Gilber et al. (2021) indicate that the ability to quickly and accurately access word meanings is crucial for language comprehension. Findings from Gilber et al. (2021) show that experience with word usage impacts the understanding of ambiguous words, and that lexical-semantic learning is tied to cognitive processes aiding comprehension within sentence contexts. Lexical access involves activating semantic networks and phonological forms, influenced by word frequency, familiarity, and context. Learners build meaning through semantic elaboration by relating new vocabulary to contextual cues from reading or listening. Additionally, understanding syntax and morphology helps in

deciphering word meanings and grammatical functions. Thus, Gilber et al. (2021) suggest that strong syntactic and morphological awareness enables learners to infer word meanings from structural clues, enhancing comprehension and vocabulary acquisition.

B. Incidental and Intentional Vocabulary Acquisition

Webb and Rodgers (2020) define incidental vocabulary acquisition as spontaneous learning that happens without deliberate effort, occurring through activities like reading, watching movies, or conversing with native speakers. In contrast, intentional vocabulary acquisition involves explicit efforts to learn new words through methods like rote memorization, mnemonic devices, or structured exercises. Pedagogically, the goal of vocabulary activity often outweighs the learner's intention. A study by Webb et al. (2020) showed that intentional learning benefits from word-focused activities like flashcards, and word lists, but it also requires attention to learning direction. Applying meta-regression analyses, the results revealed that intentional vocabulary learning does not merely occur through word-focused tasks, but it must be accompanied by placing emphasis on direction of learning. In a different study, Black and Wright (2023) found that intentional vocabulary acquisition can be enhanced by extensive reading and effective vocabulary instruction, which includes providing definitional and contextual information. In contrast, De Vos et al. (2018) indicated that incidental learning is effective when learners are exposed to words multiple times in various contexts. This exposure allows for gradual acquisition through implicit learning processes. Controversy, Dang et al. (2022) argued that while intentional learning in academic settings can improve vocabulary acquisition, it primarily enhances single word recall and recognition of collocations rather than their usage. Increased frequency of single words in academic lectures boosts their learning, but this effect does not extend to collocations. Duong et al. (2021) explored how input repetition, and individual differences (like prior vocabulary knowledge and working memory) affect L2 learners' incidental lexical mining during immediate and repeated oral tasks. Results showed that learners could extract single words and formulaic sequences in both tasks. However, while the number of shared words stayed the same in repeated tasks, the number of shared formulaic sequences decreased. Input repetition did not influence lexical mining, and only prior vocabulary knowledge was positively associated with successful lexical extraction. In a different study, Teng (2020) investigated how different reading conditions, including reading alone versus reading with first language (L1) marginal glosses, impact the retention of new words. The study found that groups using L1 marginal glosses scored significantly higher than those in the reading-only condition. The study highlights the advantages of repeated word exposure and L1 marginal glosses for improving vocabulary retention. Previous studies (Gallagher et al., 2019; Jin & Webb, 2020; Karami & Bowles, 2019; Teng & Mizumoto, 2023) revealed that intentional and incidental vocabulary acquisition are two distinct but essential methods for learning new words. Intentional vocabulary acquisition involves deliberate efforts, such as explicit instruction, memorization, and practice. Incidental acquisition happens when learners are engaged in activities outside the classroom, watching television, or listening to radio, or watching YouTube (Arndt & Woore, 2018; Stoffelsma et al., 2024; Teng, 2022; Webb & Rodgers, 2020). In this respect, Majuddin et al. (2021) indicated that incidental acquisition of multiword expressions through audiovisual materials is improved by using repetition and typographic techniques to highlight specific words within the surrounding text. In the same light, Laufer and Vaisman (2023) revealed that learning a second language vocabulary outside the classroom can be boosted by engaging in digital activities. These activities often provide a more genuine and contextual grasp of words, as learners encounter vocabulary in relevant and meaningful situations.

C. Learning Vocabulary From Reading Stories vs. Listening to Stories

Learning vocabulary from reading and listening to stories involves different cognitive processes. Reading allows learners to reflect on unfamiliar words, use context clues, and consult dictionaries, which helps in reinforcing word recognition through visual processing. Pilongo et al. (2023) argued that reading comprehension is closely linked to vocabulary acquisition, suggesting that reading ability depends heavily on vocabulary mastery. It also found that regular vocabulary review exercises in reading comprehension improve students' ability to remember and retain vocabulary over time. In this respect, Rasinski et al. (2017) concluded that expanding vocabulary through reading enhances students' metalinguistic awareness, including phonological, morphological, and syntactical skills. Supporting these findings, Moody et al. (2018) found that insufficient L2 vocabulary can hinder the development of basic reading skills and reading comprehension. Substantial research explored various effective methods for improving vocabulary retention, such as lectures (Dang et al., 2022), taking tests (Kasahara & Kanayama, 2021), or using input repetition (Duong et al., 2021). Additionally, technological advancements aid learners to boost vocabulary size, using mobile-assisted language learning, MALL (Nguyen & Le, 2023), and computer-assisted language learning, CALL (Nguyen et al., 2022). Furthermore, while reading stories supports visual learning and detailed vocabulary analysis, listening to stories enhances auditory learning and helps learners internalize language sounds and patterns. Listening improves auditory processing, exposes learners to natural pronunciation and intonation, and provides an immersive experience that highlights subtle nuances and contextual cues. It also aids in developing listening comprehension skills and understanding spoken language in real-time.

Research has explored how storytelling can effectively enhance vocabulary acquisition among EFL students. For example, according to Kwak (2020), storytelling engages students, providing contextualized learning experiences that reinforce vocabulary retention. These findings align with earlier findings by Chang and Wu (2019), indicating that listening to stories creates an immersive learning environment, improving vocabulary comprehension and usage. Similarly, Lee and Jang (2021) found that narrative-based activities stimulate cognitive processes essential for vocabulary

development, such as inferencing and semantic mapping. Zeng and Goh (2018) asserted that listening comprehension involves complex cognitive skills and metacognitive awareness. It enables learners to recognize essential information, interpret nuances, deduce context from spoken signals, and develop overall communicative and intercultural competence. In other words, building vocabulary through listening to stories helps learners develop incidental vocabulary acquisition. Additionally, modern technology supports vocabulary acquisition by enabling interactions with stories through mobile applications and online platforms (Nguyen & Le, 2023). Conversely, some studies suggest that learner proficiency and narrative complexity can impact the effectiveness of story-based learning for vocabulary acquisition. For instance, Jiang and Grabe (2020) recommended tailoring storytelling techniques to meet learners' different levels and preferences for optimal results. From another perspective, previous research (Chen, 2021; Malone, 2018; Teng, 2016; Vu & Peters, 2022) supports the reading-while-listening (RWL) approach, indicating that it is more effective for vocabulary learning than reading only (RO). However, there is a gap in the literature regarding the impacts of listening to online stories on EFL students' incidental vocabulary acquisition, and further studies are needed to examine its immediate and long-term effects on language proficiency.

D. Assessment of Vocabulary Acquisition

Assessing vocabulary acquisition involves various methods to evaluate how effectively learners acquire and use new words. A recent study by Chou (2024) found that vocabulary learning strategies should help students acquire skills in contextual guessing, skillful use of dictionaries, note-taking, paying attention to word formation, contextual encoding, and activation of newly learned words. The study also found that vocabulary learning is influenced by factors like visual and auditory encoding, structure encoding, oral repetition, and selective attention, which correlate positively with test scores. Schmitt (2019) suggested using dynamic assessment (DA), which integrates assessment and instruction to focus on potential learning rather than static knowledge. It emphasizes the need for innovative assessment tools that accurately measure both the breadth and depth of vocabulary knowledge. Traditional methods for assessing vocabulary acquisition typically include standardized tests and quizzes that measure learners' vocabulary knowledge through multiple-choice questions, fill-in-the-blanks, and matching exercises to assess recognition and recall. Another assessment tool is COLLEX (collocating lexis), which examines learners' understanding of collocational knowledge (i.e., vocabulary depth) related to frequently used words (Gyllstad, 2009). Trending assessment methods for vocabulary acquisition include the use of vocabulary journals, where learners document and reflect on new words they encounter. This approach offers insight into learners' understanding and retention of vocabulary, encouraging active engagement with the language and promoting deeper learning (Chubaryan et al., 2023). The study found that the effectiveness of vocabulary journals can be particularly useful when combined with monolingual online dictionaries and concordance tools. Additionally, Gillespie and Grishaeva (2022) examined the effectiveness of formative and summative assessments, including teacher feedback and self-assessment, and found them beneficial for continuous assessment of students' language performance. Dolosic (2018) found that self-assessment tools are crucial for incidental vocabulary learning as they help learners evaluate their understanding and progress in acquiring new words. Tools, such as self-reflection questionnaires, vocabulary journals, automated feedback, and progress trackers, allow learners to monitor their vocabulary development and identify areas of strength and weakness. Mazloomi and Khabiri (2016) recommended using self-assessment as a diagnostic tool, for encouraging students to engage in planning, monitoring, and evaluating their progress.

Furthermore, previous research (Elaish et al., 2019; Gillespie, 2020; Goksu et al., 2022; Hasumi & Chiu, 2024; Shadiev & Wang, 2022; Zhang & Zou, 2022) has indicated that technology plays a significant role in developing students' self-assessment strategies, using computer-assisted language learning, mobile-assisted language learning, and technology-enhanced language learning. These technological tools can also enhance dynamic assessment for evaluating vocabulary learning while listening to online stories. This, in turn, significantly influences learners' cognitive and metacognitive awareness, leading to improved vocabulary acquisition and overall language proficiency.

III. METHOD

The current mixed-method study investigated EFL students' perceptions of the effects of listening to online stories on incidental vocabulary acquisition. Quantitative data were collected from the students using a 5-point Likert scale questionnaire, while qualitative data were gathered from the teachers through semi-structured interviews to explore methods for assessing vocabulary acquisition. The quantitative data were statistically analyzed to measure the extent and frequency of the participants' responses. The qualitative data provided deeper insights into the underlying reasons and contexts, capturing the participants' emotions and experiences. By combining both methods, the researcher was able to explore both the breadth and depth of the research problem, thereby enhancing the validity and reliability of the findings through cross-verification.

A. Research Questions

1. How do EFL students perceive the impact of listening to online stories on their vocabulary acquisition, including aspects such as word recognition, word meaning, and lexical usage (context and grammatical accuracy)?
2. To what extent do EFL students prefer acquiring vocabulary through listening to online stories compared to reading stories?

3. How does self-assessment influence the cognitive processes involved in vocabulary acquisition among EFL students who listen to stories?
4. What methods do teachers of EFL students use to assess the impact of incidental vocabulary acquisition on EFL students' language proficiency?

B. Participants

The study involved 127 EFL Saudi female undergraduate students (ages 18-20) EFL students selected from a public university, in Riyadh, Saudi Arabia, who have Arabic as their mother tongue and six years of prior English education. They study courses focused on English communication and language acquisition, covering theories and stages of first and second language acquisition. Additionally, 30 female teachers (ages 25-60) from the same department contributed to the qualitative data. These teachers, with 5-20 years of experience, teach English and courses on language acquisition, sociolinguistics, psycholinguistics, CALL, and educational assessment, with Arabic as their native language.

C. Instruments

Two instruments were used in the present study, each accompanied by a consent form. The first instrument was a 5-point Likert scale questionnaire designed to collect quantitative data. It consisted of three sections with ten items each, addressing the first three research questions. The second instrument was a semi-structured interview containing four open-ended questions, aimed at answering the fourth research question.

D. Procedures

Both instruments were validated through pilot studies. Quantitative data were analyzed using IBM-SPSS® (version 25.0) with descriptive (frequency, percentage, mean, standard deviation) and inferential (Pearson correlation) analyses. For qualitative data, NVivo (version 14) was employed to identify themes within the texts. Initial data codes captured participants' experiences, which were then organized into themes reflecting significant patterns regarding the methods teachers use to assess the impacts of incidental vocabulary acquisition on EFL students' language proficiency.

E. Research Limitations

The present study was limited to 127 female undergraduate students studying EFL and 38 female teachers teaching EFL and applied linguistics. All participants were affiliated with the English Department, at a public university, in Riyadh, Saudi Arabia. The study did not include students from the male section due to social constraints. Additionally, the time span covered by the study was only one semester of the academic year 2024.

IV. RESULTS

Quantitative data analysis, using IBM-SPSS® (version 25.0), revealed high internal consistency and validity, with Pearson correlation coefficients ranging from .674 to .947 and an overall Cronbach's Alpha of .907, indicating strong reliability. Individual reliability coefficients ranged from .864 to .887, and the overall stability was confirmed with a Cronbach's Alpha of .960. NVivo® (version 14) facilitated qualitative analysis through thematic, content, and discourse analysis, ensuring methodological triangulation. This approach enhanced the reliability and credibility of the qualitative findings.

Answering Study Questions

Q1: How do EFL students perceive the impact of listening to online stories on their vocabulary acquisition, including aspects such as word recognition, word meaning, and lexical usage (context and grammatical accuracy)?

The study used frequencies, percentages, means, and standard deviations to assess EFL students' perceptions of the impact of listening to online stories on their incidental vocabulary acquisition. The results indicated that students reported that listening to online stories significantly enhanced their vocabulary acquisition, including word recognition, understanding meanings, and using words in different contexts with grammatical accuracy. Key findings include: 89.8% reported increased vocabulary, 84.2% recognized words in different contexts, 85% understood meanings better, 81% improved word usage in sentences, 74% could use new vocabulary in various contexts, and 69.3% found it more effective than reading for learning word meaning. Table 1 shows the results.

TABLE 1
EFL STUDENTS' PERCEPTIONS OF THE IMPACTS OF LISTENING TO ONLINE STORIES ON THEIR INCIDENTAL VOCABULARY ACQUISITION (N=127)

N	Items	Approval degree										Mean	SD	Rank
		Always		Often		Sometimes		Rarely		Never				
		F	%	F	%	F	%	F	%	F	%			
1	Listening to online stories in English outside of my classroom studies helps me to increase my vocabulary.	45	35.4	42	33.1	27	21.3	8	6.3	5	3.9	3.90	0.88	1
2	I am confident in understanding new words when I listen to online stories.	44	34.6	38	29.9	33	26.0	8	6.3	4	3.1	3.87	0.86	2
4	Listening to online stories influences my ability to recognize words in different contexts.	49	38.6	36	28.3	22	17.3	14	11.0	6	4.7	3.85	0.91	3
5	Listening to online stories helps me understand the different meanings of the same words better than just studying vocabulary lists from reading books.	40	31.5	39	30.7	29	22.8	12	9.4	7	5.5	3.73	0.96	4
6	I noticed improvements in my ability to use new words correctly in different sentences after listening to online stories.	44	34.6	31	24.4	28	22.0	15	11.8	9	7.1	3.68	0.92	5
7	Listening to online stories helps me focus on understanding the grammatical structure of sentences.	38	29.9	27	21.3	32	25.2	21	16.5	9	7.1	3.50	0.99	6
10	I noticed improvements in my pronunciation and listening comprehension after listening to online stories.	37	29.1	25	19.7	35	27.6	16	12.6	14	11.0	3.43	0.92	7
8	I can recognize the different uses of the new vocabulary that I learn from listening to online stories when I read and write in English.	31	24.4	32	25.2	27	21.3	24	18.9	13	10.2	3.35	0.95	8
9	I can use the new vocabulary that I learn from listening to online stories in different contexts.	30	23.6	31	24.4	33	26.0	18	14.2	15	11.8	3.34	0.90	9
3	I find that listening to online stories helps me learn the meaning of new words better compared to reading.	31	24.4	19	15.0	38	29.9	27	21.3	12	9.4	3.24	0.94	10
Overall mean												3.59	0.84	-

As displayed in Table 1, the item "Listening to online stories in English outside of classroom helps to increase incidental vocabulary" received the highest mean score of 3.90 ± 0.88 , followed by the item "I am confident in understanding new words when I listen to online stories," which received a mean score of 3.87 ± 0.86 . The item "Listening to online stories influences my ability to recognize words in different contexts" ranked third with a mean score of 3.85 ± 0.91 . On the other hand, the item "I can use the new vocabulary that I learn in different contexts" ranked ninth. Furthermore, the item "I find that listening to online stories helps me learn the meaning of new words better compared to reading" received the mean score of 3.24 ± 0.94 . Figure 1 shows the impacts of listening to online stories on incidental vocabulary.

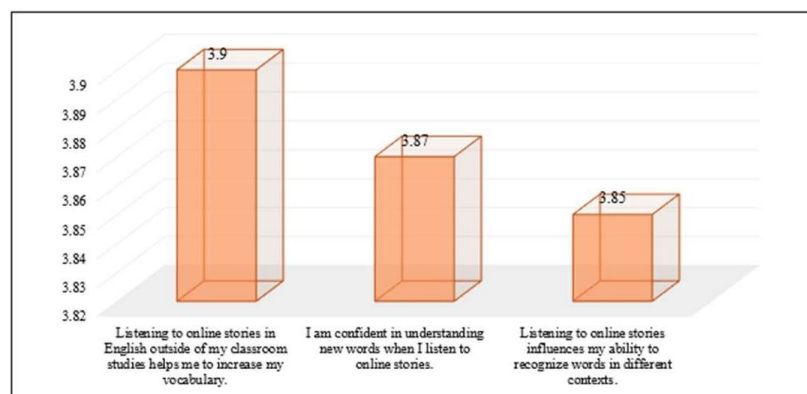


Figure 1. Impact of Listening to Online Stories on Acquiring Incidental Vocabulary

As displayed in Figure 1, the impacts of listening to online stories on acquiring accidental vocabulary include: an increase of vocabulary size, indicated by the mean score 3.90 ± 0.88 ; better understanding of new words, indicated by the mean score 3.87 ± 0.86 ; and enhancement of abilities to recognize words in different contexts, indicated by the mean score 3.85 ± 0.91 .

Q2: To what extent do EFL students prefer acquiring vocabulary through listening to online stories compared to reading stories?

The study examined EFL students' preferences for acquiring incidental vocabulary through listening to online stories versus reading. Results showed that 80.3% prefer online stories to reading them, with a mean score of 3.56.

Similarly, 79.5% of students prefer learning new vocabulary from audiobooks over reading, with a mean score of 3.73. Additionally, 77.95% favor listening to online stories rather than reading, with a mean score of 3.54, and 80% reported achieving significant vocabulary improvement from listening, with a mean score of 3.32. Furthermore, 71.6% use Artificial Intelligence (AI) applications, and 66.2% use mobile storytelling applications to learn new vocabulary. Table 2 shows the results.

TABLE 2
EFL STUDENTS' PREFERENCES OF ACQUIRING INCIDENTAL VOCABULARY THROUGH LISTENING TO ONLINE STORIES COMPARED TO READING STORIES (N=127)

STORIES (N=127)														
N	Items	Approval degree										Mean	SD	Ranking
		Always		Often		Sometimes		Rarely		Never				
		F	%	F	%	F	%	F	%	F	%			
2	I prefer learning new vocabulary from listening to audiobooks rather than from reading books.	46	36.2	34	26.8	21	16.5	19	15.0	7	5.5	3.73	0.95	1
3	It is easier for me to learn new vocabulary from listening to online stories than from reading them.	37	29.1	31	24.4	34	26.8	16	12.6	9	7.1	3.56	0.93	2
1	I prefer listening to online stories rather than reading them.	39	30.7	31	24.4	29	22.8	15	11.8	13	10.2	3.54	0.91	3
7	I use podcasts to learn new vocabulary.	36	28.3	25	19.7	38	29.9	12	9.4	16	12.6	3.42	0.93	4
4	It is more interesting to learn vocabulary from listening to online stories than from reading them.	37	29.1	24	18.9	31	24.4	23	18.1	12	9.4	3.40	1.00	5
6	I use audiobooks to learn new vocabulary.	32	25.2	30	23.6	36	28.3	14	11.0	15	11.8	3.39	0.90	6
5	It is faster to learn new vocabulary from listening to online stories than from reading them.	29	22.8	24	18.9	42	33.1	23	18.1	9	7.1	3.32	0.93	7
10	My vocabulary knowledge has increased from listening to online stories rather than reading them.	29	22.8	28	22.0	36	28.3	23	18.1	11	8.7	3.32	0.95	8
8	I use artificial intelligence applications to learn new vocabulary.	29	22.8	25	19.7	37	29.1	22	17.3	14	11.0	3.26	0.99	9
9	I use mobile storytelling applications to learn new vocabulary	32	25.2	26	20.5	26	20.5	28	22.0	15	11.8	3.25	0.96	10
Overall mean												3.42	0.95	-

As displayed in Table 2, the item "I prefer learning new vocabulary from listening to audiobooks rather than from reading books" received the highest mean score of 3.73, signifying a high preference for this method. This was closely followed by the item "It is easier for me to learn new vocabulary from listening to online stories than from reading them," which received a mean score of 3.56. Additionally, the item "I prefer listening to online stories rather than reading them" obtained a mean score of 3.54. On the other hand, item number 8, regarding (AI) applications received a mean score of 3.26, indicating that some respondents occasionally prefer this method. Lastly, item number 9, "I use mobile storytelling applications to learn new vocabulary," received a mean score of 3.25. Figure 2 shows participant's preferences based on magnitude of the mean score.

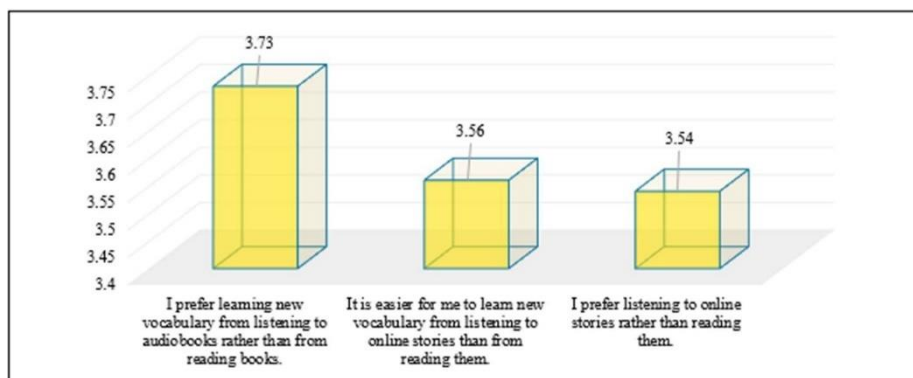


Figure 2. EFL Students' Preferences for Acquiring Incidental Vocabulary Through Listening to Stories vs Reading

Figure 2 shows that EFL students prefer listening to stories over reading them, indicated by a mean score of 3.54. They prefer listening to audiobooks over reading them, with a mean preference score of 3.73. They also find listening easier than reading, as indicated by a mean score of 3.56.

Q3: How does self-assessment influence the cognitive processes involved in vocabulary acquisition among EFL students who listen to stories?

The study examined the impact of self-assessment on EFL students' cognitive processes during incidental vocabulary acquisition from online stories. Results showed that 91.3% of participants (mean score of 4.29) found self-assessment helps connect new vocabulary with existing knowledge. About 90.5% (mean score of 4.4) noted overall improvement in English proficiency due to self-assessment. Additionally, 81.1% (mean score of 3.82) reported that it aids in inferring meanings of unfamiliar words, while 80.2% (mean score of 3.68) reported it affects strategy choice for challenging vocabulary. Self-assessment also influenced vocabulary acquisition speed and efficiency (81.1%, mean score of 3.68), understanding monitoring (73.2%, mean score of 3.45), and awareness of learning strategies (68%, mean score of 3.23). Table 3 displays results.

TABLE 3
THE INFLUENCE OF SELF-ASSESSMENT ON THE COGNITIVE PROCESSES INVOLVED IN INCIDENTAL VOCABULARY ACQUISITION AMONG EFL STUDENTS WHO LISTEN TO ONLINE STORIES

N	Items	Approval degree										Mean	SD	Rank
		Always		Often		Sometimes		Rarely		Never				
		F	%	F	%	F	%	F	%	F	%			
4	Self-assessment during listening to online stories helps me connect new vocabulary with existing knowledge.	78	61.4	23	18.1	15	11.8	7	5.5	4	3.1	4.29	0.80	1
10	Self-assessment helps me notice overall improvement in my English proficiency after listening to online stories.	66	52.0	29	22.8	20	15.7	8	6.3	4	3.1	4.14	0.88	2
6	Self-assessment influences my ability to infer the meanings of unfamiliar vocabulary encountered in listening to online stories.	55	43.3	23	18.1	25	19.7	19	15.0	5	3.9	3.82	0.85	3
5	Self-assessment affects my attention and concentration when learning vocabulary from listening to online stories.	46	36.2	25	19.7	35	27.6	16	12.6	5	3.9	3.72	0.91	4
7	Self-assessment impacts my choice of strategies when encountering challenging vocabulary while listening to online stories.	45	35.4	28	22.0	29	22.8	18	14.2	7	5.5	3.68	0.85	5
8	Self-assessment influences the speed and efficiency of my vocabulary acquisition process during listening to online stories.	46	36.2	26	20.5	31	24.4	16	12.6	8	6.3	3.68	0.89	6
2	I believe self-assessment improves my memory of new words.	41	32.3	31	24.4	32	25.2	18	14.2	5	3.9	3.67	0.87	7
3	Self-assessment while listening to online stories helps me monitor my understanding of English content and structure.	37	29.1	27	21.3	29	22.8	24	18.9	10	7.9	3.45	0.90	8
1	I believe self-assessment helps me understand new vocabulary learned from listening to online stories.	29	22.8	30	23.6	35	27.6	21	16.5	12	9.4	3.34	0.96	9
9	Self-assessment of listening to online stories affects my awareness of my own vocabulary learning strategies and progress.	25	19.7	30	23.6	32	25.2	29	22.8	11	8.7	3.23	1.01	10
Overall mean												3.70	0.90	-

As shown in Table 3, item number 4, "Self-assessment during listening to online stories helps connect new vocabulary with existing knowledge," had the highest perceived score of 4.29 ± 0.80 . This was followed by item number 10, "Self-assessment helps observe overall improvement in my English proficiency after listening to online stories," with a mean score of 4.14 ± 0.88 . In third place was item number 6, "Self-assessment influences my ability to infer the meanings of unfamiliar vocabulary encountered in listening to online stories," with a mean score of 3.82 ± 0.85 . However, item number 1, "I believe self-assessment helps understand new vocabulary learned from listening to online stories," received a mean score of 3.34 ± 0.96 , ranking it ninth. Finally, item number 9, "Self-assessment of listening to online stories affects awareness of vocabulary learning strategies and progress," ranked last with a mean score of 3.23 ± 1.01 . Figure 3 shows the impact of self-assessment on the cognitive processes.

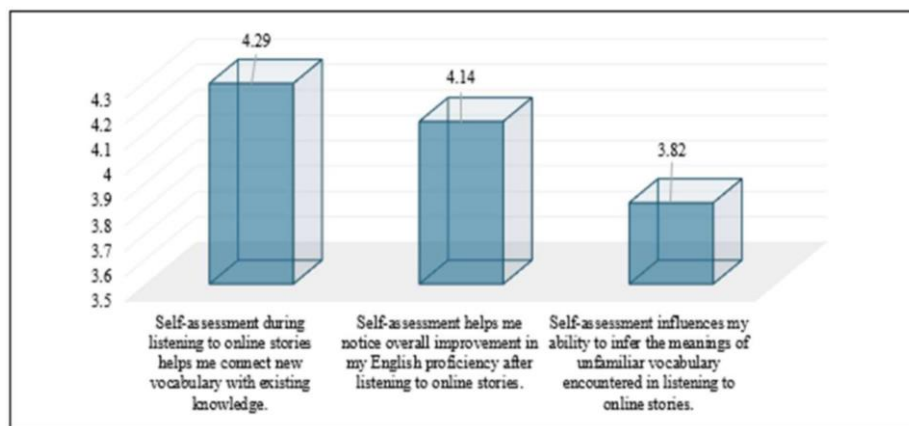


Figure 3. Influence of Self-Assessment on Cognitive Processes Involved in Incidental Vocabulary Acquisition

Figure 3 illustrates that self-assessment affects cognitive processes in incidental vocabulary acquisition from listening to online stories. Specifically, it enhances connecting new words with existing knowledge, with a mean score of 4.29 ± 0.80 , and inferring the meanings of unfamiliar vocabulary, with a mean score of 3.82 ± 0.85 .

Additionally, self-assessment contributes to evaluating overall improvement in English proficiency, as reflected by a mean score of 4.14 ± 0.88 .

Q4. What methods do teachers of EFL students use to assess the impact of incidental vocabulary acquisition on EFL students' language proficiency?

The analysis of participants' interviews identified six key themes: dynamic assessment (reported by 34 participants, 89%), technology-based tools (33 participants, 87%), vocabulary tests (32 participants, 84%), self-assessment (31 participants, 82%), vocabulary journals (29 participants, 76%), and storytelling assignment (all 28 participants, 74%). These findings are detailed in Table 4.

TABLE 4
EMERGING THEMES FROM PARTICIPANTS' INTERVIEW

Interview Emergent Themes	n (=38)	Percent (%)
Dynamic assessment (integrating assessment into instruction), involving innovative assessment tools that measure both the breadth and depth of vocabulary knowledge using data analysis reporting, assignment-based performance, observation of learning potentials)	34	89%
Technology-based tools (Quizlet, Memrise, Anki, Duolingo, LingQ, Kahoot, Grimkit, Blook, Padlet, FluentU, Wordsmyth, Busuu, Lingvist, Trello)	33	87%
Vocabulary tests (standardized tests, pretest-posttest, written tests (multiple choice questions, word matching, fill-in-the-blanks, quizzes, reading comprehension, listening comprehension)	32	84%
Self-assessment (forms, questionnaires, surveys, automated feedback)	31	82%
Vocabulary journals	29	76%
Storytelling oral and written assignments	28	74%

Table 4 reveals that dynamic assessment is widely endorsed, with 34 participants highlighting its effectiveness. Participants described various approaches, including both formative and summative evaluation, tests, observations, performance data analysis, feedback, and task-based assessments. Technology-based tools were also emphasized, with participants noting the use of apps like Memrise, Duolingo, and LingQ for vocabulary learning, leveraging features such as gamification and progress tracking. Vocabulary tests, favored by 84% of participants, were discussed alongside storytelling, which was the least mentioned theme at 74%. One participant stated, "...and my assessment methods include observations, performance data analysis, control groups testing, and long-term follow-up." Another participant stated, "I focus on task-based assessments, where in-class students engage in discussions, and out-of-class students complete related tasks independently." A third participant responded, "I evaluate retention through follow-up quizzes." A fourth participant noted, "I use formative and summative assessments to evaluate vocabulary acquisition. In-class students use flashcards and games, while out-of-class learners engage in reading and interactive tools. I compare test results and analyze student feedback to assess their progress." Regarding the theme of employing technology-based tools, one participant noted, "I found Memrise for vocabulary learning is effective, due to its gamified approach and spaced repetition system that helps students review words at optimal intervals. The built-in progress tracking on Memrise allows to monitor student acquisition." Another participant mentioned, "I use Duolingo's vocabulary exercises and track students' progress via its dashboard. The applications' gamified approach keeps students engaged, and the weekly progress reports helps me assess their vocabulary acquisition." One participant noted, "I use LingQ to help students learn vocabulary through reading and listening activities. I assign texts based on their interests and track vocabulary acquisition using the platform's analytics, which shows how many words they have learned." Additionally, another participant stated, "Out-of-class students engage in self-directed learning through language apps or listening to online stories. I compare test results and gather student feedback through surveys to assess their vocabulary development." Another participant reported, "I use journals to track students' vocabulary learning progress. Vocabulary journals offer insight into their retention and understanding." These comments suggest that while dynamic assessment remains popular, technology-based tools are increasingly valued for assessing student retention. Table 5 details the core aspects of dynamic assessment.

TABLE 5
INVARIANT CONSTITUENTS OF THE THEME OF DYNAMIC ASSESSMENT

Invariant constituents of the benefits of dynamic assessment	n (=38)	Percent (%)
Integrating various formative and summative approaches for identifying learning potential for vocabulary acquisition development	36	95%
Developing metacognitive skills, enhancing self-regulation, self-assessment, and self-monitoring, which are crucial for vocabulary acquisition and overall language proficiency.	36	95%
Providing immediate feedback on improvements in vocabulary usage	35	92%
Supporting scaffolding during the acquisition processes	35	92%
Focusing on tracking the development of the cognitive processes of vocabulary acquisition	34	89%
Reinforcing vocabulary acquisition through repetition	32	84%

Table 5 shows that dynamic assessment is highly valued by participants for its role in vocabulary acquisition. Key components include integrating formative and summative approaches (95%), developing metacognitive skills (95%), providing immediate feedback (92%), supporting scaffolding (92%), tracking cognitive development (89%), and reinforcing learning through repetition (84%). One participant emphasized, "I prefer using dynamic assessment because it is an umbrella encompassing several interactive assessment methods such as standardized tests, quizzes, pretests-posttests, and feedback." Another stated, "I use dynamic assessment because it combines assessment and instruction into a single process to evaluate students' learning potential." Another participant noted, "[it] helps me to create learners'

profiles of strengths and difficulties, so I can guide their individualized learning.” These insights suggest that dynamic assessment fosters mediated learning experiences, where teachers’ guidance and support play a crucial role in cognitive development. Additionally, the results showed the invariant constituents of the theme of vocabulary journals. Table 6 displays the results.

TABLE 6
INVARIANT CONSTITUENTS OF THE THEME OF VOCABULARY JOURNALS

Invariant constituents of the benefits of vocabulary journals	n (=38)	Percent (%)
Increasing breadth and depth of vocabulary knowledge	36	95%
Developing cognitive skills to improve retention	36	95%
Enhancing vocabulary for functional purposes (e.g. academic, analytic, persuasive, descriptive, creative)	35	92%
Improving word definition	34	89%
Improving word association	33	87%
Improving word morphology and lexical relationships	31	82%
Using words in different contexts	31	82%

Table 6 presents the invariant constituents of vocabulary journals, including: increasing depth of vocabulary knowledge and personalized learning (95%), developing cognitive skills for improved retention (95%), enhancing vocabulary for functional purposes (92%), improving word definition (89%), improving word association (87%), and improving word morphology and lexical relationships (82%), along with using words in different contexts (82%). Participants emphasized the effectiveness of vocabulary journals in enhancing vocabulary use for functional purposes. One participant stated, “Journaling provides insights into students’ abilities to use vocabulary accurately, reflecting their understanding and retention.” Another noted, “Tasks like writing a daily journal or a story helps me assess whether students can use new vocabulary in context.” Another participant highlighted the value of vocabulary journals, stating, “It helps me in tracking students’ learning and retention, especially when paired with listening comprehension tests.” Additionally, one participant noted, “I use listening comprehension tests with vocabulary- related questions and vocabulary journals to assess students’ vocabulary skills.” Additionally, one participant reported, “I use vocabulary journals, asking students to write a story each day, then I use listening and reading comprehension tests to evaluate their abilities to recognize and understand vocabulary in spoken and written language.” Another participant noted, “Vocabulary journals allow students to record and reflect on new words, offering ongoing insight into their learning process and retention.” Overall, these comments suggest that vocabulary journals play a crucial role in analyzing development in vocabulary knowledge and usage.

V. DISCUSSION AND FINDINGS

The findings underscore the positive effects of listening to online stories on incidental vocabulary acquisition, leading to a deeper contextual understanding of words as learners encounter them in meaningful contexts (see Table 1 & Figure 1). These findings align with previous research. For example, De Vos et al. (2018) demonstrated that incidental learning is enhanced by repeated exposure to words in diverse contexts; Duong et al. (2021) found that input repetitions benefit L2 learners during oral tasks; and Karami and Bowles (2019) observed that incidental vocabulary learning occurs spontaneously through listening. The current study’s findings also support earlier research by Arndt and Woore (2018), Stoffelsma et al. (2024), Teng (2022), and Webb and Rodgers (2020), which highlights the effectiveness of online platforms and multimedia tools in expanding vocabulary knowledge.

Additionally, the findings align with previous studies by Laufer and Vaisman (2023), which found that out-of-classroom L2 vocabulary acquisition benefits from digital activities, as well as with those by Abdollahpour and Maleki (2023), which indicated that mobile-assisted applications enhance vocabulary learning outside the classroom, and Feng and Webb (2020) and Majuddin et al. (2021), which asserted that listening and audiovisual materials improve vocabulary acquisition through interaction and repetition. The current study also revealed that EFL students preferred learning new vocabulary incidentally through listening to online stories rather than through reading (see Table 2 & Figure 2). Other findings from the present study indicate that learning vocabulary through online stories engages various cognitive processes and offers unique benefits, such as active engagement and reinforcement of word recognition. In harmony with these findings, Lee and Jang (2021) emphasized that narrative- based activities enhance cognitive processes essential for vocabulary development, including inferencing and semantic mapping. Kwak (2020) found that listening to stories improves auditory learning by familiarizing learners with language sounds, patterns, and natural pronunciation, which aligns with Chang and Wu’s (2019) assertion that story listening creates immersive situations that engage students in learning new words. Smith et al. (2022) also found that storytelling effectively promotes vocabulary development by embedding word meanings in meaningful contexts. Zeng and Goh (2018) highlighted the importance of listening comprehension in mastering English, highlighting its role in recognizing information and interpreting nuances. Nguyen and Le (2023) found that modern technology, such as mobile apps and online stories, has enhanced story-based learning. Additionally, the present study revealed that self-assessment significantly affects the incidental vocabulary acquisition of EFL students through online stories, influencing their ability to infer unfamiliar vocabulary meanings (see Table 3 &

Figure 3). The findings indicate that self-assessment notably enhances students' abilities to infer the meanings of unfamiliar vocabulary from online stories. Extensive research supports these findings, showing that technology, including computer-assisted, mobile-assisted, and technology-enhanced language learning, plays a crucial role in developing self-assessment strategies and boosting engagement, and self-regulation among EFL learners (Elaish et al., 2019; Gillespie, 2020; Goksu et al., 2022; Shadiev & Wang, 2022; Zhang & Zou, 2022). The present study findings also highlight the effectiveness of various assessment methods used by teachers to assess vocabulary acquisition, such as dynamic assessment, vocabulary tests, feedback, vocabulary journals, and storytelling assignments (see Table 4, 5, & 6). These findings align with previous research, indicating that both formative and summative assessments, including teachers' feedback, tests, and self-assessment, have been shown to improve language performance (Gillespie & Grishaeva, 2022). Schmitt (2019) noted that dynamic assessment, which combines assessment and instruction, focuses on learning potential rather than static knowledge. Additionally, Chubaryan et al. (2023) found that vocabulary journals support explicit vocabulary learning, promoting student autonomy and independent learning.

VI. RECOMMENDATIONS AND CONCLUSION

The current study addressed some of the challenges faced by EFL students at a public university in Riyadh, Saudi Arabia, when learning vocabulary. These students believe that direct vocabulary instruction is insufficient for their vocabulary development, noting that their reading materials emphasize comprehension and memorization rather than providing opportunities for authentic vocabulary use.

Consequently, their vocabulary development often relies on exposure to written and spoken language in academic settings. The study aimed to investigate EFL students' perceptions of how listening to online stories affects incidental vocabulary acquisition, focusing on three key areas: word recognition, meaning connection, and word usage. Based on the findings, the study recommends expanding learning beyond the classroom and encouraging students to use online stories to enhance their incidental vocabulary acquisition. Online platforms offer diverse resources that can improve vocabulary acquisition, aid in understanding and developing cognitive processes, and help students track their progress through self-assessment. The study also analyzes trending methods for assessing vocabulary acquisition, including online websites, mobile applications, vocabulary journals, and storytelling assignments. Additionally, the study reveals the methods teachers use to assess vocabulary acquisition and their influence on overall language proficiency. These methods include dynamic assessment, which combines formative and summative approaches, vocabulary pretests and posttests, instructor feedback, and task-based performance assessment. The study recommends incorporating vocabulary journals as part of dynamic assessment to provide personalized learning experiences, helping students develop vocabulary for functional purposes and improving morphological, lexical, and semantic aspects. The significance of this study stems from addressing a gap in the literature regarding incidental vocabulary learning through listening to online stories. It contributes to understanding the immediate and long-term effects of this learning method, explores students' awareness of the cognitive processes involved in incidental vocabulary acquisition, and highlights the role of self-assessment in vocabulary development.

ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

I would like to extend my gratitude to the Deanship of Scientific Research at Al-Imam Mohammad Ibn Saud Islamic University (IMSIU), Riyadh, Saudi Arabia, for their ongoing guidance and support in conducting rigorous research.

FUNDING

This work was supported and funded by the Deanship of Scientific Research at Imam Mohammad Ibn Saud Islamic University (IMSIU) (grant number IMSIU-RG23007).

REFERENCES

- [1] Abdollahpour, Z., & Asadzadeh Maleki, N. (2023). Fostering academic vocabulary learning: Opportunities for explicit learning through a mobile-assisted app in the field of applied linguistics. *International Journal of Foreign Language Teaching and Research*, 11(44), 133–152.
- [2] Arndt, H. & Woore, R. (2018). Vocabulary learning from watching YouTube videos and reading blog posts. *Language Learning & Technology*, 22, 124–142.
- [3] Black, C., & Wright, K. (2023). What's up with words? A systematic review of designs, strategies, and theories underlying vocabulary research. *Reading Psychology*, 45(1), 78–103.
- [4] Chang, Y., & Wu, C. (2019). Enhancing EFL students' vocabulary acquisition through storytelling. *Language Teaching Research*, 23(4), 484–502.
- [5] Chen, Y. (2021). Comparing incidental vocabulary learning from reading-only and reading-while- listening. *System*, 97(3), 102442, pp. 1–13.
- [6] Chou, M. (2024). Validating the vocabulary learning Strategies used by English as a foreign language university student in Taiwan. *RELJ Journal*, 55(1), 128–143.
- [7] Chubaryan, A., Vardanyan, M., & Stubbs, R. (2023). Vocabulary journals learning tool for L2 vocabulary improvement. *Foreign Language in Higher Education*, 27(1), 77–93.

- [8] Dang, T., Lu, C., & Webb, S. (2022). Incidental learning of single words and collocations through viewing an academic lecture. *Studies in Second Language Acquisition*, 44(3), 708–736.
- [9] De Vos, J., Schriefers, H. et al. (2018). A meta-analysis and meta-regression of incidental second language word learning from spoken input. *Language Learning*, 68(4), 906–941.
- [10] Dolosic, H. (2018). An examination of self-assessment and interconnected facets of second language reading. *Reading in a Foreign Language*, 30(2), 189–208.
- [11] Duong, P., Perez, M., Nguyen, L. et al. (2021). Incidental lexical mining in task repetition: The role of input, input repetition and individual differences. *System*, 103(2), 102650, pp. 1-16.
- [12] Elaish, M. M., Ghani, N. et al. (2019). Development of a mobile game application to boost students' motivation in learning English vocabulary. *IEEE Access*, 7(1), 13326–13337.
- [13] Ellis, R. (1997). *Second language acquisition*. Oxford University Press.
- [14] Feng, Y., & Webb, S. (2020). Learning vocabulary through reading, listening, and viewing. Which mode of input is most effective? *Studies in Second Language Acquisition*, 42, 499–523.
- [15] Gallagher, M., Barber, A. et al. (2019). Academic vocabulary: Explicit and incidental instruction for students of diverse language backgrounds. *Reading & Writing Quarterly*, 35(2), 84–102.
- [16] Gilbert, R., Davis, M. et al. (2021). The relationship between sentence comprehension and lexical-semantic retuning. *Journal of Memory and Language*, 116, 104188, 2-22.
- [17] Gillespie, D., Grishaeva, E. (2022). Assessment in adult language learning. In: Kononova, V., Kersh, N., Dobrydina, T. (eds) *Adult English Language Teaching. Lifelong Learning Book Series*, vol 29. Springer (pp. 145-171).
- [18] Gillespie, J. (2020). CALL research: Where are we now? *ReCALL*, 32(2), 127–144.
- [19] Goksu, I., Ozkaya, E., & Gunduz, A. (2022). The content analysis and bibliometric mapping of CALL journal. *Computer Assisted Language Learning*, 35(8), 2018–2048.
- [20] Gu, Y. (2020). Strategies for learning vocabulary. In S. Webb (Ed.), *The Routledge handbook of vocabulary studies* (pp. 271–287). Routledge.
- [21] Gyllstad, H. (2009). Designing and evaluating tests of receptive collocation knowledge: COLLEX and COLLMATCH in *Researching Collocations in Another Language*. (eds). A. Barfield and H. Gyllstad: Macmillan (pp. 153–170).
- [22] Hasumi, T., & Chiu, M. (2024). Technology-enhanced language learning in English language education: Performance analysis, core publications, and emerging trends. *Cogent Education*, 11(1), 1-21.
- [23] Jiang, W., & Grabe, W. (2020). The role of learner proficiency and narrative complexity in vocabulary acquisition through storytelling. *Modern Language Journal*, 104(2), 321-336.
- [24] Jin, Z., & Webb, S. (2020). Incidental vocabulary learning through listening to teacher talk. *Modern Language Journal*, 104(3), 550–566.
- [25] Karami A., & Bowles F. (2019). Which strategy promotes retention? Intentional vocabulary learning, incidental vocabulary learning, or mixture of both? *Australian Journal of Teacher Education*, 44(9), s5-43.
- [26] Kasahara, K., & Kanayama, K. (2021). When to conduct a vocabulary quiz, before the review or after review? *System*, 103(3), 102641, pp. 1-13.
- [27] Knaak T., Grünke M., & Barwasser A. (2021). Enhancing vocabulary recognition in English foreign learners with and without learning disability: The effects of a multi component storytelling intervention approach. *Learning Disabilities: A Contemporary Journal*, 19, 1–18.
- [28] Krashen, S. (1982). *Principles and practices of second language acquisition*. Pergamon (pp. 20-29).
- [29] Kwak, S. (2020). The efficacy of storytelling in EFL classrooms: Focusing on vocabulary acquisition. *TESOL Quarterly*, 54(2), 273-277.
- [30] Laufer, B., & Vaisman, E. (2023). Out-of-classroom L2 vocabulary acquisition: The effects of digital activities and school vocabulary. *The Modern Language Journal*, 107(4), 1-19.
- [31] Lee, J., & Jang, J. (2021). Narrative-based activities and vocabulary development in EFL settings. *Applied Linguistics*, 42(3), 295-315.
- [32] Majuddin, E., Siyanova-Chanturia, A., & Boers, F. (2021). Incidental acquisition of multiword expressions through audiovisual materials: The role of repetition and typographic enhancement. *Studies in Second Language Acquisition*, 43(5), 985–1008.
- [33] Malone, J. (2018). Incidental vocabulary learning in SLA: Effects of frequency, aural enhancement, and working memory. *Studies in Second Language Acquisition*, 40, 651–675.
- [34] Mazloomi, S., & Khabiri, M. (2016). Diagnostic assessment of writing through dynamic self-assessment. *International Journal of English Linguistics*, 6(6), 19–31.
- [35] McVee, M., Dunsmore, K., & Gavelek, J. (2005). *Schema theory revisited*. *Review of Educational Research*, 75(4), 531-566.
- [36] Moody, S., Hu, X., Kuo, L. et al. (2018). Vocabulary instruction: A critical analysis of theories, research, and practice. *Education Sciences*, 8(4), 180-202.
- [37] Nguyen, L. Le, H., & Yan, Z. (2022). Quizlet as a learning tool for enhancing L2 learners' lexical retention: Should it be used in class or at home? *Human Behavior and Emerging Technologies*, 1(2022), 868367, 1-10.
- [38] Nguyen, L. & Le, H. (2023). Enhancing L2 learners' lexical gains via Quizlet learning tool: The role of individual differences. *Education and Information Technologies*, 28, 12143–12167.
- [39] Nie, K., Fu, J., Rehman, H., & Zaigham, G. (2022). An empirical study of the effects of incidental vocabulary learning through listening to songs. *Front Psychology*, 13(2022), 891146, 1-12.
- [40] Pilongo, D., Miolo, S. et al. (2023). Enhancing English vocabulary acquisition in reading instruction through multiple intelligences approach. *Journal of Language, Literature, Culture, and Education*, 4(1), 1-13.
- [41] Quoc, N. & Van, L. (2023). Enhancement of EFL learners' lexical retention: The role of social constructivism. *Cogent Education*, 10(1), 1-16.
- [42] Ramezanali, N., & Faez, F. (2019). Vocabulary learning and retention through multimedia glossing. *Language Learning & Technology*, 23(2), 105–124.

- [43] Ramezanalil, N., Takumi, U., & Faez, F. (2021). Efficacy of multimodal glossing on second language vocabulary learning: A Meta analysis. *TESOL Quarterly*, 55(1), 1-29.
- [44] Rasinski, T., Padak, N., & Newton, J. (2017). The roots of comprehension. *Literacy*, 74(5), 41–45.
- [45] Schmitt, N. (2019). Understanding vocabulary acquisition, instruction, and assessment: A research agenda. *Language Teaching*, 52(2), 261 – 274.
- [46] Schunk, D. (2019). *Learning theories: An educational perspective* (8th ed.). Pearson.
- [47] Shadiev, R., & Wang, X. (2022). A review of research on technology-supported language learning and 21st century skills. *Frontiers in Psychology*, 13(2022), 897689, pp. 1-19.
- [48] Smith, P. et al. (2022). Meta-analysis of the effectiveness of storytelling on vocabulary growth in EFL learners. *Journal of Educational Psychology*, 114(1), 122-135.
- [49] Stoffelsma, L., Antwi, V., & Hanson, R. (2024). Incidental vocabulary learning in a postcolonial English second language context. *Language Matters*, 55(1-2), 92-113.
- [50] Teng, F. (2016). Incidental vocabulary acquisition from reading-only and reading-while-listening: A multi-dimensional approach. *Innovation in Language Learning and Teaching*, 12, 1–15.
- [51] Teng, F. (2020). Retention of new words learned incidentally from reading: Word exposure frequency, L1 marginal glosses, and their combination. *Language Teaching Research*, 24(6), 785–812.
- [52] Teng, F. (2022). Incidental L2 vocabulary learning from viewing captioned videos: Effects of learner-related factors. *System*, 105 (2022), 102736, pp. 1-12.
- [53] Teng, F., & Mizumoto, A. (2023). The role of spoken vocabulary knowledge in language minority students' incidental vocabulary learning from captioned television. *Australian Review of Applied Linguistics*, 46(2), 253 – 278.
- [54] Vu, D. & Peters, E. (2022). Learning vocabulary from reading-only, reading-while-listening, and reading with textual input enhancements. *Insights from Vietnamese EFL learners. RELC Journal*, 53, 85–100.
- [55] Webb, S. & Rodgers, M. (2020). Incidental vocabulary learning through viewing television. *International Journal of Applied Linguistics*, 17(2), 191-220.
- [56] Webb, S., Yanagisawa, A., & Uchiyara, T. (2020). How effective are intentional vocabulary-learning activities? A meta-analysis. *The Modern Language Journal*, 104(4), 715-738, pp. 1-14.
- [57] Wright, K., Franks, A., Kuo, L. et al. (2016). Both theory and practice: Science literacy instruction and theories of reading. *International Journal of Science and Mathematics Education*, 14, 1275–1292.
- [58] Zeng, Y., & Goh, C. (2018). A self-regulated learning approach to extensive listening and its impact on listening achievement and metacognitive awareness. *Studies in Second Language Learning and Teaching*, 8(2), 193–218.
- [59] Zhang, R., & Zou, D. (2022). A state-of-the-art review of the modes and effectiveness of multimedia input for second and foreign language learning. *Computer Assisted Language Learning*, 35(9), 2790–281.

Amal Abdul-Aziz Mohammad Al-Othman  received her PhD in Applied Linguistics from IMSIU, College of Languages and Translation, English department with the first honor degree. She has been teaching English since 2004. Her research interests include EFL writing and Language acquisition, computational linguistics, phonology, sociolinguistics grammatical theory, historical linguistics, and psycholinguistics.

An Innovative Method of Teaching English for Hospitality: A Case in Bali Tourism College, Indonesia

Denok Lestari

Institut Pariwisata dan Bisnis Internasional, Indonesia

Kadek Ayu Ekasani

Institut Pariwisata dan Bisnis Internasional, Indonesia

Ni Luh Supartini

Institut Pariwisata dan Bisnis Internasional, Indonesia

Ni Made Ayu Sulasmini

Institut Pariwisata dan Bisnis Internasional, Indonesia

Abstract—Teaching English for Specific Purposes (ESP) is different from teaching General English. This research aimed to demonstrate the existence of innovation in English learning strategy, called the ASRI method, as a proposed method for teaching ESP at tourism colleges. This method is a combination of Aim-Sequence-Role-Interaction (ASRI) components that can be used to promote the students' awareness of using the appropriate language functions and improve their fluency in business-like communication. This R&D research applied the Exploratory Mixed Method which followed Logan's model design, focusing on three stages, including problem determination, design, and development. This research was carried out at a tourism college in Bali. The subjects who were involved in the preliminary test of the ASRI method were 60 college students. Determination of the research subject used purposive sampling. The data collection tools utilized in the preliminary field test were scoring rubrics. The analysis techniques applied to analyze the data were both descriptive quantitative and qualitative. The research results show that students' learning outcomes have increased significantly by 81% due to the implementation of the ASRI method in studying ESP. Therefore, this model is worthy of being proposed as an innovative method for teaching ESP in tourism universities.

Index Terms—ASRI method, English for Specific Purposes, hospitality

I. INTRODUCTION

In the global culture, English language plays a critical role as the primary means of communication, including interacting, negotiating, conducting business, completing transactions, intercultural learning, and keeping up with technological advancements (Heggernes, 2021; Al-Tarawneh & Osam, 2019). A huge demand for English has been urging from this phenomenon, particularly in the contexts of English for Specific Purposes (ESP) (Daar et al., 2023), where there is a compelling need for the knowledge, capacity, and specialized skills that allow non-English native speakers to keep up with rapid developments for economic growth (Loingsigh & Mozzon-McPherson, 2020; Beck & Sitzman, 2019; You et al., 2018). ESP has been a major concern in language teaching since its emergence in the 1960s, as well as its implications in education, business, and hospitality (Wang & Fan, 2020; Cloudia Ho, 2020; Siegllová et al., 2017).

English for tourism and hospitality is a category of ESP that is dominantly used in the international tourism and service industry (Cloudia Ho, 2020; Al-Tarawneh & Osam, 2019). However, ESP in the context of hospitality has not been discussed in detail. This research tried to resolve several research gaps. Firstly, the essential role of English in the tourism and hospitality sector (Al-Tarawneh & Osam, 2019; Bernstein & Woosnam, 2019). Secondly, grammatical problems still frequently occur in language teaching (Rebuschat et al., 2021; Busse et al., 2021; Serfaty & Serrano, 2020). Thirdly, the learners' expectations of their potential target needs (Arnó-Macià et al., 2020; Netra et al., 2023). Fourthly, Teaching English as a Foreign Language (TEFL) in non-native English-speaking countries (Alotumi, 2021). Therefore, this article proposed an innovation in the teaching method focusing on language functions, to improve the fluency of English learners in the tourism and hospitality sector.

Language learning, as a part of applied linguistics, refers to an integral part of teaching, and learning, which interdependently influence each other (Bagiyan et al., 2021; Pérez Cañado, 2023). The purpose of learning a language becomes the core and is centered on language appropriateness (Pardayevna et al., 2021). Advancements in business management and communication technologies have led to changes in the field of English language teaching. One such change is the shift in course focus from academic English to English for more practical uses (Pardayevna et al., 2021).

While several language learning methods have been established and utilized for years, the most appropriate for teaching English for Specific Purposes (ESP) in vocational schools is Communicative Language Teaching (CLT), which includes role plays and simulations (Cloudia Ho, 2020; Li & Flowerdew, 2020). However, the role-playing technique in CLT requires significant preparation time, and assessing individual student competence in large classes can be challenging (Alotumi, 2021; Wang & Fan, 2020).

To elaborate CLT and Hymes's Ethnography of SPEAKING (i.e. Setting, Participants, Ends, Act sequence, Keys, Instruments, Norms, and Genres), there are six language functions applied in English for hospitality, specifically in the field of Food and Beverage Service (Ma'fiah & Sumardiono, 2023). They are 1) Interactive; 2) Informative; 3) Directive; 4) Persuasive; 5) Permissive, and 6) Indicative. The interactive language function is mainly used for maintaining the relationship in communication. Greetings, small talks, and farewells belong to this function. For example: *"Welcome to our restaurant. How are you today?"* The informative language function transfers messages from the speaker to the hearer. Questioning and repeating messages are included in this language function. For example: *"What would you like to order?"* The directive language function is aimed at making the hearer do something for the speaker. Here, requesting and ordering are strongly used. For example: *"Can I see the menu again, please?"*. The persuasive language function is used for persuading and affecting the hearer to upsell the products. For example: *"I highly recommend the Pork Vindaloo, Sir. It's very popular."* The permissive language function puts more focus on fluency rather than accuracy. These expressions may be grammatically incorrect, but they are still understandable as long as the listener can understand them. For example: *"The reservation is for tonight?"* (with rising intonation, indicating it is a question rather than a statement). The indicative language function is used to express how the speaker feels about something. For example: *"We do apologize for your food"*. The six categories of language functions are used as the guideline for constructing the innovative method for learning English for hospitality.

II. OBJECTIVE OF THE RESEARCH

The objectives of the research are:

1. To investigate the English communicative skills of the students in higher education who majored in hospitality in an emerging non-native English-speaking country, particularly Indonesia.
2. To explain how ESP courses improve the English communicative skills of the Hotel Management students.

III. RESEARCH HYPOTHESIS

The following hypothesis is formulated and must be tested for truth to strengthen the results of the ASRI method testing:

Ho: The ASRI method is smaller or the same as conventional learning methods.

Ha: The ASRI learning method is better than conventional learning methods.

IV. METHODOLOGY

A. Design

The researcher employed Research and Development (R&D) design. This R&D research applied the Exploratory Mixed Method which utilized Logan's model design, focusing on three stages, including problem determination, design, and development. This present study applied qualitative design with an experimental group and a control group to determine the effect of the application of the ASRI method.

B. Object of Study

The object of this study was the material design of ESP courses given to third-year students of hotel management who had their On-the-Job Training in the hospitality industry in Bali.

C. Population and Sample

The sample for this study was recruited from the International Institute of Tourism and Business, Indonesia. The participants consisted of 50 students with ages ranging from 20-22 years. The students were in the intermediate level of English competence and already passed the beginner level with good scores.

D. Procedure

The qualitative data in the form of oral (verbal) data were obtained from recorded conversations of students' activity. The quantitative data were collected from the results of the pre-test and the post-test. Both of these primary data were needed to evaluate the effectiveness of the application of the developed learning methods, which were based on the Indonesian National Competency Standards (The Indonesian Ministry of Manpower & Transmigration, 2012).

V. RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

A. The Components of the ASRI Method

Research and Development (R&D) produces a product that can be used for the improvement of education (Cohen et al., 2018, p. 414). The product of this present study was a learning method used to improve English speaking skills. Referring to the ethnography of SPEAKING, the ASRI method is an acronym from the initial letters of the four components, namely Aims, Sequence, Roles, and Interaction (Setyawati, 2022). The main purpose of creating this method is to help the students in tourism colleges improve their fluency in communicating in English in their workplace. The communicative principles of the ASRI method underlie the conversational aims, such as to greet the guests, to give recommendations, or responding to complaints. The first component is a communicative and two-way conversation in communication. This is reflected in the use of language functions in serving the guests in restaurants. The second component is the sequence, stating that the flow of speech will develop in the order arranged by the speaker (Staley & Jucker, 2021). Students can apply this coherent and orderly conversation when practicing the order of service in a restaurant. The third component is role-playing. The students can improve their communicative competence through activities, such as explaining something, conversing in pairs, and simulating in offering assistance (Tipmontree & Tasanameelarp, 2020). Although role-playing has been applied in various language learning, role-playing in the ASRI method has its specialties, as it combines language function theory with language learning creativity. This combination has never received attention in language classes. By understanding the language functions that will be used in each topic in advance, students will find it easier to develop conversations. Students also get the opportunity to practice role-playing in pairs and groups based on the given topics. The fourth component was interaction, where students learn to engage in speech events and incorporate elements of kinesics, gestures, and nonverbal cues alongside verbal communication. Adult learners build positive emotions from teachers' relaxed body posture, gestures and eye contact, and positive facial expressions. Teachers' nonverbal behaviors positively encourage the students' learning experiences (Derakhshan et al., 2022).

The ASRI method emphasizes language as a tool for interaction and communication to achieve specific goals, drawing on the communicative approach (Lestari, 2021). It prioritizes how students can effectively use language rather than simply mastering its structural aspects (Clodia Ho, 2020; Vold & Brkan, 2020; Liu & Hu, 2021; Bagiyan et al., 2021). Consequently, learning activities center on role-playing, pair work, and group work, with a focus on fluency over accuracy (Bagiyan et al., 2021). The primary aim is to enhance oral skills based on language functions relevant to professional contexts, offering students the flexibility to develop their communicative abilities without excessive concern for grammar (Lestari, 2021).

The learning objectives in the ASRI method are communicative, where students are guided to improve their speaking skills by understanding the communicative goals of having a conversation. The communicative goal refers to what the speaker intends to accomplish through the use of language functions in a specific context. This communicative goal forms the foundation of the ASRI method and is represented as the first component, called "aims". It is important to clarify that "aims" are not the objective of the learning method itself, but rather the specific goals or purposes the speaker seeks to achieve using language functions, which are expressed through exponents or sentences, which functions to ask for something, apologize, promise, argue, express emotions, praise, or express complaint (Lestari, 2021).

Building on this concept, the core component of the ASRI method emphasizes the use of language functions in the form of exponents tailored to the context of learning English for food preparation. For instance, when taking food orders, the exponents might include phrases such as: "Are you ready to order?", "What would you like for the starter?", "How would you like the steak done?", and "Would you like something to drink?" Similarly, when recommending food or drinks, examples of useful sentences could be: "Why don't you try the Caesar Salad? It's very popular," or "The Sirloin steak is very delicious, madam" (Lestari, 2021).

Understanding language functions and their realization in language learning is very important. Language learning can be better tailored to students' needs by analyzing speech events in the target language and classifying them according to language functions. From there, appropriate linguistic forms can be taught to help students effectively carry out these functions within speech events. While a language learner may master grammar, syntax, and vocabulary, they may still struggle to achieve the intended or implied function by selecting the right words, structure, intonation, nonverbal cues, and by interpreting the context of a given discourse (Lestari, 2021). Therefore, understanding how to use linguistic forms to accomplish specific language functions is a critical aspect of learning a second or foreign language.

(a). *The Syllabus*

The syllabus in the ASRI method centers on language functions and their realization through exponents, which are then taught communicatively to students. Each language function is accompanied by its corresponding linguistic forms and expressions, along with related vocabulary (Lestari, 2021). For instance, when teaching the function "ask", students need to understand vocabulary such as "*what time*", "*how many*", "*arrive*", and "*when is it for*." In addition to vocabulary and expressions, the syllabus also addresses pronunciation challenges that might arise. For example, the phrase "*May I ...*" should be pronounced /meɪ aɪ/, but many students mistakenly pronounce it /maɪ aɪ/. Similarly, the phrase "*fully booked*", which should be pronounced /'fʊli bukt/, is often mispronounced by students as /'fʊli bʊkəd/ due to the influence of spelling. As a result, the ASRI method syllabus places a strong emphasis on both vocabulary and pronunciation recognition (Lestari, 2021).

In addition to vocabulary and pronunciation, students also need to be familiar with the types of non-standard English commonly used in everyday conversations. However, the permissive function of "using non-standard language" should

be complemented with examples of standard English expressions to ensure students have a well-rounded understanding of both informal and formal language use (Lestari, 2021). To avoid misperceptions in the future, it is very important to provide students with an understanding of the procedures for using standard English which are adjusted to operational procedures in the field of food preparation. Thus, the purpose of the ASRI method is to improve students' communication skills in using standardized English.

(b). The Activities

In the field of food preparation, of course, oral language skills are more needed. Therefore, it would be more beneficial if students were given more practice in dialogue and role-playing. Types of communicative activities that can be carried out are practicing dialogue, complementing dialogue, role-playing, pair training, and group discussions as explained below.

(1) Practicing Dialogue

Dialogue is used as an opening activity to introduce topics and language functions used according to context. By practicing dialogue in pairs, students can also practice listening, pronunciation, and turn-taking interactively. After students practice the dialogue, teachers can teach grammar communicatively and relate it to the context of speech events or language functions used (Pérez Cañado, 2020). For example, the use of the Present Perfect Tense in the sentence "*Have you made a reservation before?*". Teachers can explain the structure of the language after students listen to or use sentences that contain the structure of the language, both in dialogue and short questions. This is the basic principle of communicative learning, namely, students know and understand new language expressions first and then learn the structure of the language. After reading the dialogue, students are asked questions through practice to check their understanding of the dialogue received.

(2) Completing Dialogue

Completing dialogue can train students to read and understand dialogue, and aims to increase the vocabulary of students. In this activity, teachers prepare a dialogue and eliminate a few words or sentences and the students complete it. This can be adjusted to the learning objectives and competencies to be achieved, then students fill it out based on examples of dialogue that have been studied previously. This activity is a process of internalizing language input, for example, a dialogue that contains elements of grammar and certain sentence patterns can strengthen the foundation of students' understanding so that students will be more accustomed to using these expressions or language structures. For example, students can be asked to complete the following conversation to strengthen their understanding of language expressions used when welcoming guests at a restaurant.

(3) Role-Play

Role play technique is an activity done by students by imagining themselves in a certain situation and playing a role in that situation, for example, as a guest or as a waiter. Role-playing activities, simulations, and training are recommended as an effort to fulfill various language functions in language learning. Role-play is also the most appropriate way to apply a communicative approach. With role-play techniques, situations in real life can be presented in class, for example, a restaurant situation where students will work later. Through role-play, students can experiment using the language they will need later. However, role-playing techniques are time-consuming when applied in large classes. This technique also turns out to be quite frightening for weak students because they do not understand what to say and how to convey it so they tend to just memorize dialogue like the examples given. Therefore, an understanding of language functions should be taught first so that students can prepare themselves more efficiently in performing role-play.

(4) Pair Work and Group Work

Speaking activity is a communication process that involves at least three elements: participants (speakers and listeners), messages (information conveyed), and communication goals to be achieved. Therefore, in every language learning students should practice in groups or pairs. Students can do exercises about information gap and information transfer when they do the same task but each student has different information needed to complete the task. For example, student A is given a food menu that only contains the names of food and drinks, while student B is given a complete food menu with a brief description of the ingredients and how to cook the food. Student A then acts as a guest who wants to order food and Student B becomes a waiter/waitress who provides recommendations and explanations about the food menu to guests. Thus, students have communicative goals and are motivated to speak. Students can also develop their thinking or imagining skills and foster courage and confidence in communicating using English.

Students must also be trained to interact using paralinguistic aspects, such as intonation, facial expressions, and natural body movements. Proper pronunciation according to English standards is very important because if a student mispronounces a word, the interlocutor (in this case a foreign guest) will not be able to catch the message. Students must be able to engage in interactions during speech events, incorporating kinesics, gestures, and nonverbal cues alongside verbal language (Lestari, 2021). Therefore, the ASRI method not only focuses on linguistic elements such as vocabulary and pronunciation but also pays attention to paralinguistic elements such as gesture, eye contact, and suprasegmental elements. Interaction during language learning occurs when students work in pairs or groups and play their roles as guests and waitresses in restaurants.

B. The Implementation of the ASRI Method

To find out the effectiveness of the method, the researcher conducted an experiment using two groups of participants. The experimental group was from Class 6A and the control group was from Class 6B with 25 students in each class. Before experimenting, a pre-test was held to determine the initial abilities of students, both in the experimental group and the control group. The test used the same test questions in both groups. Students were asked to present a dialogue in pairs regarding the order-taking process in a restaurant. The instrument for analyzing test results applied three indicators, namely speed of understanding, creativity, and results, with the score range for each indicator as follows.

TABLE 1
THE INDICATOR IN THE IMPLEMENTATION OF THE ASRI METHOD

Score	Performance Criteria		
	Comprehension speed	Creativity	Learning outcomes
4	Quickly understand the use of language functions, and produce appropriate and polite expressions in a given context using their own words. Actively involved in questions and answers. Show enthusiasm in completing tasks.	Develop topics fully and coherently. Expand the topics and improvise the use of polite expressions according to language functions.	Use language functions and polite expressions fluently in dialogs, with no repetition and hesitation. Speech is smooth, closely a native-like speaker.
3	Able to understand the language functions, but hesitate to use their own words. Show interest, but reluctant to ask or answer questions.	Topics are partly developed and use appropriate expressions of language functions to construct a dialog.	Speak with little repetition and show hesitation to find proper expressions of language functions.
2	Need more time and explanation in understanding the language functions and expressions, frequently ask for translation. Depends on other students to complete the tasks.	Imitate the expressions used in the sample dialogs with a little improvisation.	memorize sentences, frequently show hesitation and pauses during speech. Speech is unnatural and repeated errors in pronunciation.
1	Unable to use language functions or produce expressions based on any given topic. Remain silent and passive.	Unable to expand any given topics, fully imitate sample dialogs.	Speech is slow and full of hesitation, frequently read the notes during role-play. Frequent errors in pronunciation, show a lack of confidence.

The processing results of the pre-test scores from the two groups are described as follows. To calculate the effectiveness of the method, the criteria/ideal score for the work system is first determined. The ideal score is $4 \times 3 \times 25 = 300$, where 4 = highest answer score; 3 = instrument item; 25 = number of respondents. Furthermore, the ideal score for each instrument item is $4 \times 25 = 100$, where 4 = highest score; and 25 = number of respondents. The following is the result of the pre-test for both groups.

TABLE 2
THE PRE-TEST RESULT

Groups	Ideal score	Comprehension speed	Creativity	Learning outcomes
Experimental	115	0.40	0.37	0.38
Control	117	0.44	0.35	0.38

Based on the pre-test scores of the experimental group, the total data obtained was 115. Thus, the effectiveness of learning before receiving treatment was $115:300 = 0.38$ or 38% of what was expected. The comprehension speed was $40:100 = 0.4$ or 40% of that expected; then creativity, namely $37:100 = 0.37$ or 37% of the expected criteria; and learning outcomes were $38:100 = 0.38$ or 38% of the expected criteria. Meanwhile, the pre-test scores of the control group showed the amount of data = 117. This indicated that the effectiveness of learning in the control group before receiving treatment was $117:300 = 0.39$ or 39% of what was expected. The comprehension speed was $44:100 = 0.44$ or 44% of what was expected; creativity amounted to $35:100 = 0.35$ of the expected criteria; and learning outcomes were $38:100 = 0.38$ or 38% of the expected criteria. The two data sets above indicate that there was no significant difference between the average pre-test scores of the experimental group and the control group.

The topics given to the experiment group during the experiment period were: *Taking reservations by telephone, Receiving and seating guests, Taking orders, Serving the food, and Dealing with complaints*. In presenting each topic, the lecturer followed the ABCD (Acquire-Brainstorm-Chance-Development) stages used in the ASRI method. The following are the results of observations in the experimental group when learning the topic of Reservations.

At the Acquire stage, the lecturer elicited students' initial experiences and understanding of reservation activities, namely regarding the brief definition and purpose of reservations. After giving a brief description of reservations, the lecturer then played a dialogue about reservations while students listened and read Dialogue 1 in their handout. In this way, students obtained language input through listening and reading the dialogue.

Dialog 1: Taking Reservations by Telephone

Staff : Good afternoon. Le Petit Bistrot. Fred Speaking. May I help you?

Caller : I'd like to make a dinner reservation, please.

Staff : Certainly, sir. For what date, please?

Caller : The fourth of May.
Staff : And for what time, sir?
Caller : 8.30.
Staff : May I have your name, please?
Caller : Yes, It's Blanc. That's B-L-A-N-C.
Staff : For how many, Mr. Blanc?
Caller : For four I'd like a table in a non-smoking area, by the window.
Staff : Just a minute, Mr. Blanc. I'll see if we have a table. ...
I'm very sorry, Mr. Blanc. There are no tables left in a non-smoking room. We have a window table in a smoking area. Would you care for that?
Caller : Yes, all right.
Staff : So that's a window table for four, at eight-thirty, on the fourth of May. Could I have a contact number, please?
Caller : Yes, it's 5556892.
Staff : Thank you for calling. We'll see you on the fourth. See you, Mr. Blanc.

The lecturer then emphasized the students' attention to the functions of the language used in the dialogue. The lecturer asked questions about the dialogue, such as: "When is the reservation for?", "For what time?", "For how many persons?" etc. The lecturer explained briefly that these questions served to gather the information needed for the reservation. Next, the lecturer asked students to practice Dialogue 1 in pairs.

Next, at the Brainstorm stage, the lecturer provided a more detailed explanation of the language functions used when making a reservation, starting from greetings which function to answer the telephone and greet the caller, identifying oneself to introduce the name of the restaurant and the person receiving the call, offering help to offer assistance, asking for details to ask for information regarding the reservation desired by the caller, apologizing to convey an apology when unable to fulfilling guest requests, offering alternatives to offer guests choices in the hope that guests are willing to change their requests according to the availability of places in the restaurant, repeating the reservations to confirm all details so that there are no mistakes in note-taking, and thanking which functions apart from saying thank you that also serves as a marker that the reservation process has been completed. At this stage, the lecturer asked students to discuss in groups to find language expressions that may be used according to the functions of the language. After students understood the language functions needed for reservation, namely interactive function, persuasive function, informative function, and indicative function, along with their representation in language expressions, they completed the exercises on the handout. For example, students practiced saying the name of the day, date, and time, matching language functions with language expressions, and completing dialogue.

At the Chance stage, students began to practice developing conversations about reservations. In pairs, students exchanged opinions and worked together to prepare scripts for role-playing exercises. Students looked enthusiastic about practicing the language functions and language expressions they had just learned. They were very motivated to do this exercise because it is in line with the professional field they will pursue in the future. The lecturer assisted students develop conversations by providing a model or flow as below.

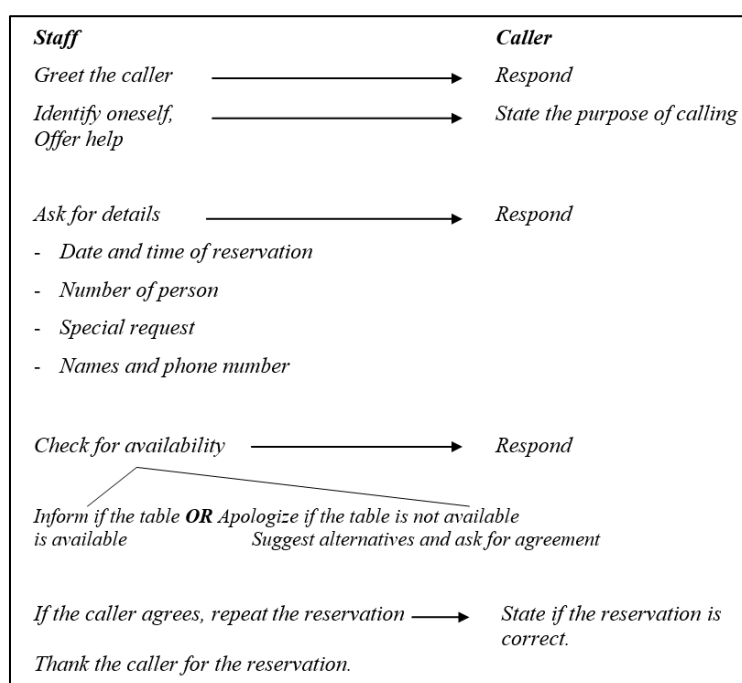


Figure 1. Conversation Development Model

The conversation development model above was very helpful for students in preparing for role play. Students did not need a lot of time to memorize dialogue because they already understood the language expressions that must be used, and they seemed enthusiastic about practicing conversations with their partners. When being asked to present dialogue in front of the class, students seemed enthusiastic about practicing the target language. Even though there were still a few errors in grammar and pronunciation, the language expressions used by students were understandable. This showed that communicative principles that prioritize fluency and meaningfulness were effective.

At the Development stage, the lecturer provided general input and corrections regarding the students' performance. The lecturer focused more on the expression of the language used and pronunciation rather than grammatical structure unless the errors could lead to misunderstandings or communication failures. At this final stage, the lecturer also reinforced by repeating and summarizing language functions and expressions as well as important aspects needed in the topic of reservations.

Meanwhile, in the control group, the lecturer only instructed students to practice reading the dialogue in the handout and then created a conversation based on the topic given. Students in the control group did not gain an understanding of the language function so they only imitated the dialogue examples sentence by sentence. These students tended to memorize sentence after sentence without really understanding the functions and expressions of the language they used. Based on the observations, students in the control group still seemed confused because they still did not fully understand what they had to do. They need a longer time (around 30 minutes) to prepare a dialogue based on the specified situation. When being asked to perform a role-play in front of the class, most students were still reluctant because they had not memorized the entire contents of the dialogue. Students seemed less motivated to have a conversation in front of the class, and some students were still reading the script they prepared.

C. The Evaluation

After the ASRI method was implemented for three months in the experimental group, a post-test was given to both the experimental group and the control group. This aimed to find out whether the achievements of the two groups were balanced or significantly different. The task given to both groups was to create a dialogue about welcoming guests. Here are two samples of student conversations taken from each group.

The sample of conversation from the experimental group

Host : Good evening, sir. Welcome to our restaurant.
 Guest : Good evening. I have a reservation. The name's Johnson.
 Host : Oh, yes. Mr. Johnson. One table for two persons in the smoking area.
 Guest : No. I said in a non-smoking area!
 Host : I'm sorry, sir. But in the reservation record, your table is in the smoking area.
 Guest : Oh, no. I'm so allergic to smoke.
 Host : Could you tell me, are you sure made the reservation with the special request table in the non-smoking area?
 Guest : I'm not sure, but I must have a table in the non-smoking area tonight.
 Host : I'm very sorry, sir. The tables in the non-smoking area are fully booked. But may I suggest to you, that we still have a window table in the smoking area. Would you care for that?
 Guest : Yes, alright.

The sample of conversation from the control group

Guest : Good evening. I'd like a table for two, please.
 Host : Good evening, sir. Do you have a reservation?
 Guest : Yes, I have a reservation.
 Host : May I have your name?
 Guest : Steven.
 Host : I'm sorry, sir. But your name is not on the reservation list.
 Guest : But I called yesterday. I have to get a table for now!
 Host : Sorry, sir. But we are fully booked now. Would you like to wait in the bar?
 Guest : OK. That's right.

Based on the comparison of the two samples above, it can be seen that the experimental group students were able to develop conversations creatively. Students were not only able to explain the condition of a restaurant being full but were also able to confirm guest reservations. Students were also able to offer alternative solutions to solve problems. Thus, the experimental group students were able to use: the informative function, namely 'explain', 'ask', 'confirm'; the persuasive function of 'offering'; and the indicative function of 'apologizing'. Students in the control group seemed less creative and only carried out simple conversations, such as the example dialogue shown in the handout.

By using the same formula used to analyze the pre-test results, the analysis for the post-test results can be presented as follows.

TABLE 3
THE POST-TEST RESULT

Groups	Ideal score	Comprehension speed	Creativity	Learning outcomes
Experimental	230	0.80	0.69	0.81
Control	193	0.68	0.60	0.38

Based on the post-test scores of the experimental group, the total data obtained was 230. Thus, the effectiveness of learning after receiving treatment using the ASRI method was $230:300 = 0.77$ or 77% of what was expected. The speed of understanding the lesson increased to $80:100 = 0.80$ or 80% of what was expected. Next, creativity became $69:100 = 0.69$ or 69% of the expected criteria; and learning outcomes reached $81:100 = 0.81$ or 81% of the expected criteria.

Meanwhile, the amount of data obtained for the post-test results of the control group was 193. It can be said that the effectiveness of learning using conventional methods was $193:300 = 0.64$ or only 64% of the expected criteria. For each indicator, the speed of understanding the lesson became $68:100 = 0.68$ or 68%, creativity became $60:100 = 0.60$ or 60% of the expected criteria, and learning outcomes reached $65:100 = 0.65$ or 65% of the expected criteria. A comparison of the pre-test and post-test scores for the two groups is briefly shown in Figure 2 below.

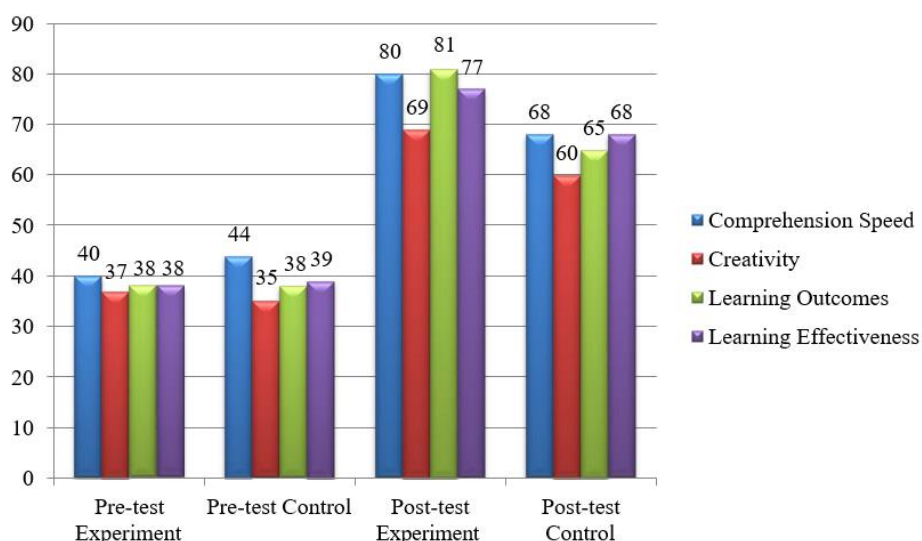


Figure 2. Comparison of Pre-Test and Post-Test Results Between Experimental Group and Control Group

The application of the ASRI method can increase the effectiveness of learning English through various direct practical activities, especially speaking English without placing too much emphasis on rigid grammar structures and perfect pronunciation so that students are encouraged to be more creative in using vocabulary and more expressive when carrying out English conversations such as using aspects of kinesics, gestures, and nonverbal signs. This is reinforced by the findings that students better understood the use of expressions and were able to use them in communicating when serving guests in restaurants. This finding confirmed the importance of integration throughout the communication process (Wingate et al., 2021). Additionally, the students gained experience in communicative language learning, using the language functions contained in authentic texts and interactive practices and exercises.

The ASRI method emphasizes learning activities such as role-playing, pair work, and group work, with a focus on fluency before accuracy. The main goal of the ASRI method is to enhance oral skills, particularly those related to language functions used in professional settings, by allowing students the flexibility to develop their communicative abilities without placing excessive focus on grammar (Lestari, 2021). This put forward the principle of language as a medium of interaction and communication to achieve certain goals, using the communicative approach (Bagiyan et al., 2021). It focused more on how students can use language compared to their knowledge of the structure of the language being learned (Cloudia Ho, 2020; Vold & Brkan, 2020; Liu & Hu, 2021; Bagiyan et al., 2021; Lestari, 2021).

Measuring the Effectiveness of the ASRI Method

When the pre-test and post-test results had been obtained, the ASRI method was tested. To test the significance of the effectiveness of the ASRI teaching method, a correlated t-test was applied. To be able to use this formula, it is necessary to first know the correlation between the effectiveness values of the new method and the old method, the average, standard deviation, and variance. Calculations were carried out using the SPSS program so that the values needed to calculate the t-value can be found as follows:

Mean of the control group (1): 7.72

Mean of the experimental group (2): 9.20

The standard deviation of the control group (S1): 1.46

The standard deviation of the experimental group (S2): 0.82

The variance of the experimental group (S2): 2.13

Control group variance (S2): 0.67

Correlation between data of two groups (r): 0.33

After knowing the required prices, the t-value can be calculated using the correlated t-test formula as follows:

$$t = \frac{7,72 - 9,20}{\sqrt{\frac{2,13}{25} + \frac{0,67}{25} - 2 \cdot 0,33 \left(\frac{1,46}{\sqrt{25}} \right) \left(\frac{0,82}{\sqrt{25}} \right)}} \quad \boxed{t = 2,74}$$

To determine whether the difference in learning achievement between the experimental group and the control group is statistically significant, the calculated t-value must be compared with the critical t-value from the t-table. Based on the t-table and the values in the t-distribution, if the distribution value = 23, for a one-party test with an error rate of 5%, then the t-table value = 1.71. Thus, it can be concluded that the calculated t-price is greater than the t-table price.

Next, the following hypothesis is formulated and must be tested for truth to strengthen the results of the ASRI method testing:

Ho: $\mu_1 \leq \mu_2$ means the effectiveness of the ASRI method is smaller or the same as conventional learning methods.

Ha: $\mu_1 > \mu_2$ means the effectiveness of the ASRI learning method is better than conventional learning methods.

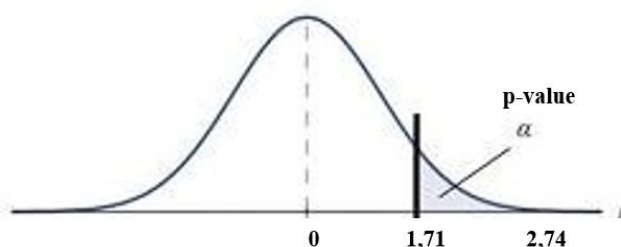


Figure 3. Right-Hand Hypothesis Testing

Testing with a correlated t-test uses a right-hand test because the alternative hypothesis (Ha) says "better". If the calculated t-value falls in the Ha acceptance area then Ha which states that "the effectiveness of the ASRI learning method is better than conventional methods" is accepted. Knowing that the calculated t is greater than the t-table, namely $1.71 > 2.74$, and the calculated t-value falls in the area of acceptance of Ha or rejection of Ho, then Ha is accepted and Ho is rejected. Thus, it can be concluded that there were significant differences so that it could be generalized that the ASRI method was more effective than the conventional methods, in terms of comprehension speed, creativity, and student learning outcomes. Thus, it can be said that the testing phase for the effectiveness of the ASRI method has been completed.

VI. CONCLUSION

This study confirms that a combination of theories in language functions and communicative language learning is effective in improving students' communication skills. One of the important implications of this study is that the effectiveness of the ASRI method depends on the competence level of the students in speaking General English. To succeed in applying this method, students must have basic English-speaking skills. Teachers should use teaching methods that can integrate material concepts and practical activities in learning English, such as explaining grammar and vocabulary concepts through practicing speaking English in the form of expressions commonly used when serving guests in restaurants, so that they can accelerate student achievement, both in theory as well as practice, speaking English. In addition, this method provides the teachers with the model and design to implement communicative learning activities in their classrooms. The ASRI method is designed for teaching English for Specific Purposes, integrated into the hospitality and tourism context. Thus, researchers should investigate its effectiveness in other professional areas, in different languages.

Inevitably, this study has several limitations. Many personal factors, such as intolerance of English diversity, or students' negative attitude towards the use of full English in the classroom might delay the success. In addition, teachers' experiences in teaching General English can influence their teaching since they focus on the grammatical aspects, which are not in line with communicative principles.

REFERENCES

- [1] Al-Tarawneh, M. Q., & Osam, U. V. (2019). Tourism English training at the tertiary level in Jordan: Reality and expectations

- from a university context. *Journal of Hospitality, Leisure, Sport and Tourism Education*, 24(February), 155–167. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jhlste.2019.02.005>
- [2] Alotumi, M. (2021). EFL college junior and senior students' self-regulated motivation for improving English speaking: A survey study. *Heliyon*, 7(4), e06664. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.heliyon.2021.e06664>
 - [3] Arnó-Macià, E., Aguilar-Pérez, M., & Tatzl, D. (2020). Engineering students' perceptions of the role of ESP courses in internationalized universities. *English for Specific Purposes*, 58, 58–74. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.esp.2019.12.001>
 - [4] Bagiyani, A. Y., Shiryayeva, T. A., Tikhonova, E. V., & Mekeko, N. M. (2021). The real value of words: how target language linguistic modelling of foreign language teaching content shapes students' professional identity. *Heliyon*, 7(3), e06581. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.heliyon.2021.e06581>
 - [5] Beck, M. S., & Sitzman, K. (2019). Compelling reasons for using digital stories to teach: A descriptive qualitative study. *Teaching and Learning in Nursing*, 14(4), 265–269. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.teln.2019.06.007>
 - [6] Bernstein, J. D., & Woosnam, K. M. (2019). Same same but different: Distinguishing what it means to teach English as a foreign language within the context of volunteer tourism. *Tourism Management*, 72(January), 427–436. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.tourman.2019.01.010>
 - [7] Busse, V., Hennies, C., Kreutz, G., & Roden, I. (2021). Learning grammar through singing? An intervention with EFL primary school learners. *Learning and Instruction*, 71(September 2020), 101372. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.learninstruc.2020.101372>
 - [8] Cloudia Ho, Y. Y. (2020). Communicative language teaching and English as a foreign language undergraduates' communicative competence in Tourism English. *Journal of Hospitality, Leisure, Sport and Tourism Education*, 27(1), 100271. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jhlste.2020.100271>
 - [9] Cohen, L., Manion, L., & Morrison, K. (2018). *Research Methods in Education 8th Edition* (8th ed.). New York: Routledge Taylor & Francis Group.
 - [10] Daar, G. F., Supartini, N. L., Sulasmini, N. M. A., Ekasani, K. A., Lestari, D., & Kesumayathi, I. A. G. (2023). Students' Perception of the Use of Learning Management System in Learning English for Specific Purpose During the Pandemic: Evidence From Rural Area in Indonesia. *Journal of Language Teaching and Research*, 14(2), 403–409. <https://doi.org/10.17507/jltr.1402.16>
 - [11] Derakhshan, A., Eslami, Z. R., Curle, S., & Zhaleh, K. (2022). Exploring the predictive role of teacher immediacy and stroke behaviors in English as a foreign language university students' academic burnout. *Studies in Second Language Learning and Teaching*, 12(1), 87–115. <https://doi.org/10.14746/sslt.2022.12.1.5>
 - [12] Heggernes, S. L. (2021). A critical review of the role of texts in fostering Intercultural Communicative competence in the English Language classroom. *Educational Research Review*, 33(November 2019), 100390. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.edurev.2021.100390>
 - [13] Lestari, D. (2021). Teaching Language Functions Using the ASRI Method: The Context of English for Hospitality. *Kotesol Proceedings 2021*.
 - [14] Liu, Y., & Hu, G. (2021). Mapping the field of English for specific purposes (1980–2018): A co-citation analysis. *English for Specific Purposes*, 61, 97–116. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.esp.2020.10.003>
 - [15] Ma'fiah, I., & Sumardiono. (2023). English Language Needs for Hotel Service and ESP Program: The Case of Hospitality Vocational Secondary School. *Journal of Innovation in Educational and Cultural Research*, 4(3), 429–437. <https://doi.org/10.46843/jiecr.v4i3.680>
 - [16] Netra, I. M., Pramatha, C. R. A., & Eddy, I. W. T. (2023). Digitizing Cultural Practices: Efforts to Increase Students' Cultural Knowledge and Reading Interest in Bali. *Journal of Language Teaching and Research*, 14(1), 142–152. <https://doi.org/10.17507/jltr.1401.15>
 - [17] Ní Loingsigh, D., & Mozzon-McPherson, M. (2020). Advising in Language Learning in a new speaker context: Facilitating linguistic shifts. *System*, 95, 102363. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.system.2020.102363>
 - [18] Pardayevna, K. N., Muxtorjonovich, R. S., Sharofiddin qizi, M. O., & Xolmaxmatovna, B. S. (2021). *ESP (English for Specific Purposes) Teaching Process, Methods, Assessment And*. 27(1), 192–202.
 - [19] Pérez Cañado, M. L. (2020). Addressing the research gap in teacher training for EMI: An evidence-based teacher education proposal in monolingual contexts. *Journal of English for Academic Purposes*, 48, 100927. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jeap.2020.100927>
 - [20] Pérez Cañado, M. L. (2023). What's hot and what's not on the current CLIL research agenda: Weeding out the non-issues from the real issues. A response to Bruton (2019). *Applied Linguistics Review*, 14(2), 347–367. <https://doi.org/10.1515/applirev-2020-0033>
 - [21] Prachanant, N. (2012). Needs Analysis on English Language Use in Tourism Industry. *Procedia - Social and Behavioral Sciences*, 66, 117–125. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.sbspro.2012.11.253>
 - [22] Rebuschat, P., Monaghan, P., & Schoetensack, C. (2021). Learning vocabulary and grammar from cross-situational statistics. *Cognition*, 206(October 2018), 104475. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.cognition.2020.104475>
 - [23] Serfaty, J., & Serrano, R. (2020). Examining the potential of digital flashcards to facilitate independent grammar learning. *System*, 94, 102342. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.system.2020.102342>
 - [24] Setyawati, K. A. (2022). Ethnography of Communication: The Analysis of Dell Hymes' SPEAKING Model in the Communication among the Infertility Husband and Wife. *Linguistics Initiative*, 2(1), 59–69. <https://doi.org/10.53696/27753719.2131>
 - [25] Sieglóvá, D., Stejskalová, L., & Kocurová-Giurgiu, I. (2017). Optimizing language instruction at the tertiary level: Student needs analysis toward educational change. *Language Learning in Higher Education*, 7(2), 413–433. <https://doi.org/10.1515/cercles-2017-0017>
 - [26] Staley, L., & Jucker, A. H. (2021). “The uh deconstructed pumpkin pie”: The use of uh and um in Los Angeles restaurant server talk. *Journal of Pragmatics*, 172, 21–34. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.pragma.2020.11.004>
 - [27] The Indonesian Ministry of Manpower, & Transmigration. (2012). *The Regulation of the Ministry of Manpower and Transmigration*.
 - [28] Tipmontree, S., & Tasanameelarp, A. (2020). Using role playing activities to improve Thai EFL students' oral English

communication skills. *International Journal of Business and Society*, 21(3), 1215–1225.

- [29] Vold, E. T., & Brkan, A. (2020). Classroom discourse in lower secondary French-as-a-foreign-language classes in Norway: Amounts and contexts of first and target language use. *System*, 93, 102309. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.system.2020.102309>
- [30] Wang, L., & Fan, J. (2020). Assessing Business English writing: The development and validation of a proficiency scale. *Assessing Writing*, 46(May), 100490. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.asw.2020.100490>
- [31] Wingate, T. G., Jones, S. K., Khakhar, M. K., & Bourdage, J. S. (2021). Speaking of allergies: Communication challenges for restaurant staff and customers. *International Journal of Hospitality Management*, 96, 102959.
- [32] You, L., Wang, Z., Kang, Y., Zhao, Y., & Zhang, D. (2018). Experimental investigation of porosity and permeability change caused by salting out in tight sandstone gas reservoirs. *Journal of Natural Gas Geoscience*, 3(6), 347–352. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jnggs.2018.12.003>



Denok Lestari is a lecturer in the International Institute of Tourism and Business (IPB Internasional) Bali, Indonesia. She is teaching English for hospitality in the department of Hotel Management. She received her Doctoral degree in Udayana University, Bali, in the Linguistics Program. Her interests are in the field of applied linguistics, specifically in pragmatics and ESP. Her e-mail address: denoklestari@ipb-intl.ac.id



Kadek Ayu Ekasani is a lecturer in the International Institute of Tourism and Business (IPB Internasional) Bali, Indonesia. She is teaching English for hospitality in the department of Hotel Management. She studied in Udayana University, Bali, in the Doctoral Program of Linguistics. Her interests are in the field of applied translation and sociolinguistics. Her e-mail address: ekasani@ipb-intl.ac.id



Ni Luh Supartini is a lecturer in the International Institute of Tourism and Business (IPB Internasional) Bali, Indonesia. She is teaching English for hospitality in the department of Digital Business. She received her Master degree in Ganesha University, Bali, in the English Teaching Program. Her interests are in the field of TEFL and TESOL. Her e-mail address: supartini@ipb-intl.ac.id



Ni Made Ayu Sulasmini is a lecturer in the International Institute of Tourism and Business (IPB Internasional) Bali, Indonesia. She is teaching English for hospitality in the department of Tourism Management. She studied in Ganesha University for her master degree in English Teaching. Her interests are in the field of Business English and English Education. Her e-mail address: ayu.sulasmini@ipb-intl.ac.id

English Literature Studies Online: Insights From Graduate and Undergraduate Students at The Hashemite University

Haitham M. Talafha*

Department of English Language and Literature, Faculty of Arts, The Hashemite University, Zarqa, Jordan

Kifah M. Al-Omari

Department of English Language and Literature, Faculty of Arts, The Hashemite University, Zarqa, Jordan

Marwan M. Obeidat

Department of English Language and Literature, Faculty of Arts, The Hashemite University, Zarqa, Jordan

Baker M. Bani-Khair

Department of English Language and Literature, Faculty of Arts, The Hashemite University, Zarqa, Jordan

Abstract—The objective of this article is to investigate the viewpoints of both undergraduate and graduate students of English regarding online education in the aftermath of the Corona virus pandemic, which commenced in March 2020 and resulted in immediate, hit-or-miss changes within the higher education sector. To realize this aim, the study examines the perspectives of graduate and undergraduate students in the English Department at The Hashemite University in the fields of literary, cultural, and critical studies. Consequently, fifty graduate students were asked to write a well-thought essay in which they express their opinion about their experience in online education. On the other hand, eighty-four undergraduate students had to respond to a questionnaire designed to express their opinion within a scale of different responses. The results for both groups show that there is no significant difference between their attitudes. In general, there is a propensity to endorse a novel educational approach that integrates the traditional on-campus education with the most recent online off-campus education.

Index Terms—English Literature, coronavirus, The Hashemite University, online education, traditional education

I. INTRODUCTION

In March 2020, academic institutions worldwide experienced the onset of COVID-19 pneumonia without any prior notice or preparation whatsoever. Consequently, both professors and students were compelled to transition to online learning without enough proficient training, particularly in nations with limited experience in this type of education. Therefore, it is worthwhile to conduct a study in order find out what really happened following this immediate transformation in the field of higher education.

The current study shares a similar form with previous investigations; however, it diverges in terms of its content. The previous studies addressed the opinions of graduate and undergraduate students, as well as professors, in the English Department at The Hashemite University regarding teaching courses in Anglo-American literature and culture on-campus. However, our main objective in this study is to investigate the impact of online education on both graduate and undergraduate students. The study investigates the perspectives of students in the disciplines of literary, cultural, and critical studies, encompassing both British and American contexts. Similarly, the researchers, who are professors instructing graduate and undergraduate courses in these subjects, will evaluate the academic and intellectual effect of online education on both groups of students. They will accomplish this by creating and administering a questionnaire to determine if the students found their online education experience to be advantageous in any way. Hence, this study will assist scholars, academicians, and those involved in the realm of higher education in determining the degree to which higher education, particularly in the domain of literary studies, has been impacted by this form of education, whether in a detrimental or beneficial manner.

To do so, fifty graduate and eighty-four undergraduate students from the Department of English Language and Literature at The Hashemite University, Jordan, were requested to respond to a variety of inquiries in order to assess their experience with online education. The following question was posed to the graduate students: “Which of the following learning methods works best for you: online courses/classes, or traditional on-campus, in-person courses?” The students

* Corresponding Author.

were required to compose a well-organized, well-thought-out essay in response. Additionally, they were requested to clarify their responses by providing educated justifications and cultivated pieces of evidence to ensure that their responses were both reliable and convincing.

Regarding the undergraduate students, the researchers created a questionnaire that covers various factors such as age, major, university level, gender, job, and GPA. The questionnaire consists of thirty-nine statements, which can be found in Appendix A at the end of this study for further examination. The students were required to rate their opinion on a scale of five responses: strongly agree, agree, neutral, disagree, and strongly disagree. The researchers will highlight only a few of these statements to underscore the primary intellectual concerns of both the researchers and respondents. Examples of these statements include:

- I think that online learning reduces the chances of discussing literary works in detail.
- Motivation is less substantial in online literature classes.
- Communicating online is not effective.
- I always have internet connection problems.
- I think I don't receive a fair grade in an online literature class.
- I do not manage my time very well in online literature classes.
- Online learning does not provide a comfortable learning environment suitable for studying literature courses.
- I can't express myself very well in online literature courses.
- My writing skills don't improve well in online classes.
- I feel that my oral skills are not improving well in online literature classes.

Prior to presenting our research findings, it would be helpful to provide a brief overview of the programs and courses offered by the Department of English Language and Literature at the Hashemite University. The department provides two distinct BA degrees: one in English Language and Literature and another in Literature and Cultural Studies in English, in addition to an MA degree in English. The study plans for the two bachelor programs include one hundred and thirty-two credit hours of required university, faculty, and department courses. The department's compulsory courses for the BA degree in English Language and Literature encompass a variety of subjects, such as language skills, literature, and culture. Literature courses incorporate Introduction to Literature, English Literature (1) and (2), Literary Criticism, Introduction to the Novel, Introduction to Drama, American Literature, and other courses. Moreover, the other program (in Literature and Cultural Studies in English) encompasses further literature and cultural studies courses. These include Globalization of Literature, Introduction to Western Thought, Special Subject in Literature, Introduction to Latin American Literature and Culture, Introduction to African Literature and Culture, World Literature, Arabic Literature, and Film Studies. In addition, the study plan of the MA Degree (in English) encompasses a total of thirty-three credit hours, of which nine credit hours are allocated for the thesis. MA courses in literature and cultural studies include Critical Theory, Topics in Literature, Modernism and Post-modernism in Literature, Film Studies, Topics in Literary Genre, and Special Topics in British Literature.

Importantly, according to a previous study entitled "Perspectives of the English Department Professors of the Hashemite University on Anglo-American Literature and Culture: A Pedagogic Stance," all literature courses offered by the Department of English Language and Literature at the Hashemite University "concentrate mainly on different literary genres, representative authors and different periods and trends in English and American literature. They also give a general idea about Western cultures in general" (Al-Omari & Obeidat, 2022, p. 55). Therefore, the primary objectives of this study are directly related to the examination of the manner in which these courses are taught during the lockdown due to the coronavirus pandemic, as well as the students' perspectives and feedback on online teaching.

II. LITERATURE REVIEW

The present investigation complements other related studies conducted on exploring the perspectives of both undergraduate and graduate students on the various literature and culture courses taken as part of their course requirements in partial fulfillment of BA and MA degrees in English. In their article "Bridges or Walls? A Study of the Hashemite University English Department Undergraduate Students' Responses to Anglo-American Literature and Culture," Al-Omari and Obeidat (2011) found that the undergraduate students have conflicting views about Anglo-American literature and culture. However, most of these students perceive Anglo-American literature courses as gateways to understanding Western culture. They also believe that the study of literature allows them to assess "the other" in a rational and objective manner, rather than relying on emotions.

In their article "The Hashemite University English Department Graduate Students' Perspectives on Anglo-American Literature and Culture," Al-Omari et al. (2020) examined graduate students' perspectives and argued that students also have diverse views regarding the Anglo-American literature and culture courses. However, they found that the majority of these students have favorable opinions of the instructional methodologies used in the courses being investigated. Students emphasized that their experience in courses such as "World Literature," "Modernism and Post-modernism in Literature," and "Topics in Literary Genre" was highly beneficial.

Another study by Al-Omari and Obeidat (2022) examined the opinions of the English Language and Literature professors regarding the diverse literature and culture courses offered by the Department of English at The Hashemite

University, Jordan. The primary goal of this investigation was to identify the most effective academic practices and the most suitable literature to instruct students in order to accurately describe the relationship between nonnative literature and Arab students' moral, cultural, political, and religious characteristics (Al Omari & Obeidat, 2022). According to most professors, Arab students are more likely to avoid alienation if they learn English in context (Al Omari & Obeidat, 2022). The paper emphasized the critical role of professors in "helping their students transcend the local and moral interpretations of English literary texts and move on to the commonly more universal readings that build bridges instead of walls among the diverse human cultures and societies" (Al Omari & Obeidat, 2022, p. 51).

Moreover, there are many other studies that discuss the opinions of the students and their professors about the literature and culture courses offered by the Department of English Language and Literature at The Hashemite University, Jordan. For instance, Al-Kharabsheh et al. (2009) investigated the perspectives of seventy-five English majors in their fourth year. They set out to determine which academic component, such as language, linguistics, literature, and translation, should take precedence over the others in the college study plan (Al-Kharabsheh et al., 2009). The inclusion of a variety of courses in their academic programs, particularly in the field of translation, had eagerly changed the students' perspectives on this controversy over the last few years (Al-Kharabsheh et al., 2009). In the context of the necessity for change, moreover, Bader (1992) conducted a relevant study, contending that "if English Departments in Arab (and other Third World) countries are serious about achieving their primary objectives, which is to graduate competent users of English [...], a change or shift in emphasis in the curricula and the teaching methods is not only desirable but also mandatory" (Bader, 1992, p. 233).

Therefore, the need for adjustment in both the curricula and the teaching methods has existed for an extended period of time. However, the change that is imposed by the coronavirus is an abrupt one that comes without prior notice or preparation. Universities worldwide are forced to turn to online education regardless of their preference. The impact of this sudden change differs from one university to another depending on the level of competency that the students and their instructors have in using online resources for teaching and learning.

The opinions of students and professors regarding courses that are taught in person and on-campus are the foundation of all previous research. The present study is primarily concerned with determining the true nature of the sudden transformation that occurred as a result of the coronavirus pandemic, which has resulted in changes to the teaching methodology. There are numerous additional studies that are conducted for the same purpose; however, each one follows different methodologies and addresses different academic issues. Alsoud and Harasis (2021) explored the e-learning experience at Jordanian universities in general. They discovered that students from remote and disadvantaged areas faced enormous challenges such as technological accessibility, poor internet connectivity, and harsh study environments. They also emphasized the role of electronic commerce in transforming distance learning. However, they stressed that the lack of perspectives from universities or faculty members "restricts" their investigation (Alsoud & Harasis, 2021, p. 1412). The current study aims to address this disparity by examining students' perspectives on online education, using the sample of graduate and undergraduate students at The Hashemite University.

Similarly, other Jordanian researchers are intrigued by the pandemic and its effect on the students' online experience and learning outcomes. To give only a few examples, Almomani et al. (2021), Alqudah et al. (2020), and Alameri et al. (2020) investigated the impact of the pandemic on the students' online experience. In particular, Almomani et al. (2021) probed students' demographic information, their fundamental and advanced knowledge of COVID-19, their online learning experience during the quarantine, and their perspectives on the enforced quarantine practice in Jordan. The findings of the study indicate that "the challenges caused by the pandemic and its associated quarantine, combined with the sudden unprecedented online experience, negatively impacted students' thoughts and beliefs about the online learning experience during the quarantine," to say the least on this point (Almomani et al., 2021, pp. 1-2). In contrast, Alqudah et al. (2020) tried to "evaluate the e-Learning experience among Jordanian academic ophthalmologists during the coronavirus disease 2019 (COVID-19) pandemic" (p. 44) and discovered that the ophthalmologists had a positive experience and "believed that e-Learning would have a prominent role in the future of medical education and proposed blended learning programs" (p. 44).

Prior to the advent of the coronavirus in March 2020, there was interest in online courses and their impact on students. For instance, Alharthi (2020) emphasized in a study conducted at the end of 2019 that "[t]he learning environment in 21st century schools has become the focus of attention for specialists in the educational field by equipping them with the right technologies to create an attractive and interactive learning environment" (p. 14). After examining the perspectives of 496 eligible students regarding the technologies employed in online courses, he determined that "because of the complexity of the technologies used in these online courses, university students experienced difficulties using these tools and needed additional experience prior to their use in the online courses" (Alharthi, 2020, p. 14). Despite the importance of Alharthi's study, it was done a few months earlier before the beginning of the pandemic.

Between 2017 and 2019, researchers around the world implemented numerous additional investigations. For instance, Dinc (2017), Kreie et al. (2017), Johnson et al. (2018), Leontyeva (2018), Saykili (2018), and Yilmaz (2019) conducted comparable investigations regarding online education. The challenge that students encounter when utilizing technological instruments for online courses is a concern for many of such studies, especially the one carried out by Alharthi (2020) and others that share this mindset. Therefore, we anticipate additional challenges for students in the wake of the pandemic, given that a significant number of students worldwide were not adequately prepared to utilize these tools. This study aims

to confirm this by examining the attitudes of graduate and undergraduate students at The Hashemite University's English Department.

III. METHODOLOGY

The researchers' focus on analytical and pedagogical approaches determines the anticipated results of the study. The researchers administered a questionnaire to eighty-four undergraduate students of English Literature and Cultural Studies, focusing on the online education method adopted for instructing Anglo-American literature and culture courses for approximately two academic years during the coronavirus pandemic. The students were asked to respond to the thirty-nine statements in the questionnaire. The researchers also requested fifty graduate students, who are more adept at expressing their opinions in writing, to compose well-developed essays that elucidate their perspectives on the online education experience. By analyzing the responses of both the graduate and undergraduate students, the researchers would be able to evaluate this type of education and, thus, develop new methods for enhancing the positive teaching strategies and practices while avoiding the negative ones.

IV. RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

As previously stated, the researchers investigated the opinions of fifty graduate students and eighty-four undergraduate students to evaluate their learning experiences in online education. The graduate students, who were both male and female and aged 19–37, were asked to write essay responses that addressed the following question: "Which of the following learning methods works best for you: online courses/classes, or traditional on-campus, in-person courses?" They were also asked to explain their answers and provide enough reasons and pieces of evidence to ensure their credibility and reliability.

Based on the empirical evidence presented, it would be possible to categorize the opinions of the graduate students into three groups after examining their responses. The first group comprises 22 students and makes up 44% of all graduate students/respondents. These students have negative attitudes towards online courses/classes and they prefer, instead, the traditional on-campus, in-person courses/classes. The following is a sample of responses made by students in this group:

- 1- "Traditional on-campus learning is the best way to study in Jordan because we don't have all the facilities to do online learning. The internet is not adequate enough and sometimes we cannot hear our instructors well."
- 2- "Personally, I prefer the traditional in-person method because it gives me the chance to meet people, practice English language, and participate in many activities. It is much better than the online method which causes depression to me."
- 3- "On-campus learning is an environment that sparks curiosity, creativity, and involvement. Online classes are traumatizing for both students and teachers; they were fully loaded with passivity and lifelessness."
- 4- "E-learning does not achieve the desired goals of education, especially in evaluating students' achievement because it does not give the student the grade that he/she deserves."
- 5- "In the traditional method, I pay more attention to the instructor, and nothing can distract me like my mobile phone, family members, and friends. In addition, it is more challenging to be on-campus, rather than sitting comfortably at home."
- 6- "I like to interact with my professors and classmates in real life-like situations in order to get more experience. In addition, students come to class fully prepared, both physically and mentally. Finally, the chances to skip classes and cheat in exams are very rare."
- 7- "In traditional classes, professors have more face-to-face experience in explaining the course material."
- 8- "In traditional on-campus learning, there is more discipline, for both students and instructors."
- 9- "Traditional classes help me be more focused and remember everything discussed inside the classroom."
- 10- "In addition to classes and academic learning, we learn in the university many things that improve our personality and give us the experience that we need to have a better future."
- 11- "From my perspective, the teacher is not the only source of learning, students can learn from each other in the classroom. In addition, online education for me is boring."
- 12- "Being graduate students, on-campus learning provides us with better access to the print sources in the library that we need to write our research papers and theses. It is already well known that not all sources are available online."
- 13- "I don't have a good place to study at home. In addition, my computer is a very old one and it is not working well. However, in the university, there are many facilities like large classrooms, labs, computers, and large halls for studying in a very quiet environment."

Nevertheless, there are other graduate students who favor online courses and seminars. This second group comprises 17 students and constitutes 34% of all graduate students/respondents. The traditional on-campus, in-person courses and classes are not well received by these students, and they prefer online coursework and classes. The following is a selection of responses from students in this group:

- 1- "Online courses/classes are much better than the traditional on-campus, in-person courses/classes because it is very difficult to come to the university every day. In addition, online exams are much easier."
- 2- "I prefer online courses because they save time, effort and money. In this kind of learning, students depend more on themselves as the teacher is not available in-person like on-campus education."
- 3- "Online education makes the best use of the advances in technology that we have nowadays. It is a good substitute to the traditional way of teaching, especially during the time when it becomes almost impossible to go the campus because of a certain pandemic like corona virus."
- 4- "Online education is more flexible because it is possible to watch online classes at any time convenient to the student. It is also possible to watch the same class more than one time."
- 5- "Online education will develop higher education in Jordan and keep it up to date with the most recent developments in higher education all over the world."
- 6- "I feel more comfortable to participate in the class discussion in an online class because I will not be embarrassed from other students, especially in seminar classes or classes where I have to be the presenter in the whole class."
- 7- "Online courses/classes give the graduate students a better opportunity to cooperate with each other while sitting at home. We can share sources in PDF form, exchange our essays and papers for a peer-review, explain things to each other, and many other ways of cooperation."
- 8- "Online courses/classes give me the experience I need for any future study abroad. I am planning to pursue my higher education to get the PhD in a foreign country where many universities already use this method of education."
- 9- "I think that online education is better because our instructors used to prepare the material in different ways that will help us to better understand it. They used to send us videos, outlines, summaries, power-point presentations, and many other kinds of the learning material."

The final group of graduate students comprises those who endeavor to be more impartial and reconcile the two extreme positions by adopting a middle-ground perspective. Eleven students comprise this third category, which accounts for 22% of all graduate students and respondents. These students argue that each method of education has its own unique advantages and disadvantages. By the end, the determining factor is the most effective use of the available methods. It depends on the instructor, the student, and the teaching-learning environment. All these elements reinforce each other, and everyone is required to fulfill their responsibilities to the best of their abilities. These students believe that blended learning is the optimal approach. The following is a selection of responses made by students from this group:

- 1- "Each method has its positive and negative aspects. I feel more comfortable in online classes in which I save time and effort. However, I think that I can understand the material in a much better way in traditional classes."
- 2- "There are many advantages for the traditional method of education: we meet our professors and colleagues, we get more experience, and exams are fairer. However, this kind of education is highly demanding; it requires more time, effort, and money. On the other hand, in online courses, we can repeat the lecture many times, we can watch the class at any time convenient to us, and we can exchange the material with other classmates easily. However, exams in this kind of education are not fair enough because many students cheat in online exams."
- 3- "Both methods are suitable if they are used in a good way by the student and the teacher."
- 4- "We feel more responsible in the traditional kind of education, but online education is easier and helps us to continue our study without any interruption, especially during the time of suspension because of pandemics like the corona virus or any other reason."
- 5- "In online education, I can have a part time job to support myself and my family, and I don't have to suffer from transportation problems. However, sometimes I suffer from internet problems. In addition, students don't get a fair evaluation in exams and the face-to-face experience that they get in the traditional classes."
- 6- "Each method has its pros and cons depending on the major because some majors, especially the theoretical ones, can be studied online easily. On the other hand, it will be much better for students to go to the university campus in the other majors that are applied by nature like medicine, nursing, engineering, and similar majors that have lab experimentations and require actual hands-on experience even outside the university campus."

The graduate students' responses clearly show a divide in their opinions between the two types of education, with some advocating a blended approach. The dividing line between the three opinions is not sharp enough to prioritize one over the other. As a result, one can argue that the students' experience in online education calls for reconsidering and potentially restructuring the best ways of teaching and learning in higher education institutions all over the world, with Jordan as a sample, at least for the Arab world. The outcome might be a combination between the traditional courses/classes and the most recent online ones.

The other group of students targeted by this study is the undergraduate students. As mentioned earlier, the researchers developed a questionnaire for eighty-four undergraduates to gather their opinions. All the data were analyzed by using a simple Microsoft Excel sheet to determine the percentage of students' responses in each category. The raw data of the questionnaire is included in Appendix A at the end of this paper, while Appendix B contains the results. As the questionnaire incorporates a substantial amount of data and statistics, the researchers will highlight only few of the interesting and significant results that represent noteworthy responses.

To start with, 44.05% of the students and respondents *strongly agree* that studying literature courses online is somewhat less engaging than in-person learning. In the same vein, 40.48% of the respondents *agree* that the likelihood of engaging in a comprehensive discussion of literary works is diminished by online learning. Similarly, 39.29% of them *strongly agree* that online learning exacerbates the complexity of literature. 38.10% of them think that they consistently encounter issues with their Internet connection.

Although such responses indicate a negative perspective on online courses/classes, it is intriguing to observe that a substantial number of students respond neutrally to numerous inquiries that convey a negative perspective on online education, and the disparity between those who concur and those who disagree is negligible. In certain instances, the number of neutral respondents is even greater than that of those who agree. These findings indicate that a significant number of students are not yet entirely certain about this form of education and may consider it a viable alternative to traditional in-person instruction once they have gained more experience. Table 1 below exhibits a few examples:

TABLE 1
SAMPLE PERCENTAGES OF STUDENTS' RESPONSES IN EACH CATEGORY

NO	Paragraph	Strongly Agree	Agree	Neutral
1	Communicating online is not effective	32.14	20.24	28.57
2	I believe I don't have the time to ask questions freely in an online class	21.43	28.57	30.95
3	I feel disappointed in online literature courses	15.48	28.57	26.19
4	I don't have the chance to ask questions	22.62	26.19	29.76

Based on the provided results, it is not possible to make a generalization and assert that students either like or dislike online education. While a considerable number of them have negative attitudes, many others seem to be in favor of this kind of education. Overall, one can argue that students, graduate and undergraduate, find in online education a novel learning experience that might not substitute the traditional one but certainly provide them with a new horizon of learning after the coronavirus pandemic. It is a new experience that will meet the demands of a totally different kind of education in the near future. This education may combine both the physical and the hypothetical teaching and learning environments in a certain way.

V. CONCLUSION

The private and public higher education sectors in the Arab World, including Jordan, have the potential to capitalize on a unique opportunity in the post-COVID pandemic crisis education environment, but only after a thorough examination. Such an academic environment is capable of reestablishing itself as a prominent twenty-first-century equivalent of higher education institutions. It possesses the capacity to enhance the dissemination of human knowledge to a wide range of communities and contribute to socio-economic development. The end result will be the development of innovative, state-of-the-art teaching and research methods that were unimaginable prior to the pandemic's spread.

Consequently, there is a high likelihood of integrating the physical and digital capabilities of both entities. Educators can establish an avant-garde reality that not only enhances the proficiency of regional and national higher education to serve a broader range of communities, but also functions more efficiently and effectively. Qualifying common human knowledge, then, can be acquired by the learner regardless of his/her race, color, culture, ethnicity, and geo-political upbringing. This perspective actually assists in the re-definition and reorganization of the role and significance of campuses that are constructed on the conventional notion of material spaces within a broader context. It will create a new entity that best merges both the material and the digital. The outcome will be a new implementation of a virtually connected, involved campus, where students and their professors, rather than the physical building structures, are the primary center of higher education research and teaching. Within such circumstances, the notion of the campus may soon evolve beyond traditional cement buildings and structures—such as classrooms, laboratories, faculty offices, and other on-campus spaces—to the world of digital reality where students and other people can create, spread, and have access to knowledge worldwide without worries about time, space, or location.

However, even though this concept challenges the conventional perspective on on-campus education, it may not entirely replace or restore it. Rather, it emphasizes the students and their knowledge rather than material structures, thereby fostering and empowering the fundamental concept of the inherent and unwavering connection between the student/learner and the higher education institution.

APPENDIX A. RAW DATA OF THE QUESTIONNAIRE

The aim of this questionnaire is to explore the effects of online education on both graduate and undergraduate students in the Department of English Language and Literature at The Hashemite University, Jordan, during the Coronavirus pandemic. The questionnaire also seeks to collect applicable data for the purpose of academic research, including:

- 1) Age
- 2) Major.....
- 3) Student's Class Level.....
 - 16-20
 - 21-25
- 4) Gender
- 5) Obtained Academic Degree
 - Male
 - Female
 - Other
 - Rather not to say
- 6) Job.....
- 7) GPA..... (..... /4)

NO	Paragraph	Strongly Agree	Agree	Neutral	Disagree	Strongly Disagree
1	I believe that studying literature courses online is a little more boring than face to face learning					
2	I think that online learning reduces the chances of discussing literary works in full details					
3	Online learning makes literature more difficult to understand					
4	Motivation is less substantial in online literature classes					
5	Communicating online is not effective					
6	I believe I don't have the time to ask questions freely in an online class					
7	I always have Internet connection problems					
8	I think I don't receive a fair grade in an online literature class					
9	Cheating in exams is more common among students in online literature classes					
10	I do not get my preferred type of questions in an online literature class					
11	I do not manage my time very well in online literature classes					
12	Online learning does not provide a comfortable learning environment suitable for studying literature courses					
13	Online literature courses don't give me the knowledge I expect to get in regular classes					
14	I feel disappointed in online literature courses					
15	I can't express myself very well in online literature courses					
16	I feel rather insecure in an online class					
17	I think I learn very little in online literature classes					
18	My writing skills don't improve well in online classes					
19	I feel that my oral skills are not improving well in online literature classes					
20	I don't have the chance to ask questions					
21	I feel that time is very limited in online literature classes					
22	Online literature exams comprise only objective questions					
23	I always have technical problems					
24	I waste a lot of time in online classes					
25	I have limited Internet connection					
26	In person communication is vital and essential in literature classes					
27	Online learning cannot be an alternative to face-to-face learning					
28	Online learning makes me less self-confident					
29	I'm not comfortable spending a lot of time on electronic learning					
30	I don't receive sufficient feedback					
31	Virtual classroom atmosphere is noisy and disturbing					
32	Participation in online classes is somewhat very limited					
33	I feel more active in regular classes					
34	I think that online learning causes more social isolation					
35	I have some concentration problems in online learning classes					
36	I feel that I need more help with my assignments in online classes					
37	I procrastinate doing assignments in online classes					
38	I always prefer to go back to regular classes					
39	I find online learning very demanding					

APPENDIX B. RESULTS OF THE QUESTIONNAIRE

NO	Paragraph	Responses				Percentage %					
		Strongly Agree	Agree	Neutral	Disagree	Strongly Disagree	Strongly Agree	Agree		Disagree	Strongly Disagree
1	I believe that studying literature courses online is a little more boring than face-to-face learning	37	31	5	9	2	44.05	36.90	5.95	10.71	2.38
2	I think that online learning reduces the chances of discussing literary works in full details	17	34	17	10	6	20.24	40.48	20.24	11.90	7.14
3	Online learning makes literature more difficult to understand	33	24	10	15	2	39.29	28.57	11.90	17.86	2.38
4	Motivation is less substantial in online literature classes	23	27	16	15	3	27.38	32.14	19.05	17.86	3.57
5	Communicating online is not effective	27	17	24	13	3	32.14	20.24	28.57	15.48	3.57
6	I believe I don't have the time to ask questions freely in an online class	18	24	26	14	2	21.43	28.57	30.95	16.67	2.38
7	I always have Internet connection problems	17	32	11	19	5	20.24	38.10	13.10	22.62	5.95
8	I think I don't receive a fair grade in an online literature class	20	19	18	16	11	23.81	22.62	21.43	19.05	13.10
9	Cheating in exams is more common among students in online literature classes	21	22	19	15	7	25.00	26.19	22.62	17.86	8.33
10	I do not get my preferred type of questions in an online literature class	20	25	23	11	5	23.81	29.76	27.38	13.10	5.95
11	I do not manage my time very well in online literature classes	27	26	14	13	4	32.14	30.95	16.67	15.48	4.76
12	Online learning does not provide a comfortable learning environment suitable for studying literature courses	17	28	18	17	4	20.24	33.33	21.43	20.24	4.76
13	Online literature courses don't give me the knowledge I	20	22	17	17	8	23.81	26.19	20.24	20.24	9.52

NO	Paragraph	Responses				Percentage %					
		Strongly Agree	Agree	Neutral	Disagree	Strongly Disagree	Strongly Agree	Agree		Disagree	Strongly Disagree
	expect to get in regular classes										
14	I feel disappointed in online literature courses	13	24	22	20	5	15.48	28.57	26.19	23.81	5.95
15	I can't express myself very well in online literature courses	26	28	20	6	4	30.95	33.33	23.81	7.14	4.76
16	I feel rather insecure in an online class	18	21	17	19	9	21.43	25.00	20.24	22.62	10.71
17	I think I learn very little in online literature classes	26	30	11	12	5	30.95	35.71	13.10	14.29	5.95
18	My writing skills don't improve well in online classes	23	34	15	3	9	27.38	40.48	17.86	3.57	10.71
19	I feel that my oral skills are not improving well in online literature classes	33	17	21	6	7	39.29	20.24	25.00	7.14	8.33
20	I don't have the chance to ask questions	19	22	25	14	4	22.62	26.19	29.76	16.67	4.76
21	I feel that time is very limited in online literature classes	18	27	15	16	8	21.43	32.14	17.86	19.05	9.52
22	Online literature exams comprise only objective questions	17	25	27	10	5	20.24	29.76	32.14	11.90	5.95
23	I always have technical problems	17	21	30	11	5	20.24	25.00	35.71	13.10	5.95
24	I waste a lot of time in online classes	22	20	20	15	7	26.19	23.81	23.81	17.86	8.33
25	I have limited Internet connection	19	21	27	9	8	22.62	25.00	32.14	10.71	9.52
26	In person communication is vital and essential in literature classes	22	30	24	4	4	26.19	35.71	28.57	4.76	4.76
27	Online learning cannot be an alternative to face-to-face learning	28	20	20	6	10	33.33	23.81	23.81	7.14	11.90
28	Online learning makes me less self-confident	20	22	26	8	8	23.81	26.19	30.95	9.52	9.52
29	I'm not comfortable spending a lot of time on electronic learning	27	19	23	11	4	32.14	22.62	27.38	13.10	4.76
30	I don't receive sufficient feedback	18	29	22	8	7	21.43	34.52	26.19	9.52	8.33
31	Virtual classroom	24	20	22	13	5	28.57	23.81	26.19	15.48	5.95

NO	Paragraph	Responses				Percentage %					
		Strongly Agree	Agree	Neutral	Disagree	Strongly Disagree	Strongly Agree	Agree		Disagree	Strongly Disagree
	atmosphere is noisy and disturbing										
32	Participation in online classes is somewhat very limited	29	29	14	8	4	34.52	34.52	16.67	9.52	4.76
33	I feel more active in regular classes	23	26	20	10	5	27.38	30.95	23.81	11.90	5.95
34	I think that online learning causes more social isolation	25	23	23	6	7	29.76	27.38	27.38	7.14	8.33
35	I have some concentration problems in online learning classes	21	24	18	10	11	25.00	28.57	21.43	11.90	13.10
36	I feel that I need more help with my assignments in online classes	23	22	23	13	3	27.38	26.19	27.38	15.48	3.57
37	I procrastinate doing assignments in online classes	20	19	29	12	4	23.81	22.62	34.52	14.29	4.76
38	I always prefer to go back to regular classes	26	18	24	11	5	30.95	21.43	28.57	13.10	5.95
39	I find online learning very demanding	18	25	20	9	12	21.43	29.76	23.81	10.71	14.29

REFERENCES

- [1] Alameri, J., Masadeh, R., Hamadallah, E., Bani Ismail, H., & Fakhouri, H. N. (2020). Students' perceptions of e-learning platforms (Moodle, Microsoft Teams and Zoom platforms) in the University of Jordan education and its relation to self-study and academic achievement during COVID-19 pandemic. *Advanced Research & Studies Journal*, 11(5), 21-33.
- [2] Alharthi, M. (2020). Students' attitudes toward the use of technology in online courses. *International Journal of Technology in Education*, 3(1), 14-23.
- [3] Al-Kharabsheh, A., Al-Azzam, B., & Obeidat, M. M. (2009). The English department in the Arab world re-visited: Language, literature, or translation? A student's view. *College Student Journal*, 43(4), 961-978.
- [4] Almomani, E. Y., Qablan A. M., Atrooz, F. Y., Almomany, A. M., Hajjo, R. M., & Almomani, H. Y. (2021). The influence of coronavirus diseases 2019 (COVID-19) pandemic and the quarantine practices on university students' beliefs about the online learning experience in Jordan. *Frontier Public Health*, 8, 1-13.
- [5] Al-Omari, K., & Obeidat, M. M. (2011). Bridges or walls? A study of the Hashemite University English Department undergraduate students' responses to Anglo-American literature and culture. *Teaching American Literature: A Journal of Theory and Practice*, 4(4), 97-114.
- [6] Al-Omari, K. M., Obeidat, M. M., & Neimneh, S. S. (2020). Hashemite University English Department graduate students' perspectives on Anglo-American literature and culture, *Opcion*, 36(26), 2261-2283.
- [7] Al-Omari, K. M., & Obeidat, M. M. (2022). Perspectives of the English department professors of the Hashemite University on Anglo-American literature and culture: A pedagogic stance. *Teaching American Literature: A Journal of Theory and Practice*, 12(4), 51-67.
- [8] Alqudah, N. M., Jammal, H. M., Saleh, O., Khader, Y., Obeidat, N., & Alqudah, J. (2020). Perception and experience of academic Jordanian ophthalmologists with e-learning for undergraduate course during the COVID-19 pandemic. *Annals of Medicine and Surgery*, 59, 44-47.
- [9] Alsoud, A. R., & Harasis, A. A. (2021). The impact of COVID-19 pandemic on student's e-learning experience in Jordan. *Journal of Theoretical and Applied Electronic Commerce Research*, 16(5), 1404-1414.
- [10] Bader, Y. (1992). Curricula and teaching strategies in university English departments: A need for change. *International Review of Applied Linguistics in Language Teaching; Heidelberg*, 30(3), 233-240.
- [11] Dinc, E. (2017). Web-based education and accessibility. *International Journal of Technology in Education and Science (IJTES)*, 1(1), 29-35.
- [12] Johnson, E., Morwane, R., Dada, S., Pretorius, G., & Lotriet, M. (2018). Adult learners' perspectives on their engagement in a hybrid learning postgraduate programme. *The Journal of Continuing Higher Education*, 66(2), 88-105.
- [13] Kreie, J., Johnson, S., & Lebsock, M. (2017). Course design and technology for synchronous interaction in an online course. *Information Systems Education Journal (ISEDJ)*, 15(5), 60-67.

- [14] Leontyeva, I. A. (2018). Modern distance learning technologies in higher education: Introduction problems. *EURASIA Journal of Mathematics, Science and Technology Education*, 14(10), 1-8.
- [15] Saykılı, A. (2018). Distance education: Definitions, generations, key concepts and future directions. *International Journal of Contemporary Educational Research*, 5(1), 2-17.
- [16] Yilmaz, A. B. (2019). Distance and face-to-face students' perceptions towards distance education: A comparative metaphorical study. *Turkish Online Journal of Distance Education-TOJDE*, 20(1), 191-207.

Haitham M. Talafha (Ph.D.) is currently an Assistant Professor of English Literature and Criticism at the Department of English Language and Literature at The Hashemite University, Zarqa, Jordan. Email: talafha@hu.edu.jo

Kifah M. Al-Omari (Ph.D.) is currently a Professor of American Literature at the Department of English Language and Literature at The Hashemite University, Zarqa, Jordan. Email: k.m.alumari@hu.edu.jo

Marwan M. Obeidat (Ph.D.) is currently a Professor of American Literature at the Department of English Language and Literature at The Hashemite University, Zarqa, Jordan. Email: obeidat@hu.edu.jo

Baker M. Bani-Khair (Ph.D.) is currently an Associate Professor of English Literature at the Department of English Language and Literature at The Hashemite University, Zarqa, Jordan. Email: baker1983@hu.edu.jo

The Implementation of TPACK-Based Metacognitive Listening Strategies in Improving Students' Critical Listening Skills

Arono

Indonesian Language and Literature Education Study Program, Department of Languages and Arts, University of Bengkulu, Indonesia

Nadrah

English Education Study Program, State Islamic University Fatmawati Soekarno Bengkulu, Indonesia;
University of Canberra, Australia

Elvi Susanti

Indonesian Language and Literature Education Study Program, State Islamic University Syarif Hidayatullah Jakarta, Indonesia

Laspida Harti

Indonesian Language and Literature Education Study Program, STKIP YDB Lubuk Alung, Padang, Indonesia

Catur Wulandari

Indonesian Language and Literature Education Study Program, Department of Languages and Arts, University of Bengkulu, Indonesia

Nafri Yanti

Indonesian Language and Literature Education Study Program, Department of Languages and Arts, University of Bengkulu, Indonesia

Y. Claudia Dhian A. Harbelubun

Elementary Teacher Education Study Program, Department of Languages and Education, Atma Jaya Indonesian Catholic University, Indonesia

Abstract—Not all students can effectively absorb and process the information they receive, highlighting the need for metacognitive listening strategies and appropriate technology to enhance their critical listening skills. Hence, this study aimed to investigate the implementation of TPACK-based metacognitive listening strategies in improving students' critical listening skills. This quantitative descriptive study utilized observation, questionnaires, and tests for data collection. The study sample comprised 88 first-semester students from the Indonesian Language Education Study Program at the University of Bengkulu. Regression test results demonstrated a positive correlation between the implementation of TPACK-based metacognitive listening strategies and students' critical listening skills, indicated by an x coefficient of 0.86 and an R^2 value of 0.228 (22.80%). While TPACK implementation was primarily at the levels of knowledge and concepts, listening tests were focused on recognizing and accepting. Conversely, critical listening practice was carried out at the adapting, exploring, and advancing levels, making technology usage easier for students (96.2%). Therefore, the higher the use of TPACK-based metacognitive listening strategies by students, the more their critical listening skills improve.

Index Terms—Metacognitive Listening Strategies (MLS), TPACK, critical listening skill

I. INTRODUCTION

Technology is advancing rapidly in today's world, making information widely accessible. This situation necessitates self-control and selectivity in receiving information to prevent being easily provoked, especially by content from social media platforms like Facebook, WhatsApp, Instagram, YouTube, and television shows. The significance of technology has grown even more during the global COVID-19 pandemic (Mishra & Koehler, 2006; Adnan & Anwar, 2020), particularly in education. Teaching and learning activities have primarily shifted to virtual formats during the outbreak. Consequently, listening skills have become a priority for both teachers and students. With adequate listening skills,

students can fully comprehend their lessons. Therefore, they need to develop listening as a learning skill and apply it in real life.

Learning to listen using audiovisual materials is engaging and can improve students' listening skills in language acquisition. Moreover, listening involves capturing sound symbols and processing information and visual symbols, which allows for critical evaluation of the material. This requires effective listening strategies, practice, and habituation. This aligns with research by Mahdavi and Miri (2016), which examines the impact of metacognitive strategies based on process-based and product-based learning on improving listening comprehension and metacognitive awareness. Process-based learning emphasizes that language skills (writing, reading, speaking, and listening) vary among students based on their second language (L2) proficiency (Ruiz-Funes, 2015; Sahragard & Mallahi, 2014; Soureshjani & Naseri, 2012). Listening skills are particularly challenging for many English as a Foreign Language (EFL) learners, who are constantly seeking solutions to improve (Graham, 2006). Thus, different learning contexts result in varying L2 performance levels (Ehrman et al., 2003). EFL teachers must consider this variation to create enjoyable learning experiences for students with diverse preferences (Chang, 2005). In contrast, learning Indonesian as a second language differs since it is not foreign. Recent research on L2 listening focuses on the correlation between metacognitive listening strategies and other EFL-related factors. Correspondingly, the present study specifically examined students' metacognitive listening strategies integrated with Technological Pedagogical Content Knowledge (TPACK) in their learning (Bozorgian, 2014; Cross, 2011; Latifi et al., 2014; Rahimi & Katal, 2013; Vandergrift & Goh, 2012; Vandergrift et al., 2006).

Several studies in educational research have integrated technology with TPACK-based teaching. One such study is a survey-based approach for TPACK measurement developed by Archambault and Crippen (2009), aimed at enhancing teachers' competence. Other significant studies by Mishra and Koehler (2006), Archambault and Crippen (2009), and Schmidt et al. (2014) offer triangulation on successful survey approaches using different methodologies (factor analysis) and populations (pre-service teachers), measuring teachers' understanding in various content areas. Research on integrated listening learning strategies using technology has shown that it can improve students' critical listening skills. Arono (2014, 2015) suggests that performance in listening strategies and interactive multimedia listening enhances students' listening skills.

Additionally, research by Armstrong and Ferrari-Bridgers (2020) on medical staff students demonstrated positive and significant results in critical listening without involving technology. This research, conducted through blended learning, without technology, and through face-to-face classes, contrasts with the current study, which focused on synchronous and asynchronous online learning using metacognitive listening strategies. Therefore, this research described the implementation of TPACK-based metacognitive listening strategies in improving students' critical listening skills.

II. LITERATURE REVIEW

A. *Metacognitive Listening Strategies*

The learning strategy for listening consists of two main parts: metacognitive and cognitive strategies. According to Oxford (2011), metacognitive strategies are considered "construction managers". Vandergrift et al. (2006) classify metacognitive strategies into five categories: (1) planning and evaluation, (2) directed attention, (3) person knowledge, (4) mental translation, and (5) problem solving. These strategies facilitate task-based learning, helping learners develop their metacognitive knowledge about listening (Goh, 2002; Vandergrift & Goh, 2012; Vandergrift, 1999). Metacognitive strategies involve techniques that improve listening skills through a person's knowledge of cognitive processes, active monitoring, regulation, and integration (Flavell, 1979). Metacognition is also defined as awareness and control of one's cognition, knowledge, and regulation (Wenden, 1998).

B. *Technological Pedagogical Content Knowledge (TPACK)*

Technological Pedagogical Content Knowledge (TPACK) extends the Pedagogical Content Knowledge (PCK) concept by incorporating technology as a specific type of lecturer knowledge. According to Koehler and Mishra (2008), there are three main components of lecturer knowledge in applying TPACK: material content, technology, and pedagogy. The integration of these three components is referred to as TPACK. Integrating technology into teaching and learning activities can enhance the quality of student learning outcomes. This finding is consistent with Shulman (1986) and Niess et al. (2009), who identify five levels of technology integration in learning: 1) Recognizing: lecturers can use technology and identify its alignment; 2) Accepting: lecturers form a favorable attitude toward learning content with appropriate technology; 3) Adapting: lecturers engage in activities leading to the adoption or rejection of learning with appropriate technology; 4) Exploring: lecturers actively integrate learning with relevant technology; 5) Advancing: lecturers evaluate the outcomes of decisions regarding the integration of learning with appropriate technology.

C. *Critical Listening Skills*

Critical listening skills involve the advanced assessment of information being listened to. It implies evaluating whether a message is presented accurately, not just understanding it (Wolvin & Coakley, 1985; Treasure, 2011; Talalakina, 2012; Ferrari-Bridgers et al., 2017). In critical listening, the assessment allows listeners to compare and determine the information's value, quality, and validity (Wolvin & Coakley, 1996). Critical listening skills are built on

appreciative listening, which increases awareness, wisdom, and the capacity for objective evaluation (Purdy, 2008; Corey, 2016). Critical listening prioritizes continuous understanding of the information received, maintaining details that fit this filter while discarding what does not contribute to structure, discipline, and clarity (Treasure, 2011; Couper, 2011). The indicators for students' critical listening skills include determining answers to specific problems, identifying similarities and differences, selecting objectives and evaluating, choosing new and additional information, and generalizing and hypothesizing (Anderson, 1972; Arono, 2014, 2015).

III. METHODOLOGY

A. Research Design

This study was descriptive quantitative research employing survey methods. Data were collected using questionnaires and tests. Descriptive quantitative research numerically explains activities and learning outcomes, describing each stage and learning level. Survey and questionnaire techniques were used to assess students' critical listening skills and the improvement of TPACK-based metacognitive listening strategies. Meanwhile, tests were employed to measure the enhancement of students' critical listening skills. Furthermore, the study described trends, behaviors, and generalized opinions or claims from a population or sample (Creswell, 2009). The survey was conducted online or on websites (Nesbary, 2000; Sue & Ritter, 2007).

B. Participants and Context

Participants in this study were students from the Indonesian Language Education Study Program at the University of Bengkulu. The sample included 44 students from Class A and Class B in Semester 1 of the 2020/2021 academic year. They were selected because their course prioritized technology in both audio and audiovisual learning practices. The TPACK model was deemed relevant for integration into listening courses. At the beginning of the semester, the students were expected to develop critical listening skills by prioritizing technology in their learning.

C. Data Collection Procedures

Data were collected through observations, interviews, close- and open-ended questionnaires, and online tests. Observations and interviews were used to monitor the development of learning activities in each cycle, the level of TPACK integration, and students' metacognitive listening strategies through virtual meetings (Zoom and Google Meet), e-learning, and written assignments completed online. Interviews via video calls and Zoom meetings revealed students' challenges in critical listening and technology use. Close- and open-ended questionnaires were used to observe the development and improvement of students' metacognitive listening strategies and technology use. Tests conducted at the end of each lesson measured students' critical listening skills. The tests were administered four times after implementing TPACK-based metacognitive listening strategies, yielding satisfying results.

D. Instruments

Data were collected employing a TPACK instrument developed by Vandergrift et al. (2006). It included 21 statements divided into five aspects of metacognitive listening strategies: planning and evaluation, directed attention, person knowledge, mental translation, and problem solving. The instrument was based on five levels: recognizing, accepting, adapting, exploring, and advancing, each in the form of open questions (Koehler & Mishra, 2008; Niess et al., 2009). Additionally, indicators of students' critical listening skills included determining answers to specific problems, identifying similarities and differences, setting objectives and evaluations, acquiring new and additional information, and formulating generalizations and hypotheses with 10 descriptive questions (Anderson, 1972; Wolvin & Coakley, 1996; Purdy, 2008; Treasure, 2011; Arono, 2014). The metacognitive listening strategies were integrated into every learning activity alongside technology/TPACK in critical listening practice. Students' metacognitive listening strategies and critical listening skills were developed over four meetings with various listening topics.

E. Data Analysis

The metacognitive listening strategies instrument was pre-tested with 40 randomly selected students, resulting in 21 valid statements ($r\text{-score} > r\text{-table}$, 0.312). After validation, the instrument was used to gather data on students' metacognitive listening strategies at the beginning, middle, and end of learning sessions. This instrument was linked to students' critical listening skills and the TPACK-based listening metacognitive strategies. The research data analysis occurred in two stages. The first stage involved a descriptive analysis of the implementation and observation of critical listening learning using the five-level TPACK-based metacognitive listening strategies. The second stage comprised a quantitative descriptive analysis of how metacognitive listening strategies improved students' critical listening skills using TPACK. Students' skills in each dimension were described using the following equation.

$$\text{Interval} = \frac{U - L}{I}$$

Notes:

U = Highest score of responses

L = Lowest score of responses

I = Number of interval classes (Sugiyono, 2010).

The Likert rating scale criteria interval is shown in Table 1 below.

TABLE 1
CRITERIA OF SKILLS FOR EACH DIMENSION

Interval	Criteria
1.00 – 1.80	Very Low, Very Less
1.81 – 2.60	Less
2.61 – 3.40	Moderate, Enough
3.41 – 4.20	High, Fine
4.21 – 5.00	Very High, Very Good

The research results were analyzed using inferential statistical analysis with multiple linear regression. The correlation between research variables is depicted mathematically as follows.

$$Y = \alpha + \beta X + e$$

$$Y = \alpha + \beta_1 X_1 + \beta_2 X_2 + e$$

Notes:

Y: Critical Listening Skills

α : Constant

$\beta_1 - \beta_2$: Regression Coefficient

X_1 : TPACK-based metacognitive listening strategies (TPACK MLS)

X_2 : non-TPACK-based metacognitive listening strategies (non-TPACK MLS)

TABLE 2
CRITICAL LISTENING SKILLS MEASUREMENT SCALE

Interval	Criteria
10 – 40	Poor
41 – 70	Moderate
71 – 80	Good
81 – 100	Very Good

(Arono, 2020)

To analyze the correlation between TPACK-based metacognitive listening strategies and aspects of critical listening skills, or vice versa, a simple linear test was conducted using current product display data.

$$r_{xy} = \frac{N \sum XY - (\sum X)(\sum Y)}{\sqrt{[N(\sum X^2) - (\sum X)^2][N(\sum Y^2) - (\sum Y)^2]}}$$

Notes:

r_{xy} = correlation coefficient

X = scores of metacognitive listening strategies

Y = scores of aspects of critical listening skills

N = number of respondents

The interpretation of the test analysis results was conducted using the following criteria.

TABLE 3
INTERPRETATION OF THE CORRELATION COEFFICIENT VALUE (R)

Coefficient Interval	Correlation Level
0.80 – 1.000	Very strong
0.60 – 0.799	Strong
0.40 – 0.599	Moderate
0.20 – 0.399	Low
0.00 – 0.199	Very low

Sugiyono (2010)

IV. FINDINGS

The TPACK-based metacognitive listening strategies were implemented in the Indonesian Language Education Study Program at the University of Bengkulu during the odd semester of the 2020/2021 academic year. Two classes were involved in this study: Class A and Class B. Class A consisted of 44 students (6 males and 38 females), while Class B also consisted of 44 students (8 males and 36 females). The investigation primarily focused on the practice of critical thinking after the final semester exams. However, learning activities before the final exams were also observed, particularly those that implemented TPACK. Until the midterm exam, the material focused on understanding listening skills. General comprehension listening tests were conducted several times, identifying the main components of TPACK: material, technology, and pedagogy. The first component, material, pertained to listening knowledge and skills, both intensive and extensive. The second component, technology, involved the students' use of technology in listening learning, including e-learning (<https://elearning.unib.ac.id/>), YouTube, Google Forms, WhatsApp groups, email/Google Drive, and Zoom meetings. The final component, pedagogy, encompassed metacognitive listening strategies such as honesty, discipline, criticality, and innovation, which were integrated with the e-learning platform.

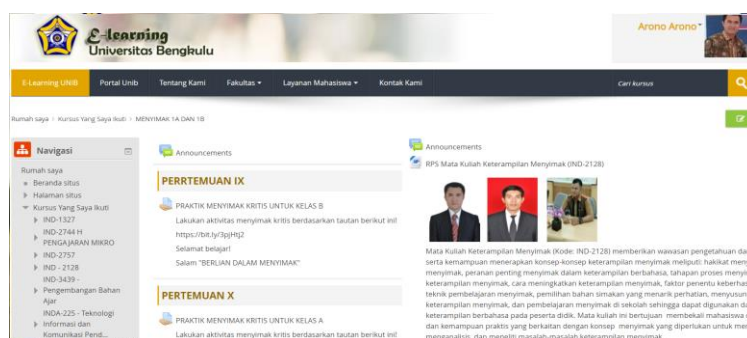
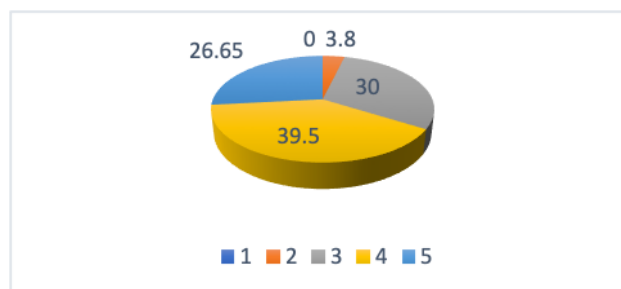


Figure 1. Critical Listening E-Learning

The e-learning process integrated technology with critical listening skills by applying it at five levels: recognizing, accepting, adapting, exploring, and advancing. The researchers grouped these levels into knowledge (recognizing and accepting) and conceptualization (adapting, exploring, and advancing). At the recognizing level, listening was aimed solely at acquiring knowledge and testing students, focusing on audio use and limited technology exploration. In other words, technology was primarily used for testing and delivering materials. At the accepting level, efforts were undertaken to maximize technology for improving listening skills, although many lecturers remained concerned about students' attention and listening skills. During listening tests, students were given limited time to cross-check what they heard, resulting in lectures predominantly being delivered synchronously.

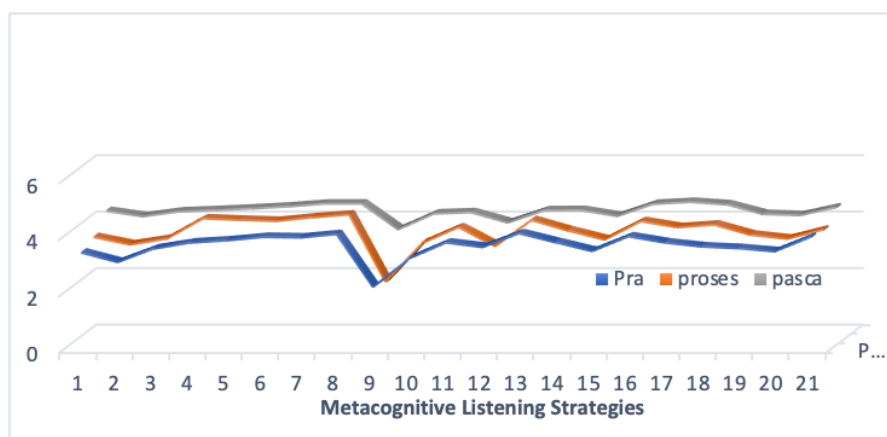
The practice and learning of critical listening carried out by prospective teachers involved three levels: adapting, exploring, and advancing. At the adapting level, lecturers and students began exploring, experimenting, and practicing critical listening skills utilizing technology. For example, students practiced metacognitive listening strategies with technological tools, developing appropriate critical listening skills. However, they encountered challenges in evaluating the integration of listening practice with writing. At the exploring level, lecturers and students maximized technology to facilitate critical listening practice on recent topics. Some students taught critical listening, while others responded using technology for planning, implementing, and reflecting on the teaching and learning process, guiding students in understanding and developing critical listening skills. These practices were evaluated by considering students' learning outcomes and attitudes towards listening activities, managed with various technological tools for both group and independent works.

At the advancing level, the process included planning, implementing, and reflecting on teaching and learning to improve students' independent critical listening skills. This level incorporated programmed critical listening practice with integrated and maximized technology. For instance, teachers used e-learning platforms to present materials, exercises, assignments, and discussions. Immediate discussions and information were handled via WhatsApp groups. Critical listening activities were facilitated through e-learning tools like Google Forms and YouTube links, with lectures delivered synchronously or face-to-face. Group discussions were conducted via Zoom meetings, while extensive teaching materials were shared via email/Google Drive. For evaluation, technology also played a crucial role, addressing initial difficulties students faced with e-learning platforms by providing tutorial links and operator contacts. Technological issues were discussed during virtual classes to enhance student achievement, as depicted in the graph below.



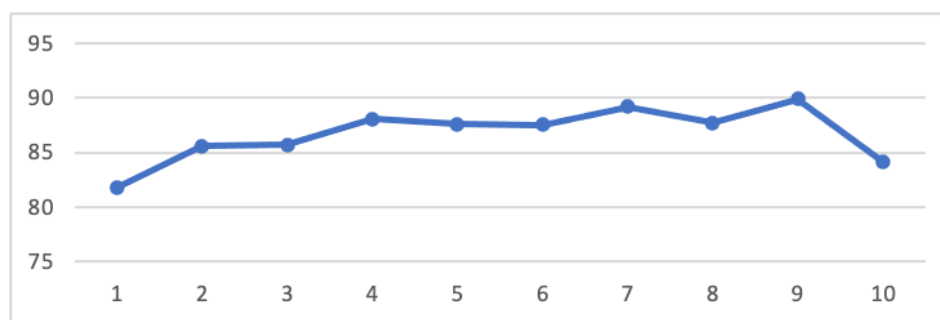
Graph 1. Students' Mastery of Technology

Graph 1 demonstrates that students' proficiency in using e-learning platforms and Google Forms to enhance critical listening skills was classified into favorable categories. This is evidenced by the levels of difficulty students experienced with the technology, which were categorized into five levels: very easy (26.7%), easy (39.5%), quite easy (30%), and difficult (3.8%). The total percentage for the easy category amounts to 96.2%. The primary reason for these findings was that students were introduced to technology usage both individually and in groups from the start of their Listening course. Besides, the COVID-19 pandemic has accustomed learners to using technology for learning, not only in Listening but also in other courses. This situation was further supported by the ease with which students accessed YouTube for learning materials, with findings showing very easy (47.6%), easy (29.5%), quite easy (15.2%), difficult (5.7%), and very difficult (1.9%). Despite the general ease, some students did encounter difficulties, primarily due to poor internet connections, as revealed in the interviews. For instance, watching YouTube videos often proved challenging during listening courses due to playback issues. The critical listening materials covered various topics: education (40%), social (20%), economy and health (15%), technology (8%), arts and culture (7%), environment (5%), defense and security (3%), and agriculture (2%). These themes were predominantly used in students' critical listening activities and designing listening materials using Google Forms. Beyond the technological aspects, pedagogical implementation is illustrated in the following graph.



Graph 2. Metacognitive Listening Strategies (MLS)

Graph 2 demonstrates that the TPACK-based metacognitive listening strategies enhanced various aspects: planning and evaluation, directed attention, person knowledge, mental translation, and problem solving. Among these five aspects, directed attention still required improvement to balance the metacognitive listening strategies with other areas. This need for balance was evident from the questionnaires administered to learners before, during, and after learning sessions. Students completed questionnaires about their metacognitive listening strategies before learning, resulting in a score of 3.66. After the final semester exams, during or in the middle of learning, students were given another questionnaire, which yielded good (3.82) and very good (4.23) scores. These results indicated an increase of 0.16% in the first cycle and 0.41% in the second cycle, exhibiting an overall growth of 0.57% in students' metacognitive listening strategies from the beginning to the end of the learning period. This suggests that learning with TPACK-based metacognitive listening strategies effectively improved students' critical listening skills, as reflected in their very good scores (86.7) in the graph below.



Graph 3. Students' Critical Listening Skills

Based on Graph 3, students' critical listening skills were categorized as very good (86.7), evaluated on aspects such as determining answers to specific problems, identifying similarities and differences, setting objectives and evaluations, acquiring new and additional information, and formulating generalizations and hypotheses. Among these aspects, determining answers to specific problems (83.7) and formulating hypotheses (84) scored slightly lower than others but remained in the very good category. The scores for identifying similarities and differences (86.8), setting objectives and evaluation (87.56), acquiring new and additional information (88.4), and formulating generalizations (89.9) were higher. These skills improved after four sessions of critical listening learning on various topics via Google Forms: the topic of politics achieved a sufficient score (64); the topics of economics and defense and security accomplished good scores (73 and 78.93, respectively); the topic of health achieved very good score (81.71). The final topic discussed was the relationship between health and education. The difference in students' critical listening skills before and after implementing TPACK-based metacognitive listening strategies is further detailed below.

TABLE 4
TEST RESULTS OF DIFFERENCES IN METACOGNITIVE LISTENING STRATEGIES BEFORE AND AFTER TPACK-BASED IMPLEMENTATION

Learning model	t _{score}	Significance	Information
Non-TPACK-based MLS learning	5.98	0.00	Different

The table above shows that the t-score was 5.98 with a significance of 0.00, less than the alpha level of 0.05. This indicates statistically significant differences between non-TPACK-based and TPACK-based metacognitive listening strategies learning. An N-gain analysis was conducted to assess the effectiveness of non-TPACK-based learning versus TPACK-based learning on students' metacognitive listening strategies. The results of the N-gain test for both classes are displayed in the following table.

TABLE 5
THE AVERAGE N-GAIN OF NON-TPACK-BASED AND TPACK-BASED MLS LEARNING

Class	N-gain	Information
TPACK-based MLS learning	60.53 %	Moderately effective
Non-TPACK-based MLS learning	18.81%	Ineffective

Criteria: >76: effective; 56-75: moderately effective; 40-55: less effective; <40: ineffective

The results of the N-gain analysis show that the average for metacognitive listening strategies in TPACK-based learning was 60.53%, categorized as "moderately effective." However, in the class using non-TPACK-based learning, the gain value was 18.81%, categorized as "ineffective." This statistical analysis concluded that TPACK-based learning was more effective in improving students' metacognitive listening strategies (MLS).

A regression test was carried out to examine the effect of non-TPACK-based learning on students' critical listening skills. The following table presents the statistical test results.

TABLE 6
REGRESSION TEST RESULTS FOR THE EFFECT OF NON-TPACK-BASED METACOGNITIVE LISTENING STRATEGIES LEARNING ON STUDENTS' CRITICAL LISTENING SKILLS

Model	Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients Beta	t	Sig.
	B	Std. Error			
(Constant) Non-TPACK-based MLS learning	91.85	2.635	.208	34.857	.000
	.064	.032		1.968	.052

a. Dependent variable: Non-TPACK-based MLS learning; R²= 0.208, f-score=3.87

The regression test results indicated that the non-TPACK-based metacognitive listening strategies (MLS) positively affected students' critical listening skills. However, this effect did not significantly improve students' critical listening skills, as evidenced by a t-score of 1.996 with a significance level of 0.052 (greater than alpha = 0.005). Statistically, the effect of critical listening skills on the learning of non-TPACK-based metacognitive listening strategies was not significant. The analysis also revealed the regression equation: $y = 91.85 + 0.064x$. This indicates a positive correlation

between students' critical listening skills and non-TPACK-based metacognitive listening strategies, with an x coefficient of 0.064. The R^2 value of 0.208 suggests that 20.80% of the variation in students' critical listening skills could be attributed to the statistical influence of the non-TPACK-based metacognitive listening strategies.

A regression test was performed to assess the effect of TPACK-based learning and its correlation with students' critical listening skills. The following are the statistical test results.

TABLE 7
REGRESSION TEST RESULTS FOR THE EFFECT OF TPACK-BASED METACOGNITIVE LISTENING STRATEGIES LEARNING ON STUDENTS' CRITICAL LISTENING SKILLS

Model	Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients Beta	t	Sig.
	B	Std. Error			
(Constant) TPACK-based MLS learning	79.081	3.532		22.387	.000
	.086	.039	.228	2.126	.033

a. Dependent variable: TPACK-based MLS learning; $R^2 = 0.228$, $f\text{-score} = 4.705$

The regression test results indicated that the non-TPACK-based metacognitive listening strategies (MLS) positively affected students' critical listening skills. Nevertheless, the effect did not significantly improve students' critical listening skills, as indicated by the t -score of 1.996 with a significance level of 0.052 (greater than $\alpha = 0.005$). This suggests that, statistically, the effect of critical listening skills on the learning of non-TPACK-based metacognitive listening strategies was not significant. The analysis also revealed the regression equation: $y = 91.85 + 0.064x$. This implied a positive correlation between the non-TPACK-based metacognitive listening strategies and students' critical listening skills, as indicated by an x coefficient of 0.064. Additionally, the test results revealed an R^2 value of 0.208, suggesting that the non-TPACK-based metacognitive listening strategies could explain 20.80% of the variation in students' critical listening skills.

To examine the effect of the metacognitive listening approach on students who received TPACK-based learning and to determine the extent to which each cognitive skill dimension affected student learning outcomes, the researchers conducted a regression test with the following results.

TABLE 8
REGRESSION TEST RESULTS FOR THE EFFECT OF TPACK-BASED MLS DIMENSIONS ON CRITICAL LISTENING SKILLS

Model	Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients Beta	t	Sig.
	B	Std. Error			
(Constant)	78.763	3.462		22.752	.000
Planning and Evaluation	.332	.108	.325	3.067	.003
Directed Attention	.110	.147	.307	1.068	.046
Person Knowledge	.392	.196	.203	1.996	.049
Mental Translation	.219	.162	.156	1.352	.180
Problem Solving	.277	.101	.307	2.749	.007

a. Dependent variable: Critical listening skills; $R^2 = 0.487$, $f\text{-score} = 5.10$

The regression test results above indicate that each cognitive dimension partially affected students' critical listening skills. This was evidenced by the significance value being less than the α level (0.05), indicating that at the 95% confidence level, each dimension affected students' critical listening skills. Nonetheless, the dimension of mental translation did not significantly affect students' critical listening skills. Based on the significance value and t -score, it can be concluded that the planning and evaluation, as well as problem solving dimensions, had higher values and more significance than the other dimensions. This suggests that these dimensions had a more significant effect on students' critical listening skills. Hence, the higher the TPACK-based metacognitive listening strategies of students at this stage, the more it will enhance their critical listening skills.

Statistically, the correlation between metacognitive listening strategies and each dimension of students' critical listening skills was analyzed using the correlation test. The analysis results for each dimension are presented in the following table.

TABLE 9
CORRELATION BETWEEN METACOGNITIVE LISTENING STRATEGIES AND CRITICAL LISTENING SKILLS

Dimensions of Critical Listening Skills	Pearson Correlation	Significance	Conclusion
Determining answers to specific problems	0.275	0.010	Significant
Identifying similarities and differences	0.231	0.030	Significant
Setting objectives and evaluations	0.215	0.044	Significant
Acquiring new and additional information	0.339	0.001	Significant
Formulating generalizations and hypotheses	0.337	0.001	Significant

The test results indicated a significant correlation between metacognitive listening strategies and each dimension of critical listening skills. Based on the Pearson correlation values, all dimensions exhibited positive correlations with p -values significantly less than α (0.05). This signifies that at the 95% confidence level, there was a positive

correlation between metacognitive listening strategies and the dimensions of critical listening skills. The results further suggest that higher proficiency in metacognitive listening strategies effectively enhanced students' critical listening skills, specifically in (1) determining answers to specific problems, (2) identifying similarities and differences, (3) setting objectives and evaluations, (4) acquiring new and additional information, and (5) formulating generalizations and hypotheses.

V. DISCUSSION

The application of TPACK in listening learning effectively improved metacognitive listening strategies and students' critical listening skills. This improvement was evident at various levels of learning activities through the interactive implementation of TPACK, encompassing knowledge, concepts, and listening tests at the recognizing and accepting levels, as well as the practice of critical listening at the adapting, exploring, and advancing levels. Students' critical listening skills and metacognitive listening strategies progressively improved in each learning cycle. TPACK positively affected the learning of critical listening. Statistical analysis indicated that TPACK-based learning effectively improved students' metacognitive listening strategies more effectively. The average N-gain score for TPACK-based learning was 60.53%, categorized as moderately effective, compared to 18.81% in non-TPACK-based metacognitive listening strategies learning, which was considered ineffective. This is consistent with research by Schmidt et al. (2014), indicating significant correlations between TPACK and eight subscales at the .001 level and with social study content knowledge (SSCK) at the .05 level. The highest correlations were between TPACK and TPK ($r = .71$), TPACK and TCK ($r = .49$), and TPACK and PCK ($r = .49$). Furthermore, TPACK surveys demonstrated its efficacy in measuring teacher constructs, such as technology skills, technology integration, access to technology, and attitudes about technology (Becker & Riel, 2000; Keller et al., 2005; Knezek & Christiansen, 2004; Mishra & Koehler, 2006; Archambault & Crippen, 2009).

Integrating technology into learning significantly impacts students' emotional, affective, and psychomotor skills, requiring maximum effort from lecturers to balance these skills. A systematic and comprehensive TPACK-based metacognitive listening strategy can effectively improve students' critical listening skills, though various challenges remain. For example, most in-charge teachers exhibit higher ethical integrity than TPACK proficiency. Gender and background do not significantly affect TPACK (Shun et al., 2018), likely due to limited pre-employment experience and skills among teachers. Likewise, strong TPACK knowledge determines teachers' creativity and effectiveness in developing new ways of representing and delivering learning content (Malubay & Daguploi, 2018). A balanced pedagogical and content technology approach is necessary for more strategic, varied, student-centered learning (Harris & Hofer, 2011; Swan & Hofer, 2011; Voogt et al., 2012).

TPACK-based students' metacognitive listening strategies generally improved, particularly in planning and evaluation, person knowledge, mental translation, and problem solving. However, directed attention still required improvement to balance with other aspects. This improvement was evident from student questionnaires administered before, during, and after learning activities. Regression test results demonstrated that both non-TPACK-based and TPACK-based metacognitive listening strategies positively affected students' critical listening skills. The positive correlation between non-TPACK-based metacognitive listening strategies and critical listening skills was indicated by an x coefficient of 0.064, while the TPACK-based was 0.228, signifying that TPACK could more effectively affect the improvement of students' critical listening skills, increasing from 20.80% to 22.80%. Research by Bozorgian (2014), Rahimirad and Shams (2015), and Maftoon and Alamdari (2016) also found significant increases in students' metacognitive awareness following the implementation of metacognitive listening strategies.

TPACK-based metacognitive listening strategies effectively improved students' critical listening skills from sufficient to excellent after four learning sessions. This increase in critical listening skills was noticed in determining answers to specific problems, identifying similarities and differences, setting objectives and evaluations, acquiring new and additional information, and formulating generalizations and hypotheses. Regression test results indicated that each cognitive dimension affected students' critical listening skills, though the mental translation dimension did not. Planning and problem solving dimensions had a greater significance and impact on students' critical listening skills. Hence, the higher the TPACK-based cognitive listening strategies, the better students perform in determining answers to specific problems, identifying similarities and differences, setting objectives and evaluations, acquiring new and additional information, and formulating generalizations and hypotheses. In this study context, the mental translation dimension was less important as Indonesian is a second language for students, not a foreign language. This aligns with Harbord's (1992) assertion that translating outside the context of a mastered language is more difficult to understand than the reader's or listener's native language.

VI. CONCLUSION

This study concludes that the implementation of TPACK-based metacognitive listening strategies could effectively improve students' critical listening skills. The metacognitive listening strategies applied in TPACK-based learning demonstrated a significant improvement in critical listening skills, unlike the non-TPACK-based approach, which only increased from 20.80% to 22.80%. TPACK-based learning addresses knowledge, concepts, and listening tests at

recognizing and accepting levels. Critical listening practice was further carried out at adapting, exploring, and advancing levels. Students' metacognitive listening strategies generally improved, particularly planning and evaluation, person knowledge, mental translation, and problem solving. However, the aspect of directed attention still required further portions to ensure balanced development across all aspects of the metacognitive listening strategies. Regression test results indicated that the TPACK-based metacognitive listening strategies positively affected critical listening skills, as indicated by the positive t-score of 2.169 with a significance value of 0.033 (less than alpha, 0.05). The analysis also revealed a regression equation of $y = 79.08 + 0.86 x$, indicating a positive correlation between the TPACK-based metacognitive listening strategies and students' critical listening skills, with an x coefficient of 0.86. The test results also exhibited an R^2 value of 0.228, suggesting that metacognitive listening strategies could affect the variation in critical listening skills by 22.80%.

Integrating technology into learning is essential for lecturers and students to respond to and manage the pandemic. Correspondingly, audio or audiovisual listening instruction needs to be more creative, dynamic, and interactive to enhance the quality of the learning process. Innovative teaching methods should also be integrated with more complex and up-to-date technology. This approach should extend to other language skills such as reading, speaking, and writing. When properly implemented, students will be comfortable, engaged in learning, and capable of assessing their progress in every technology-based learning activity. Additionally, lecturers must explore and motivate themselves to balance students' creativity by using technology, mainly since the students are millennials who are likely more adept with technology. Adequate facilities, such as free internet access provided by the government and universities, are crucial for the smooth learning process. Future research should delve deeper into factors integrated with TPACK, such as environment, culture, and learners, or TLCK (Technological Learning Content Knowledge), to produce a comprehensive set of studies pointing to various potential research directions (Chai et al., 2013).

REFERENCES

- [1] Adnan, M., & Anwar, K. (2020). Online learning amid the COVID-19 pandemic: Students' Perspectives. *Online Submission*, 2(1), 45-51.
- [2] Armstrong, D., & Ferrari-Bridgers, F. (2020). Improving critical listening skills in EMT students. *Irish Journal of Paramedicine*, 4(2), 1-25. <http://dx.doi.org/10.32378/ijp.v4i2.192>
- [3] Anderson, P. (1972). *Language skill in elementary education*. New York: Macmillan Publishing Co., Inc.
- [4] Archambault, L., & Crippen, K. (2009). Examining TPACK among K-12 online distance educators in the United States. *Contemporary Issues in Technology and Teacher Education*, 9(1). Retrieved August 28, 2022, from <http://www.citejourn.org/vol9/iss1Igeneral/article2.cfm>
- [5] Arono, A. (2014). Improving students listening skill through interactive multimedia in Indonesia, *Journal of Language Teaching and Research*, 5(1), 63-69. <https://doi.org/10.4304/jltr.5.1.63-69>
- [6] Arono, A. (2015). Relationship between listening strategy performance toward critical listening ability of Indonesian students, *Jurnal Al Talim IAIN Padang*, 22(1), 81-87. <http://dx.doi.org/10.15548/jt.v22i1.117>
- [7] Arono, A. (2020). *Model pembelajaran menyimak kritis* [Critical listening learning model]. RajaGrafindo Persada.
- [8] Becker, H. J., & Riel, M. M. (2000). *Teacher professional engagement and constructive-compatible computer usage* (Report no. 7). Irvine, CA: Teaching, Learning, and Computing. Retrieved May 1, 2022, from http://www.crito.uci.edu/tlc/Endings/report_7/
- [9] Bozorgian, H. (2014). The role of metacognition in the development of EFL learners' listening skill. *International Journal of Listening*, 28(3), 149-161. <https://doi.org/10.1080/10904018.2013.861303>
- [10] Chai, C.-S., Koh, J. H.-L., & Tsai, C.-C. (2013). A Review of technological pedagogical content knowledge. *Educational Technology & Society*, 16(2), 31-51. Retrieved December 10, 2023 from <https://www.jstor.org/stable/jeductechsoci.16.issue-2>
- [11] Chang, C. Y. K. (2005). Intuitive-analysis style and EFL listening strategies. *ARECLS E-Journal, Annual Review of Education, Communication and Language Sciences*, 2(1), 1-19.
- [12] Corey, J. (2016). *Audio production and critical listening: Technical ear training*. Taylor & Francis.
- [13] Couper, G. (2011). What makes pronunciation teaching work? Testing for the effect of two variables: socially constructed metalanguage and critical listening. *Language Awareness*, 20(3), 159-182.
- [14] Creswell, J. W. (2009). *Research Design: Qualitative, Quantitative, and Mixed Methods Approaches* (Third Edition). Thousand Oaks California: SAGE Publications.
- [15] Cross, J. (2011). Metacognitive instruction for helping less-skilled listeners. *ELT Journal*, 65(4), 408-416. <https://doi.org/10.1093/elt/ccq073>
- [16] Ehrman, M. E., Leaver, B. L., & Oxford, R. L. (2003). A brief overview of individual differences in second language learning. *System*, 31(3), 313-330. [https://doi.org/10.1016/S0346-251X\(03\)00045-9](https://doi.org/10.1016/S0346-251X(03)00045-9)
- [17] Flavell, J. H. 1979. Metacognition and cognitive monitoring: A new area of cognitive developmental inquiry. *American Psychologist*, 34(10), 906-911.
- [18] Goh, C. (2002). Learners' self-reports on comprehension and learning strategies for listening. *Asian Journal of English Language Teaching*, 12(1), 45-68.
- [19] Graham, S. (2006). Listening comprehension: The learners' perspective. *System*, 34(2), 165-182. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.system.2005.11.001>
- [20] Ferrari-Bridgers, F., Stroumbakis, K., Drini, M., Lynch, B., & Vogel, R. (2017). Assessing critical-analytical listening skills in math and engineering students: An exploratory inquiry of how analytical listening skills can positively impact learning. *International Journal of Listening*, 31(3), 121-141.

- [21] Harbord, J. (1992). The use of the mother tongue in the classroom. *ELT journal*, 46(4), 350-355. <http://doi.org/10.1093/elt/46.4.350>
- [22] Harris, J. B. and Hofer, M. J. (2011) Technological pedagogical content knowledge (TPACK) in action: A descriptive study of secondary teachers' Curriculum-based, technology-related instructional planning. *Journal of Research on Technology in Education*, 43(3), 1-27. <http://doi.org/10.1080/15391523.2011.10782570>
- [23] Keller, J. B., Bonk, C. J., & Hew, K. (2005). The TICKIT to teacher learning: Designing professional development according to situative principles. *Journal of Educational Computing Research*, 32(4), 329-340.
- [24] Knezek, G., & Christensen, R. (2004). *Summary of KIDS project findings for 1999-2004 research and project evaluation*. (U.S. Department of Education, Grant #R303A99030). Denton, TX: Institute for the Integration of Technology into Teaching and Learning (IITTL). Retrieved May 1, 2022, from [http://www.iittl.unt.edu/KIDS 5YearSu=nmary2. Pdf](http://www.iittl.unt.edu/KIDS%20YearSummary2.Pdf)
- [25] Koehler, M.J., & Mishra, P. (2008). Introducing TPCK. In AACTE committee on innovation and technology (Ed.), *The handbook of technological pedagogical content knowledge (TPCK) for educators* (pp. 3-29). New York, NY: Routledge.
- [26] Latifi, M., Tavakoli, M., & Dabaghi, A. (2014). The effect of metacognitive instruction on improving listening comprehension ability of intermediate EFL learners. *International Journal of Research Studies in Language Learning*, 3(6), 21-33. <https://doi.org/10.5861/ijrsl.2014.679>
- [27] Maftoon, P., & Alamdari, E. F. (2016). Exploring the effect of metacognitive strategy instruction on metacognitive awareness and listening performance through a process-based approach. *International Journal of Listening*, 34(1), 1-20. <https://doi.org/10.1080/10904018.2016.1250632>
- [28] Mahdavi, N., & Miri, M. (2016). Co-shaping metacognitive awareness and developing listening comprehension through process-based instruction. *International Journal of Listening*, 33(1), 1-18. <https://doi.org/10.1080/10904018.2016.1260454>
- [29] Malubay, J., and Daguploi, M. S. (2018). Characterizing mathematics teachers' technological pedagogical content knowledge. *European Journal of Education Studies*, 4(1), 199-219. <http://doi.org/10.5281/zenodo.1160586>
- [30] Mishra, P., & Koehler, M. J. (2006). Technological pedagogical content knowledge: A framework for integrating technology in teachers' knowledge. *Teachers College Record*, 108(6), 1017-1054.
- [31] Nesbary, D. K. (2000). *Survey research and the world wide web*. Boston: Allyn & Bacon.
- [32] Niess, M. L., Ronau, R. N., Shafer, K. G., Driskell, S. O., Harper S. R., Johnston, C., Browning, C., Özgün-Koca, S. A., & Kersaint, G. (2009). Mathematics teacher TPACK standards and development model. *Contemporary Issues in Technology and Teacher Education*, 9(1), 4-24.
- [33] Oxford, R. L. (2011). *Teaching and researching language learning strategies*. Pearson Education Limited.
- [34] Purdy, M. W. (2008). *Listening: The "lost" communication skill*. Retrieved December 23, 2023 from https://www.academia.edu/5612011/Listening_The_lost_communication_skill.
- [35] Rahimi, M., & Katal, M. (2013). The impact of metacognitive instruction on EFL learners' listening comprehension and oral language proficiency. *The Journal of Teaching Language Skills*, 5(2), 69-90. <https://doi.org/10.22099/JTLS.2013.1555>
- [36] Rahimirad, M., & Shams, M. R. (2015). The effect of activating metacognitive strategies on the listening performance and metacognitive awareness of EFL students. *The International Journal of Listening*, 28(3), 162-176. <https://doi.org/10.1080/10904018.2014.902315>.
- [37] Ruiz-Funes, M. (2015). Exploring the potential of second/foreign language writing for language learning: The effects of task factors and learner variables. *Journal of Second Language Writing*, 28(6), 1-19. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jslw.2015.02.001>
- [38] Sahragard, R. & Mallahi, O. (2014). Relationship between Iranian EFL learners' language learning styles, writing proficiency and self-assessment. *International Conference on Current Trends in ELT, Procedia-Social and Behavioural Sciences*, 98(2014), 1611-1620. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.sbspro.2014.03.585>
- [39] Schmidt, D. A., Baran, E., Thompson, A.D., Mishra, P., Koehler, M.J., Shin, T. S. (2014). Technological Pedagogical Content Knowledge (TPACK): The development and validation of an assessment instrument for preservice teachers. *Journal of Research on Technology in Education*, 42(2), 123-149. <https://doi.org/10.1080/15391523.2009.10782544>
- [40] Soureshjani, K. H., & Naseri, N. (2012). Perceptual learning-style preferences of Iranian EFL learners in relation to their proficiency level. *American Journal of Linguistics*, 1(4), 70-74. <https://doi.org/10.5923/j.linguistics.20120104.01>
- [41] Sue, V. M. & Ritter, L. A. (2007). *Conducting online surveys*. Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage.
- [42] Sugiyono, S. (2010). *Metode penelitian pendidikan pendekatan kuantitatif, kualitatif, dan R & D*. [Educational research methods with quantitative, qualitative, and R & D approaches]. Alfabeta.
- [43] Swan, K. and Hofer, M. (2011). In Search of technological pedagogical content knowledge: Teachers' initial foray into podcasting in economics. *Journal of Research on Technology in Education (JRTE)*, 44(1), 75-98. <http://doi.org/10.1080/15391523.2011.10782580>
- [44] Shulman, L. S. (1986). Those who understand: Knowledge growth in teaching. *Educational Researcher*, 15(2), 4-14.
- [45] Shun Xu, S., Zhu, S., and Tang, M. (2018). *A Research on the present situation and strategies of pre-service teachers' TPACK competence*. 9th International Conference on Information Technology in Medicine and Education. Date of Conference: 19-21 Oct. 2018. <http://doi.org/10.1109/ITME.2018.00085>
- [46] Talalakina, E. V. (2012). Audiobook in advanced ESL classroom: Developing critical listening. In *Proceedings of the international conference ICT for language learning*.
- [47] Treasure, J. (2011). *Sound business: How to use sound to grow profits and brand value* (2nd ed.). Gloucestershire, UK: Management Books.
- [48] Vandergrift, L. (1999). Facilitating second language listening comprehension: Acquiring successful strategies. *ELT Journal*, 53(3), 168-176. <https://doi.org/10.1093/elt/53.3.168>
- [49] Vandergrift, L., Goh, C., Mareschal, C., & Tafaghodtari, M. H. (2006). The metacognitive awareness listening questionnaire: Development and validation. *Language Learning: A Journal of Research in Language Studies*, 56(3), 431-462. <https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1467-9922.2006.00373.x>
- [50] Vandergrift, L., & Goh, C. C. M. (2012). *Teaching and learning second language listening: Metacognition in action*. Routledge.

- [51] Voogt, J., Fisser, P., Roblin, N. P., Tondeur, J, and van Braak, J. (2012). Technological pedagogical content knowledge – a review of the literature. *Journal of Computer Assisted Learning*, 29(2), 109-121, <http://doi.org/10.1111/j.1365-2729.2012.00487.x>
- [52] Wenden, A. (1998). Meta-cognitive knowledge and language learning. *Applied Linguistics*, 19(4), 515-537. <https://doi.org/10.1093/applin/19.4.515>
- [53] Wolvin, A. D., & Coakley, C. G. (1985). *Listening*. Brown & Benchmark.
- [54] Wolvin, A. D., & Coakley, C. G. (1996). *Listening* (4th ed.). McGraw-Hill.



Arono was born in Bengkulu, Indonesia, on March 14, 1977. Since 2005, he has taught in the Indonesian Language and Literature Education Study Program at the University of Bengkulu. In 2013, he completed his doctoral program, and by the end of 2021, he attained the title of professor in Indonesian Language and Literature Education. His expertise includes language skills, language learning and research methodology, the Indonesian language for foreign speakers, and the development of teaching materials. He can be contacted via arono@unib.ac.id



Nadrah was born in Padang, West Sumatra, on July 11, 1976. Since 2005, she has been teaching in the English Language Education Study Program at State Islamic University Fatmawati Soekarno Bengkulu, Indonesia. She is currently pursuing doctoral studies at the University of Canberra, Australia. Her expertise includes language skills, ICT in English teaching, and language learning methodology. She can be contacted via nadrah@iainbengkulu.ac.id and nadrah.nadrah@canberra.edu.au



Elvi Susanti was born in Padang, West Sumatra, Indonesia, on August 1, 1968. In 2008, she became a lecturer in the Indonesian Language and Literature Education Study Program at State Islamic University Syarif Hidayatullah Jakarta, Indonesia. Her expertise includes language skills, discourse analysis, the development of teaching materials, and language rhetoric. She can be contacted via elvisoesanti@yahoo.co.id



Laspida Harti was born in Padang, West Sumatra, Indonesia, on September 10, 1965. In 1990, she became a lecturer in the Indonesian Language and Literature Education Study Program at STKIP YDB Lubuk Alung, Padang, Indonesia. Her expertise includes language skill, literature teaching, sociolinguistics, research methodology, language learning evaluation, and literary criticism. She can be contacted via laspidaharti@gmail.com



Catur Wulandari was born in Martapura, South Sumatra, Indonesia, on August 11, 1978. In 2005, she became a lecturer in the Indonesian Language and Literature Education Study Program at University of Bengkulu. She completed her doctoral program in 2022. Her expertise includes language skills, language learning, research methodology, and the development of teaching materials. She can be contacted via catur_wulandari@unib.ac.id



Nafri Yanti was born in Bengkulu Indonesia, on November 14, 1989. Since 2015 she became a lecturer in the Language and Literature Education Study Program at University of Bengkulu. In 2022, he completed his doctoral program. Her expertise includes language skills, language learning, the Indonesian language for foreign speakers, and the development of teaching materials. She can be contacted via nafriyanti@unib.ac.id



Y. Claudia Dhian A. Harbelubuni was born in Jakarta, Indonesia, on May 08, 1976. In 2007, she became a lecturer Indonesian Language in Elementary Teacher Education Study Program, Department of Languages and Education, Atma Jaya Indonesian Catholic University, Indonesia. Her expertise includes academic writing, language and literature teaching, research methodology. She can be contacted via dhian.ariani@atmajaya.ac.id

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/>

English Language Needs of Thai Cruise Ship Crew Members: A Target Situation Analysis <i>Chariti Khuanmuang</i>	242
Ecolexicon of Balinese Medical Plants in <i>Lontar Usada Putih</i> : An Ecolinguistics Study <i>I Wayan Suardiana, I Made Dwika Hadinata, Rahmat Gaho, Anak Agung Gde Alit Geria, and I Made Budiasa</i>	252
The Relationship Between Students' L2 Engagement and Learning Success <i>Ibrahim H. Alzahrani</i>	266
The Adaptation of William Shakespeare's <i>Othello</i> in Nicole Galland's <i>I, Iago</i> <i>Jasmine Mohammad Hasayen and Nasaybah Walid Awajan</i>	274
Measuring Vocabulary Knowledge for Secondary Graduate Students <i>Yasser Alsuhaibani</i>	282
Benefits of Digital Editing for Japanese Writing Instruction <i>Kazuhito Uni</i>	289
Implementing a Genre-Based Approach to Enhance Essay Writing Skills in Saudi EFL Learners <i>Albandary Ibrahim Alhammad</i>	295
Gender Differences in Using Expressions of Agreement in Jordanian Spoken Arabic <i>Entessar M. Alharahsheh and Rashed A. Alharahsheh</i>	302
Expanding English Learning Beyond Classroom Boundaries: Investigating EFL Students' Perceptions of the Effects of Listening to Online Stories on Incidental Vocabulary Acquisition <i>Amal Abdul-Aziz Mohammad Al-Othman</i>	311
An Innovative Method of Teaching English for Hospitality: A Case in Bali Tourism College, Indonesia <i>Denok Lestari, Kadek Ayu Ekasani, Ni Luh Supartini, and Ni Made Ayu Sulasmini</i>	324
English Literature Studies Online: Insights From Graduate and Undergraduate Students at The Hashemite University <i>Haitham M. Talafha, Kifah M. Al-Omari, Marwan M. Obeidat, and Baker M. Bani-Khair</i>	335
The Implementation of TPACK-Based Metacognitive Listening Strategies in Improving Students' Critical Listening Skills <i>Arono, Nadrah, Elvi Susanti, Laspida Harti, Catur Wulandari, Nafri Yanti, and Y. Claudia Dhian A. Harbelubun</i>	346

EFL Students' Perceptions of Their Graduation Internship: A Study at a Center of Foreign Languages in Vietnam <i>Luu Nguyen Quoc Hung</i>	83
Enhancing Vocabulary Acquisition Efficiency Through Metacognitive Strategies and Vocabulary Tasks: A Study of EFL Learners in a Taiwanese University of Technology <i>Hsiu-Lien Tu</i>	89
Words That Propel: The Power of Motivational Quotes in the EFL Class <i>Amal A. Alwasidi and Lubna A. Alnaeem</i>	97
Psychological Suggestive Connotations in Fahd Al-Askar's Poetry: "Woman and Wine" Poem as a Model <i>Ismeel M. M. Al-Gayam, Basma A. S. Al-Rawashdeh, Ahmad H. M. Bany Essa, and Mahmoud A. Rababah</i>	107
Naming and Describing as a Textual-Conceptual Tool in Woolf's <i>Mrs. Dalloway</i> <i>Azhar H. Sallomi and Iman M. Obied</i>	118
Translator's Style in Fiction Translation: A Ten-Year Systematic Literature Review <i>Yao Jinfang, Shaidatul A. A. Kasuma, and Mohamed A. Moindjie</i>	125
Ecollexicon of Flora and Fauna in Makassarese Proverbs: An Ecolinguistic Study <i>Mirsa Umiyati, Nur Afrita Asfar, and Rika Purnama Sari</i>	134
Empowering EFL Learners: A Multilayered Deep Learning Framework for EMI Universities <i>Aziz Thabit Saeed, Hayat Al-Khatib, Kaldun Mohamednur Said, and Ghada Abdel Hafeez</i>	145
The Impact of ChatGPT on EFL Medical Track Students' Affective Filter <i>Aeshah M. Almineeai, Mohammed A. Alrashed, Taha A. Hezam, Asma F. Alharthi, and Salma F. Alharthi</i>	158
English Language Teachers' Perspectives on Technological Applications Used for Students With Disabilities <i>Omar Ismail Alorani, Sarp Erkir, Suzie Yaseen Rababa'h, Baker Mohammad Bani-Khair, Ali Ata Alkhaldi, Mahmoud Ali Rababah, Basma Mohammad Al-Hawamdeh, Abdelsalam Fahad Al-Awamrah, and Feras Ali Al-Habies</i>	168
Perceptions of Middle School Arabic Language Teachers Towards the Development of Argumentative Writing Skills <i>Abeer S. AlSalem</i>	180
Dissenting Female Voices: A Comparative Reading of Nathaniel Hawthorne's <i>The Scarlet Letter</i> and Fadia Faqir's <i>My Name Is Salma</i> <i>Najah A. Alzoubi, Motasim O. Almwajeh, Abdullah F. Al-Badarneh, and Haitham M. Talafha</i>	190
Empowering Adult EFL Learners: A Self-Directed, Process-Oriented Writing Program <i>Nouf Aljasir</i>	197
Analysis of Japanese Learners' Mother Tongue Interferences in Speaking English Language <i>I Nyoman Muliana, Julius Faozanolo Sarumaha, and Rahmat Gaho</i>	210
Film Subtitling's Challenges and Solutions: An Empirical Study of Saudi Translation Learners' Perceptions and Attitudes <i>Talal Musaed Alghizzi, Anwar Alharbi, and Tariq Elyas</i>	219
Politeness Strategies in Arabic-Scripted Friday <i>Khutbah</i> ("Sermons") <i>Fathi Migdadi, Kawakib Al-Momani, and Ibrahim Hammouri</i>	232
